EXPLORING RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN SECONDARY SCHOOL PRINCIPALS'

GENDER AND CAMPUS RATINGS IN THE TEXAS ACCOUNTABILITY SYSTEM

A Doctoral Thesis Presented to the
Faculty of the College of Education
University of Houston

In Partial Fulfillment
Of the Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education
In
Professional Leadership

by
Sonerka Mouton
May 2011

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Abstract

The gender gap in school principal leadership has continued, despite past records of successful leadership by women principals (Mertz, 2006). In the state of Texas, men staggeringly outnumber women in all of the prominent professions in society. Women in Texas make up 77.3 percent of all teachers (Texas Education Agency, 1998); nevertheless, males dominate in the field of education in administration. Research has shown the gender of Texas school principals has been correlated to state mandated testing for student success rates, but has received very little attention. While many studies have supported the evidence that differences in perception exist among men and women with regard to leadership qualities that equate success (Eagly, Karau, & Johnson 1992), relatively little has been examined comparing gender to the Texas Achievement Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) as a success indicator. The current study examined the relationship between gender and TAKS success.

A quantitative research design was utilized with SPSS. Procedures for the study included gathering the gender of all public school principals in the state of Texas by utilizing a TEA data bank. The 2010 AEIS report generated information regarding campus size, campus level, and campus rating for every school in the state of Texas. The anticipated results indicated that a significant relationship exists between each of the variables that were tested. This study researched the prevalence of gender at particular school campuses and whether or not it has continued, and if gender is significantly related to campus size, campus rating, and campus level. Discussion presented in this study related to hiring practices and future research.

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

At the elementary, junior high, and high school level, the school principal is the highest-ranking administrator. The public school principal has many roles in an increasingly complex position that has resulted in an increase of responsibilities. Despite legislation that has promoted equal opportunity, affirmative action, and support of women's professional aspirations, women have continued to be the minority in public school administrative positions (Boyle, 2004; Gladstone, 2001). As Eagly (2007) stated, "there continued to be widespread recognition that women often come in second to men in competitions to attain leadership positions."

Historically, women have been the majority in the teaching profession. However, past research has focused on the White, male educational leader (Blackmore, 1989; Capper, 1993; Glazer, 1991). The characteristics and attributes of leadership styles among public school principals varied on many different levels across both genders. In accordance with the division of labor among administrators and teachers in the early 1900s, women were assigned the role of nurturing teacher; conversely, men became scientific decision-makers, bureaucrats and disciplinarians (Shakeshaft, 1987). Later in 1928, female principals became the majority, with 55% holding the position of elementary principal. Noticeably; however, there occurred a subsequently sharp decline in the number of women holding a principal's position. "In the years between 1928 and 1984, the number of women principals continually dropped from 55% to 18%" (Lynch & O'Riordan, 1990, p. 471). In Texas, in the 1990–1991 school year, 36.9 percent of the

principals were women. Surprisingly, in 1997-1998 school year women principals increased to 50.4 percent (TEA, 1998). It is important to note, however, that this increase occurred solely at the elementary level. In comparing 1990 to 1998 statistics the observations speak for themselves: men still dominate the high administrative positions in public education.

It has taken 13 years to increase the percentage of women in administrative positions (TEA, 1998). Although women in administrative positions are no longer looked upon as an oddity, the numbers of women in administrative roles is not equitable, especially at the secondary level.

According to the National Center for Educational Center for Education Statistics,-(2007),-"female principals comprise less than half of the percentage of male principals at the secondary level." One of the common perceptions held by women principals' male counterparts was that these were women who had sacrificed family in pursuit of success. Women principals were also viewed as power hungry, aggressive, and willing to step on others in order to gain prestige. Few examinations of female administrators existed, and, "they lacked the substance necessary for a thorough examination of the style and manner of effective women administrators" (Smith-Thibodeaux, 1991, p. 132). Even though the level of opportunity for women has increased, they still face a great deal of "social scrutiny" faced, which makes "hard choices—such as when and whether to start a family or advance in the workplace—even harder" (Fels, 2004, p. 59). Whether or not an administrator is a female or male should not matter. The academic success of a campus or the failure of a campus is the bottom line. The answers are in the data. The success of a campus can be measured by the overall academic success or failure of a campus.

The No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) (2001) has drawn attention to schools that were not receiving an academically acceptable passing score. The state of Texas has used the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) as an assessment that has rated both individual students and subgroup populations within the student body. Schools are then rated as having been academically successful or not. Specifically, the categorical school success ratings identified by the Texas Education Agency (TEA) are exemplary, recognized, acceptable, and unacceptable. According to sanctions mandated by NCLB, change occurs in administrative leadership of a school when a school receives an unacceptability rating. If the unacceptable rating occurs over two or more years, (TEA) will issue the administrative change for the individual school district. First, TEA puts in place intervention; then, after the second year of unacceptability, the agency can appoint new administrators to the specific unacceptable campus.

Principals in today's schools are the facilitators of staff and student learning (i.e.,—the leader of a learning community). The principal is also identified as the instructional leader who teaches, coaches, and promotes professional development among faculty and staff. In addition, those principals who provide salient and meaningful professional development experiences to staff members serve to enhance motivation, self-esteem, security, and morale (Blase & Blase, 1998). When the principals have a shared vision of learning and collaborative change, and had a discussion of possible professional trainings for the staff, a positive impact results in professional development. Thus research demonstrates that teachers who work in a stimulating and supportive environment can reach a higher stage of professional development (Phillips & Glickman, 1991).

Need for the Study

A review of related literature indicated that perceptions of female principals vary due to both gender and myth. One of the most common reasons presented in the literature for the underrepresentation of women in school administration was the negative perception of women's leadership (Tyree, 1995). Studies of female and male approaches to leadership have documented a distinct set of beliefs with regard to the stylistic way that women and men manage (Morgan, 2004). For instance, men have certain management attributes that include authoritative, decisive, controlling, and unemotional. The above attributes of men were often more respected by potential employers in education than a more decentralized approach to leadership. Tyree (1995) stated that the underrepresentation of women in educational administration was fostered through a series of myths: "(a) women don't have what it takes, and (b) women lack support of teachers and the community."

According to Helgesen (1990), women must continue to deal with the negative views of female administrators held by peers, parents, and employees of both sexes. Gupton and Slick (1995) quoted a female elementary principal as having said, "even after women have obtained administrative positions, they are not afforded the status or the respect given their male colleagues" (p. 10). Educational leadership "has been subjected to and contributed to workplace gender power relations within and across hierarchical levels, in recruitment, selection, appraisal, promotion and so on" (Broadbridge & Hearn, 2008, p. 44). The evaluation of a woman administrator could be affected directly by the attitudes in which teachers have had toward women administrators in the past. In

addition, the attitudes of teachers may have also contributed to women who have sought administrative positions.

Despite the past records of successful leadership from women in the principalship, the gender gap in school principal leadership has continued to widen, (Mertz, 2006). In the state of Texas, men staggeringly outnumber women in all of the prominent professions in society. Women in Texas make up 77.3 percent of all teachers (Texas Education Agency, 1998); nevertheless, males dominate in the field of education in regard to administration. Research has shown the gender of Texas school principals has been correlated to state mandated testing for student success rates, but has received very little attention. While many studies have supported the evidence that differences in perception exist among men and women with regard to leadership qualities that equate success (Eagly, Karau, & Johnson 1992), relatively little has been examined comparing gender to the Texas Achievement Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) as a success indicator. This study examined the relationship between gender and TAKS success. Campuses receive report cards from the Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) that determine the overall academic rating through a summative assessment. The campus report cards also present data on campus size and campus levels.

Researchers in the past (Morgan, 2004; Pompiel, 2004; Tyree, 1995) have indicated a distinct stereotype of the differences in the way women and men manage leadership positions (Eagly, 2007). Even administrators of the same gender have shown differences in leadership style. When the leadership differences are placed aside, the question has arisen regarding the placement of women principals in specific campus levels and campus sizes. In the past, women were seen as being selflessly nurturing,

domestic, and more motherly in manner (Popiel, 2004). The notion of female administrators as motherly or nurturing may influence which campus level or campus size they are assigned. This current study examined these issues as well. Little research has been done on male principals; but even less research has been conducted in regard to female principals. With all the research and literature on numerous historical educational topics, the principal - and women's role in the principalship in particular - has been missing from most of the chapters. Rousmaniere (2006) stated that "it's as if the principal did not exist at all."

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to examine gender demographics and report on the relationships between principal gender and TAKS campus rating, campus level (e.g., elementary, middle school, junior high, and high school), and campus size (student population totals). The comparative study gathered Texas state data for the 2009-2010 school year.

Research Questions

Given the purpose stated above, the study addressed the following research questions:

Research Question One: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus level (elementary, middle school, junior high, and high school)?

Research Question Two: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus academic success as measured by the Texas TAKS test?

Research Question Three: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus size?

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following terms are defined:

Administrator:

A hierarchical position in schools, usually filled by one thought to be the authority.

Assistant principal:

"The assistant principal usually refers to a person who is the administrative assistant to the principal, the person who is responsible for carrying out the directions of the principal in the areas of school organization, guidance, and education policy" (Golden, 1997, p. 100).

Attendance:

A record of people designating the frequency of being present in an organization.

Educational leader:

Any persons in a school environment whose major focus is meeting the educational needs of the students, teachers, or community.

Principal:

A hierarchical, administrative position in school districts designated as the overseer of the building and staff, one who is concerned with the management and educational needs of particular grade levels.

Importance of the Study

This study contributes to knowledge about gender of principals and the correlation to campus academic success. The outcome of this study provided information about whether a female or male principal may be capable of leading a campus to academic success. The outcome of this study also revealed whether the grade level of a principal matters in their gender and leading their campus to academic success.

Summary

Women trying to break through into educational administration face a litany of problems. Furthermore, the issues women are forced to confront are particularly evident at the secondary level. Whether or not the problems are dealing with personal family obligations or professional dealing with gender stereotypes, problems exist for women administrators. In order to understand the socio-historical context of our current systems of education it is important to note that the existing organizational structure was created and dominated by white male administrators. By contrast, however, women dominate the teaching profession. The secondary female administrator is constructed as "the redhead stepchild" in this educational organizational structure. She is called to the profession she did not create, yet remains undervalued and insignificant, because of her nurturing characteristics.

CHAPTER TWO

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

According to Shakeshaft (1987) schools transformed from autonomous organizations with loosely coupled classes conducted by strong men and women into bureaucracies ruled by one administrator and in which super ordinates and subordinates were manufactured. "Male teachers were put in charge and women were looked to as the ideal subordinate," according to Shakeshaft (1987, p.31). Laws were even created to restrict women in school administration, subordinate their roles, and relegate them to lower levels of institutional leadership and influence. She also explains that, until 1858 in New Hampshire, women adhered to a different set of qualifications than males in order to become school administrators (Shakeshaft, 1987). Such patterns of male dominance solidified numerous beliefs about women that were accepted by both men and women, which have now evolved into a latent institutional double standard. Negative attitudes towards women within educational institutions continued to as a major barrier, in a number of different areas. For instance, the issue disciplining of students is one particular exemplar that serves to highlight the gender bias present in schools – particularly in relation to viewing women's nurturing nature as a detriment. "Women were thought to be constitutionally incapable of discipline and order, primarily because of their size and supposed lack of strength," notes Shakeshaft (1987, p.39).

In 1928 women held over half of the principal positions in the United States, which was twice the percentage held in 1973 (Lovelady-Dawson, 1990). The number of women in administration decreased after 1930. In fact, based on research, Rousmaniere (2007) states that, in the United States between 1900 and the 1950s, over two-thirds of American elementary schools had women principals. Most of these positions were in rural schools, but women were also prominent in city schools, holding over three-fourths of elementary principalships in cities under 30,000, and well over half in many of the largest American cities (p. 15). It is important to emphasize that these were elementary principal positions, not secondary ones.

World War II gave women a brief opportunity to be administrators; however, as Shakeshaft (1987) explains, "Women who served their country during WWII by taking school jobs were rewarded by being dismissed when the men returned" (p.45). Just as women were needed to fill positions in the war industries due to a shortage of men, they were also given a brief opportunity to be administrators in secondary schools. The reality was that most women returned to being full-time homemakers during the prosperity of the 1950s. In the 1950s, the consolidation of small schools into larger ones also caused women in small districts to lose their jobs to men in the new structure, particularly with regard to administrative positions (Shakeshaft, 1987). For women administrators, a discouraging time came when men were encouraged to become teachers and women were encouraged to remain at home. Teaching was presented as a good job for married women only because it was an occupation where they could

combine motherhood, wifehood, and work. The push to hire more males in schools as teachers impacted the administrative structure enormously as men remained in teaching for only a short period of time when the call for administrators was greatest as schools expanded.

Shakeshaft (1987) states, "Most women enter teaching to teach but most men enter teaching to administer." (p.87). Because 19th century women's low social status and subordination to men in all other aspects of their lives allowed school reformers to create male-dominated bureaucratic structures curtailed to their options, teaching evolved as a profession that was structured by a sex segregated system of hierarchical control and supervision. (Dunn, 1990, p. 323).

Coined in the 1970s, the term "glass ceiling" was used to describe the invisible and artificial barrier created by attitudinal and organizational prejudices, which block women from senior executive positions. Whether the glass ceiling occurs in the workplace or in the realm of politics is essentially a reflection of social and economic gender inequality. (Wirt, 2001, p.1).

Valian (1999) echoed Wirt by saying that, "independent of all other factors, gender appears to play a major role in people's ability to get ahead. Gender schemas are objectively costly for women. Relative to women, men have a leg up. Men look right for the job." Valian goes on to say, "If you can't get your hands on the ball, you can't show what you can do with it" (p. 57). When female achievements are not recognized, it is neither enjoyable nor rewarding to participate without the acknowledgment of one's contributions in a given field. Wilson (2004) states, in her discussion of women in all types of leadership,

"When it comes to women's leadership, we live in a land of deep resistance, with structural and emotional impediments burned into the cultures of our organizations, into our society, and into the psyches and expectations of both sexes. The problem is layered, as is the solution" (p. xiii).

Wilson continues in *Why Women Can and Must Help Run the World* that even with women making up nearly half the workforce, the U.S. still only ranks sixty-sixth in women's political leadership, behind such countries as the Philippines, Turkmenistan, and Singapore. In 1998, women occupied 69 seats out of 435 in the U.S. House of Representative, and 14 seats in the U.S. Senate, and historically there are only 26 women who have served as governors in the United States. It should come as no surprise that women seeking the superintendent position would be told by a school board member, "We're just not ready for a woman around here" (Blount, 1998, p.156). The same holds true for school boards in the state of Texas. The majority of school districts have only one female board member if any.

Something had to be done about discrimination in the workplace, Estlund (2003) discussed changes that occurred after Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act. This act prohibits discrimination by covered employers on the basis of race, color, religion, sex or national origin. Even after Title VII was enacted and more women entered the closely guarded male bastions, upper management and skilled manual trades still remain overwhelmingly male. In direct contrast, clerical and lower level health and childcare occupations remain overwhelmingly female. Such patterns are self-reinforcing and hard to break, because when women are a

small minority within a workplace or job category, they are much more susceptible to stereotyping, bias, and discrimination (Estlund, 2003, p. 87).

Witmer, in describing women in the superintendency, referred to Bjork's description regarding administration as dominated by white males and their orientations, quoting Bjork: "The U.S. Department of Labor has described the superintendent as the most gender-stratified executive position in the country" (Dana & Bourisaw, 2006). While the percentage of female superintendents rose from 1992 to 2000, the disparity is still disheartening since approximately 73 percent of teachers are female (2006). Given that 50 percent of the graduates of educational administration doctoral programs are women, there appears to be a discouraging phenomenon occurring within the workplace – or within the hiring process – that is systematically eliminating female candidates.

Challenges

The family life of a woman is usually challenging. In addition to facing discrimination and discouragement in the workplace, women also lack the kind of home support that has enabled men to be successful in the workplace. After polling sixty-six subordinates, peers, and superiors of women leaders, Heller (1982) discovered the following: "These figures indicate that a greater conflict between family and leadership roles exists for women than for men" (p.156). She continues by stating 58 percent of those polled believed that for a woman to have a career and children is too difficult. While it is possible for women to assume managerial roles, it is difficult for them to shed family roles. Dana and Bourisaw (2006) agree that "while many women choose to enter the field of education

because of a family-friendly calendar, this calendar becomes less family-friendly as individuals are given more responsibility and are promoted" (p. 91). Those positions that require longer hours or extensive travel are by far the more financially rewarding ones, but it is very difficult for women with primary child care responsibilities to take them (Dunn, 1997). Men do not tend to share in the childcare responsibility and perform less of the day-to-day operations of households than women and are also less likely to work part-time in order to raise children. "Inequities at home reverberate in the work place," proclaims Valian (1999, p. 19).

Money

Wirth (2001) states, "Even in occupations dominated by women, men usually occupy the 'more skilled,' 'responsible,' and 'better paid' positions" (p.13). In the United States, men with the same education as women earn more; and the higher the level of education involved, the greater the salary gap becomes (p.16). Because of the lack of value placed on women's caring role in society, gender discrimination continues to be perpetuated. Critten (2001) also states, "In 1993, women working full-time were earning an average of seventy-seven cents for every dollar men earned. In 1997, the gap widened again, as the median weekly earning of full-time working women fell to 75 % of men's earnings" (p.93). Hicks (2004) elaborates that her salary at a large suburban high school was much lower than that of the male high school principals because she had no previous administrative experience. She also states, "Even though I ran the largest school and earned my PhD the next year, there was no provision for movement on

the schedule, especially when the board for several years had offered no increases

for administrators" (p.49). She goes on to explain that her salary was only one

dollar more per day than the athletic director. Such examples effectually cause

women to rethink their decisions about seeking positions in administration.

Ambition

Wilson (2004) states that, for men, ambition is an expectation and a virtue;

yet, it is a kiss of death for women. She elaborates with the following explanation:

"The difference is that although men have to manage their ambition, women have

to mask theirs" (p. 53). Wilson asserts that the resistance to women as leaders

stems from a fear that women would climb up the ladder, (i.e., defying their

maternal mandate). Therefore, society limits their choices and provides little

support, making it difficult for women to have a career and family. "We are kept

in our place by a system refusing to create the means by which women can lead,"

she says (p.59).

Wilson adds that when women try to be leaders or gain power, they often

try to emulate men. The first women leaders had to prove themselves as 'more

manly than men' in order to be accepted as strong and credible leaders. The

gender difference within the workplace is that men gravitate to other men, still

keeping their male identity. Women, however, more often than not lose the

qualities associated with being female in order to blend in with male-dominated

work environments. Pagano (1990) adds that women are often led to identify with

male interests rather than their own. Thus, in order to be successful and included,

many are required to discard their own identities and histories. She clarifies

further by stating, "It is not that women can't think-it is simply that we cannot think as women. If we would think, we must think in the voice of the culture in which we are subdued" (1990, p.12).

"Traditionally, our culture sees leadership as men's work; when it is executed by women (or nontraditionally by men) it is often not acknowledged as leadership at all" (Wilson, 2004, p. 108). Valian (1999), debating that female leaders are often seen as misfits, says: "The immediate consequence for a woman entering a profession is that those around her, both men and women, perceive her as at least slightly unsuited to that profession, because her gender doesn't fit in" (p.15).

Women who aspire to leadership may encounter other women who erect barriers to their success. If a "token" woman leader works in a traditionally male-dominated setting, male colleagues may reward her for denigrating other women and keeping them out – thus sustaining male-dominated norms. In fact, the "token" leader is not friendly to other women because she identifies herself with men. In her ambition to be the only female ruling her territory, she stakes out her space and defends it. Referred to as "Queen Bees," such women detach and isolate themselves from any pressure to develop or promote other women (Duff, 1999).

How Women Lead

Witmer declares that, "Most women choose administration for the same reason that men do: more money, more autonomy, more status, and more power" (2006, p.7). She goes on to explain, however, that women's view of power is

different from that of men's. Women view power as limitless, tending to empower others with a desire for personal growth, creativity, and a broad range of influence. Women demonstrate their humanity by leading according to egalitarian principles so that everyone is treated more like a peer or a colleague and less like a subordinate or inferior. A good example of such practice is demonstrated when the researcher, a new assistant principal, was asked, "How does it feel to be the boss?" Her response was simple, "I am not your boss, just a friend in a higher position." "Hence, the flow of communication between female leaders and subordinates goes in both directions" (Heller, 1982, p. 17). Women leaders tend to have closely-knit schools, visit more classrooms, be more up to date on curriculum, and be more informed than men. They use a powerful discourse of the ethics of care and deliver an administration that serves all individuals through personal relationships and civic responsibility (Blackmore, 1999). Women are communicators and tend not to leave any one out of the loop.

According to Smith (2004), Noddings, who is closely identified with the promotion of the ethics of care as an educational goal, describes a feminine approach to ethics and moral education. The viewpoint of Noddings is not that there are distinctly different approaches to ethical questions and concerns typical of men and women; rather, she looks to the "feminine view" that is rooted in receptivity, relatedness, and responsiveness. With caring as a moral attitude, a relation of dialogue and exchange promotes reciprocity. Noddings believes the motivation of 'careers' arises either spontaneously or as a reflection of the ideal of caring that is a part of their character.

Heller (1982) asserts that women have special resources in organization and efficiency and are seen as being more attentive to detail than men. Further, women are sticklers for neatness, are generally more punctual, and much more efficient than their male counterparts. Their primary loyalty is to their profession, not their employer. After examining teacher attitudes toward women principals, Hudson and Rea (1996) contend that the characteristics traditionally attributed to women are desirable in all school administrators. Eakle (1995) adds, "As education reform and demographic trends reshape administrators' roles, the leadership style many women employ may be the leadership style of the next decade and beyond" (p.1).

Women in the Superintendency

The most recent comparable data across job types from the U.S. Department of Education was collected in the Schools and Staff Survey in 1999–2000 and show that, despite gains, women are still not proportionately represented in elementary and secondary levels or in the superintendency.

Women constitute approximately 75% of the teaching force, the pool from which superintendents begin their career journey, but they are disproportionately underrepresented in the top positions in schools. Skrla (1999) concluded that men are 40 times more likely than women to advance from teaching to the superintendency. A 1990 survey by Jones and Montenegro reported that 10.5% of superintendents were women. By 2000, the proportion increased to 13.2% (Glass, Björk, & Brunner, 2000). Three years later, for a study of women superintendents commissioned by the American Association of School Administrators (AASA),

Grogan and Brunner (2005a–c) mailed surveys to all of the 2,500 female superintendents identified from the AASA membership and a market data retrieval database. This list of 2,500 showed female leadership in 18.2% of all 13,728 districts nationwide.

Another study reported by the *Scholastic Administrator* (2004) conducted around the same time as the above survey, places the number of female superintendents at closer to 14%. Regardless of the exact proportion, two things are clear: documenting female representation in the superintendency continues to be imprecise, and at the current rate (.59% a year), women will not be proportionately represented in the superintendency until the 22nd century. Furthermore, the proportion of women by ethnicity in the superintendency is even more difficult to determine. When statistics are available, they are often reported by sex or by ethnicity, but not by both sex and ethnicity. For instance, the 2003–2004 Schools and Staffing Survey (Strizek, Pittonsberger, Riordan, Lyter, & Orlofsky, 2006) reported only the racial/ethnic distribution of principals.

The proportion of teachers and principals by racial/ethnic group is more balanced, with Black principals being slightly overrepresented and Hispanic principals slightly underrepresented in relation to their distribution in the teaching ranks. Grogan and Brunner reported 7% women of color superintendents and 10% women of color assistant/associate/deputy superintendents in their 2003 data (2005a). An earlier study by Glass, Björk, and Brunner (2000, p. 104) found that 12% of superintendents are White women, 1.1% are women of color, 81.7% are White men, and 5.1% are men of color.

Despite disparities in hiring, women do aspire to the superintendency, and they prepare to fulfill their aspirations. According to the Grogan and Brunner study, 40% of the women in central office administration identified themselves as aspiring to the superintendency. Toward that end, 74% of that sample had either earned their superintendent credential or were working toward certification. Women of color were more likely to be prepared to assume the top job; 85% of women of color assistant/associate/deputy superintendents already have or are working on their superintendency certificate compared to 73% of White women (Brunner &Grogan, in press). The number of women earning certification in educational administration is not available at the national level; although, anecdotal information from preparation programs indicates that the majority of the students are women. Identifying the proportion of educators who are licensed or certified in school administration is difficult because the data are held at the state level and are not comparable across states. However, according to the most recent data available, examining the percentage of degrees in education by sex shows female dominance at all levels in 2003–2004, (Rooney et al., 2006). Furthermore, women earned 76.5% of bachelor's degrees, 76.7% of master's degrees, and 66.1% of doctoral degrees in education. In nearly a quarter century, there was a small increase in the percentage of women who earned bachelor's and master's degrees (3% and 5% increases), but the female proportion of doctoral degrees increased by nearly 19%. While these figures do not indicate the percentages by field in education or by certification, they do provide a framework for understanding educational attainment by sex.

In examining the pools from which administrators are selected—teachers, those administratively certified, or those with master's and doctoral degrees—the data indicate that both White and women of color are underrepresented in school administration.

Not much is known about the 14% of female superintendents who are serving as school districts in the United States (Brunner, 2001); however, recent research does indicate that more diversity exists among female superintendents than their male counterparts. Female superintendents are more often minorities, Democrats, Catholic or Jewish, and either never married or are widowed or divorced. This reveals very different profiles from male superintendents who are Anglo, Republican, and married. Bruner also indicates that many women who have been able to achieve the position of superintendent have resigned their school leadership roles and have taken a lower position in another school district because of the lack of support from some school board members and district stakeholders soon after they occupied these positions. At this point, however, many of the reasons why these executive women have left their positions as superintendents are either not known or not well understood. Therefore, without more information regarding the characteristics of female superintendents who are highly successful in their roles, changes cannot be made regarding the alterations needed in superintendent preparation programs to assist those women who are now walking away from their positions as superintendents. According to Brunner (1999), research studies that focus on women in school administration are conducted almost entirely by women, perhaps indicating that this literature is not

considered to be an important field of study for many other researchers in education.

The Educational/Organizational Structure

Even flat organizations have a structure, and organizational structures typically rely on a system of stratification and interdependence – namely, in regard to responsibility and accountability. Thus, schools are salient examples of organizations, and school administrators must be prepared to operate in these varied structures as they evolve. In fact, Witmer (2006) states, "Traditional views, however, maintain that as long as there is an organization, there will be tracks, levels, layers, and some kind of strata," (p.76).

Witmer (2006) goes on to say: "Power, authority, and influence are inherent in a hierarchical structure and are important to its operation" (p. 76). Positions in the hierarchy provide each person in it with various sources of power. The principal has authority over in the daily operations and happenings within the school building; yet, in order to be effective, others must acknowledge his or her authority. Women have a particular problem in this area, as Witmer explains: "As a woman, you need to remember that, in general, expectations for how a person holding power and authority should behave are at odds with expectation for how a woman should behave" (p.79). Witmer adds that if a woman talks in ways expected of a woman, she will be more likely to be liked than respected; if she talks in the ways expected of a man, she is more likely to be respected than liked. The dilemma is that if she enhances her assertiveness she risks undercutting her femininity; if she fits the expectation of being a woman, she takes the risk of

undercutting her competence and authority (p.80). Women are often questioned as to "who is in charge" because the questioner assumes the woman does not have the final say. Oritz (1982) states, "The structure of educational administration consists of white males occupying line positions, women occupying staff positions, and minorities occupying special projects. The structure shows that white males manage and administer adults, women instruct children, and minorities direct and contain other minorities" (p. 118).

In Men and Women of the Corporation, Kanter (1977) states that new recruits must be the "right sort of person," "those who fit in," "their kind," (i.e., a continuation of the bureaucratic kinship system). New recruits are expected to be repetitions of the same kind of men who manage to reproduce themselves in the group. "Male administrators employed additional male administrators because they 'fit' the mostly male environment where decisions, discussions, and social activities occurred," Ryland says (2005, p.155). Kanter (1977) describes this recruitment process by stating, "Men reproduce themselves in a 'homosexual reproduction' of their own image" (p.48).

Women and minorities are presented with limited opportunities for socialization into line administrative positions where experience in technical and interpersonal skills is problematic. Critical to both women and minorities, these skills can only be acquired through actual trial-and-error methods confined to specific settings and assignments. Ortiz (1982) says, "It can therefore be said that the organization does not try in an equitable manner to prepare individuals from the three groups to become superintendents" (p.147).

According to Greenfield (1990) in *Education and Urban Society*, there are three possible responses to organizational socialization. One response is labeled as "custodianship," which means the new member accepts the status quo. Another response is "content innovation," where the new member makes an effort to change or improve the strategies used by the organization. The last response is "role innovation," in which, the new member completely redefines the ends to which his or her role in the organization functions.

Researching Women

Researching for information regarding women in administration is difficult, especially women in secondary school administration. The scant information that does exist is usually in reference to women superintendents with minimal information on the experiences of the female principal or assistant principal. Shakeshaft and Hansen (1986) discuss how the greater part of work in the social sciences has focused on men in school administration. These authors concur that male samples are generalized to both genders and measuring male viewpoints is a "consistent practice." They emphasize that theories regarding practice must understand female behavior. Shakeshaft (1989) adds that the funding of research, the objects of study, and the use of research are still white male-dominated and that reality is being shaped through the "male lens." She believes that research must get beyond the past and present conditions of women.

Summary

The development of administration has stemmed from bureaucratic centralization based on notions of efficiency. Emphasizing expertise in finance and public relations, the positions of principal and assistant principal were developed to place white males as supervisors with females and minorities as their subordinates, thus establishing the dynamics of administration as one of male dominance where males administer and females teach.

Women trying to break into secondary school administration face numerous problems. Whether dealing with family obligations or gender stereotyping, women receive little encouragement to take on the challenge of educational administration, especially at the secondary level.   With the persistence of the 'ole boy network," which places emphasis on taking care of their own, women have been left without role models or mentors to help facilitate their goals. In a profession dominated by females, the secondary female administrator is constructed and misconstrued as "the other" in an organizational structure that white males have created and continue to dominate.

CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

This chapter described the methodology in the following sections: (a) population and sample, (b) data instruments/sources, (c) procedures/data collection, (d) data preparation, (e) data analysis, and (f) limitations. A quantitative method approach was used to collect and analyze data using a comparative study of descriptive statistics that was utilized to correlate the nominal variable gender of the school principal with the ordinal variables campus rating, campus level, and campus size. Descriptive statistics utilize variables whose values are measured on different types of scales (Norusis, 2004). For this study, the variables were measured examining archival data already collected by the state of Texas. Researchers who have used this design in the past do not give any treatments; they have only described observations of their findings. For the purposes of this study archival data was used correlating gender with several variables, which include campus rating, campus level and campus size. Therefore, a quantitative methods approach was used to collect and analyze data using an archival correlational study.

Research Design

This research study addresses the following three research questions:

Research Question One: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus level (elementary, middle school, junior high, and high school)?

The 2006 data indicated that there are more elementary campuses in the state of Texas, while junior high and high school campuses are nearly equivalent percentagewise. Historically, research has indicated that women held the majority of elementary campus positions in the United States, with 69% in 2000 by the U.S. Department of Education. Results indicated that at the elementary level,

women were the most prevalent with 73.5% of all elementary principals being women. At the junior high level, men outnumbered women with 58.7% male principals. High school results indicated that men also outnumbered women, with 70.2% being male principals.

Research Question Two: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus academic success as measured by the Texas TAKS test?

Accountability ratings are categorized by the state of Texas and the same ratings were kept for this particular study (i.e., exemplary, recognized, acceptable, and unacceptable). The prevalence of gender, as it relates to campus accountability rating, is important given that Federal funding can be withheld from campuses that receive an unacceptable rating, which may ultimately influence hiring practices in the future.

In a previous study using 2006 AEIS data, a two-way contingency table analysis was utilized to evaluate whether administrator gender was related to campus rating. The two variables consisted of administrator gender, crosstabulated with four levels of campus rating (exemplary, recognized, acceptable, and unacceptable). Gender and campus rating were found to be significantly related, Pearson $\chi2$ *(3, N = 7893)* = 202.95, *p* = .000, Cramer's *V* = .16, a small to moderate effect size. The prevalence of men at the exemplary, recognized, acceptable, and unacceptable rating were .27, .37, .49, and .64, correspondingly. Women in the same order of academic rating were realized at .73, .63, .51, and .36. Therefore, it seems that the prevalence of women at the exemplary, recognized, and academically acceptable campus rating were higher than that of their male counterparts; while the most prevalent campus rating for male principals was that of unacceptable. For purposes of this study the researcher will compare the results of this 2006 study to determine has there been a significant change in the data.

Research Question Three: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus size?

The researcher will examine the descriptive statistics of the data set. This includes the number of male principles versus female principals in Texas schools, (i.e., how many at the elementary, junior high and high school level). In addition, the researcher will examine how many women principals are at exemplary schools versus male principals, and how many women are principals at small, medium or large size schools in the state of Texas.

Population and Sample

Gall, Gall, & Borg, (2003) stated, "Rarely in educational research can one study every member of a specified population." However, data are collected from a sample of individuals, which are then used to make inferences about the specified population. A population is "all of the individuals who possess a certain characteristic (or set of characteristics)" (Fraenkel & Wallen, 1996, p. 104). The target population, or population of interest for the study, will include all of the public schools in the state of Texas the private schools and charter schools will be exempt from this study.

Schools in the state of Texas are divided into 20 separate regional areas that encompassed a total of 8,252 public schools during 2010 (TEA, 2010). Of the public schools listed, approximately 112 schools were not listed in the TEA ASK TED (TEA, 2010) website. These schools were either closed, or they were omitted from the website. The total population of schools that were used in the study numbered 8008. Schools that did not receive a rating from the Texas' TAKS test were not be grouped by grade level, but were counted as missing in the system. The final count of 8,008 schools were included in this study by campus size, campus level, and campus rating. The general rule in quantitative research is that researchers use the

largest and the most representative sample possible (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003). Thus this sample included all possible schools meeting the criteria whether a correlation exists between school principal's gender and the campus academic success as measured by the TAKS scores for the 2009-2010 school year in the State of Texas.

Instrumentation/Data Sources

This research used data from specific data sources within the AEIS report system. The campus Academic Excellence Indicator System (AEIS) report rating of the Texas Assessment of Knowledge and Skills (TAKS) is the instrument that will be used to collect the data for this study. The (AEIS) reports are an annual report of a wide range of information on the performance of students in each school and district in Texas. The (AEIS) pulls together a wide range of information on the performance of students in each school and district in Texas every year. AEIS reports for each year and district, along with answers to Frequently Asked Questions about the reports, can be found on the Texas Education Agency (TEA) Academic Excellence Indicator System web page. These reports also provide information on staff demographics, finances, individual school-based programs, and demographics for each school and district. From the information contained in the AEIS, the Texas Education Agency (TEA) also develops and implements the Accountability Rating system used to rate Texas public schools and school districts. AEIS Reports for campuses in the state can be accessed on the Texas Education Agency's (TEA) website at the following link:

http://ritter.tea.state.tx.us/perfreport/aeis/2010/index.html

TAKS is one of a series of criterion-referenced tests published by the Texas Education Agency intended to measure student achievement in the core subject areas of reading, math, social studies and science. The TAKS objectives remained the same in all TAKS grade levels

and were defined at each grade level by instructional targets (TEA, 2004). The TAKS campus ratings will be collected for the one test administration period: Spring 2010. The AEIS report also contained the campus type, campus level, and the location of the campus. The Texas Education Agency provides a public access, online webpage, as well as documents that contains a directory for all principals in the state of Texas (ASKTED, 2010), and constitutes the state archival data for the study. Principals were listed by name and campus type as well as contact information and location. Gender data for all the school principals will be obtained from the same list and will be verified.

Procedures/Data Collection

For this particular study, data regarding gender and campus rating will be gathered from the Texas Education Agency data bank. In addition, campus level and campus size data will also be collected from AEIS reports. A database of campus information will be developed with a list of Texas principals' gender for all public campuses, accountability ratings, campus level, and campus size, using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS 15.0). The researcher will contact the Texas Education Agency for a database of principal information. Once contact is made with Texas Education Agency, they will send the data in the form of an excel spreadsheet. This data will contain the principal gender, location of school, type of campus, accountability rating of school and the region of the school. The database is a public file that anyone can obtain by simply making a phone call. The researcher sorted the data in excel in order to derive findings to address research questions. The researcher prepared a table with the male and female principal statistics broken down by the 2010 school year. The data denoted the number of principals in the state of Texas, the number of female principals, the number of male principals each broken down by campus size, campus rating and campus type.

Data Preparation

There will be four variables in the data file collected for all Texas public school

campuses: gender of principal, level of school, size of school, and accountability rating. For the

purpose of this study, the gender of campus principal will be coded with either 0 = male principal

or 1 = female principal. Additionally, campus levels are as follows: K-5 as elementary, 6-8 as

junior high, and 9-12 as high school. For the purpose of this study, campus level will then be

coded with a 0 = elementary school, 1 = middle school, 2 = junior high school, or 3 = high

school level. The school size will be coded as 0 = small, 1 = medium, and 2 = large. The

accountability rating will be coded as 0 = unacceptable, 1 = acceptable, 2 = recognized and 3 =

exemplary.

Research Question One: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus level

(elementary, middle school, junior high, and high school)?

Research Question Two: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus

academic success as measured by the Texas TAKS test?

Research Question Three: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and

 campus size?

In the 1987-88 school year, 5,747 Texas public schools housed 3,224,916 students. By

1997-98, however, the number of schools had grown to 7,053 (an increase of 21 percent).

Enrollment also grew by 21 percent over the same period (TEA, 1998b). The number of

elementary schools increased by 429, from 3,292 in 1987-88 to 3,721 in 1997-98 (an increase of

13 percent). While the average size of elementary schools grew by only 15 students, regular

instructional schools grew by 20 students. In addition, individual schools experienced significant

enrollment changes over the past decade. Of the 3,060 schools that operated as elementary schools in both 1987-88 and 1997-98, 39 percent had enrollments that were more than 5 percent higher in 1997-98, and 48 percent had enrollments that were more than 5 percent lower. The number of middle/junior high schools increased by 296, from 1,072 in 1987-88 to 1,368 in 1997-98 (an increase of 28 percent). The average school size increased by only 8 students; however, the size of regular instructional schools increased by 32 students. Over half of the existing middle/junior high schools were more than 5 percent larger in 1997-98 than in 1987-88; one-fourth were more than 5 percent smaller.

The number of high schools increased by 45 percent from 1987-88 to 1997-98. Most of the growth can be attributed to an increase in the number of alternative high schools and juvenile justice alternative education programs (JJAEPs). From 1987-88 to 1997-98, regular instructional high schools increased by only 71 (an increase of 7 percent).

The average size of regular instructional high schools increased by 86 students, from 820 students in 1987-88 to 906 students in 1997-98. The number of high schools with over 2,000 students grew from 117 to 158. As a result of this growth, very large high schools now account for 14 percent of all regular instructional high schools. Growth of regular instructional schools in urban areas (i.e., major urban and other central city school districts) kept pace with enrollment increases. The numbers of urban schools increased by 16 percent while the average school size decreased by 8 students. Furthermore, although the number of regular instructional schools increased by 23 percent, average school size in suburban areas also increased by 59 students from 1987-88 to 1997-98.

Nonmetropolitan schools, which include schools in independent town school districts as well as fast growing and stable nonmetropolitan districts, also increased in size. The number of

regular instructional schools located in rural school districts decreased by 1. All types of communities saw large increases in the number of alternative education schools and JJAEPs from 1987-88 to 1997-98, and a reduction in the average number of students enrolled in these schools. The large increase in the number of alternative education schools and JJAEPs can be attributed in part to a 1995 law mandating that districts provide alternative education programs for placement of students who commit certain offenses (TEC §37.008). Across the 20 education service center regions, the San Angelo region had the smallest average school size of 246 students. While 17 of the regions maintained an average school size between 300 and 699 students, average school size in the Houston and El Paso regions exceeded 700 students.

Debates over school size continue to surface in discussions about student academic achievement. Generally, larger schools are endorsed because of their ability to provide academic choices and efficient economies of scale. However, small school proponents maintain that student achievement improves because smaller schools have higher class and school participation, parental involvement, attendance, and graduation rates, as well as a better school climate, more individual attention, fewer dropouts, and fewer student discipline problems. While the United States population increased significantly from 1938 to 1990, the number of public school districts declined from 119,001 to 15,367 (NCES, 1998). During the same time period, the number of public elementary and secondary schools decreased nationwide from approximately 247,127 to 83,425 (NCES, 1998). Therefore, the logical conclusion is that individual schools experienced significant enrollment increases due to district and school consolidations.

Throughout the 1990s, both the size and number of schools continued to increase as enrollments nationally increased. By 1995-96 there were 87,125 public elementary and

secondary schools in the United States (NCES, 1998). Average school size was 476 students in elementary schools and 703 students in secondary schools. Based on NCES data, Texas elementary schools enrolled on average approximately 75 more students than public elementary schools nationally, and Texas secondary schools had about 24 fewer students than secondary schools.

Although enrollment nationally increased 16 percent between 1984 and 1996, only a 6 percent enrollment increase is projected for the next 12-year period (NCES, 1998). Projected increases vary dramatically between regions and among states. An increase of 14 percent in public school enrollment is forecast for Texas between 1996 and 2008. Texas elementary school enrollment is projected to increase by only 10 percent; high school enrollment may surge by 24 percent. Only North Carolina, Arizona, California, and Nevada are projected to have greater increases than Texas in high school enrollment. Although the Texas Education Agency pupil projections for high school through the year 2003 are more conservative than the NCES projections, Texas clearly ranks as one of the high growth states.

School Size Recommendations

Most researchers and practitioners avoid specifying an 'optimal' or 'ideal' school size. Instead, schools within the ranges indicated below are most often found to be associated with supportive learning environments and relatively better student achievement. Recommendations for school size range from 200 to 400 students for elementary schools (Heath, 1994; Williams, 1990) and 400 to 900 students for junior and senior high schools (Conant, 1959; Farber, 1998; Goodlad, 1984; Lee & Smith, 1997; Williams, 1990). Very large schools with over 2,000 students are considered by some as ineffective for most students (Farber, 1998). School size is considered to positively affect student achievement as student enrollment rises to about 200

students in elementary schools and 400 to 600 students in secondary schools, levels off, and then begins to decrease after the top of the size range is reached (Bracey, 1998a; Fine, 1998; Williams, 1990). Although a direct cause-effect relationship does not necessarily exist between school size and student achievement, maintaining a recommended school size does seem linked to environmental conditions capable of contributing to increased learning (Miller, Ellsworth, & Howell, 1986).

Data Analysis

To test all of the hypotheses, the study used a two-way contingency table analyses with the Pearson chi-square statistic to test the phenomenon that: (a) principal's gender is correlated with the campus level (i.e., elementary, middle, junior high and high school); (b) a principal's gender is correlated with the successful campus rating (i.e., elementary, middle, junior high and high school); and (c) a principal's gender is correlated in campus sizes (i.e., elementary, middle, junior high, high school). A cross tabulation table with a contingency coefficient was generated. The statistical significance (*p* value) of a result is the probability that the observed relationship or a difference in a sample occurred by chance, and that in the population from which the sample was drawn, no such relationship or difference exists (Gall, Gall, & Borg, 2003).

Limitations

Texas Education Agency data has some inherent limitations, and using a dataset for one year is also restrictive. Some schools in the state of Texas are listed as K-12 instead of elementary, middle school, junior high and high school. For purposes of this study, these schools were excluded. In addition, other schools in the state of Texas are Private/charter schools that do not report TEA data. Therefore, these schools were also excluded from this study. Another limitation was schools that – for whatever reason –do not list a principal gender. These schools were also excluded in this study. If there are any schools that list other grade level and do not clarify what grade level the school is, these schools will be excluded for purposes of this study. The sample that was used is archival data provided from the Texas Education Agency data bank. No surveys will be used in this study. This research study addresses the following three research questions:

Summary

The outcome of this study provided information about whether a correlation exists between schools' principal gender and campus' academic rating success, as measured by the TAKS scores. The outcome of this study also revealed that a correlation exists between the school principal gender and grade level and campus success. Finally, this study revealed that a correlation exists between school principal gender and campus size.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

This research study showed that there is a statistically significant relationship between Texas school principals' gender of school campuses that have been rated as acceptable or above in the state of Texas. In addition, the results revealed that a statistically significant association exists between the school principals' gender and grade level and campus success. Finally, the results showed that a statistically significant association exists between the school principals' gender and grade level and campus size. This study attempted to examine further the changes that have occurred in an ever-developing society that has struggled for equality in the workplace, competition to succeed, and accountability for actions. This chapter presents the results of this particular study, which are divided into separate sub-sections to reflect the findings for each of the three research questions.

This study used SPSS 18.00 (Statististical Package for the Social Sciences) to analyze the data. In order to utilize the SPSS 18.0 program for statistical data, and for ease of data analysis, the original data were converted into specific coded items prior to analysis. The EXCEL file that was obtained from the TEA (Texas Education Agency) contained several string variables (containing long letter strings). Each variable was renamed with a variable name that was eight characters or less, for ease of data entry into SPSS, and for data analysis. The string variables "gender," "campus level," and "campus accountability rating" were recoded into numeric variables. In addition, the researcher used her judgment and experience to code the number of students in school into four

different size groups. There were four variables in the data file collected for all Texas public school campuses: gender of principal, level of school, size of school, and accountability rating. The gender of campus principal was coded with either 0 = female, or 1 = male. Coding for school size was done arbitrarily by the researcher as follows: 0-1000 students = 0, 1001 – 2000 students = 1, 2001 – 3003 students = 2, and 3004 + students = 3. The level of school was coded as follows: 0 = elementary, 1 = middle school, 2 = junior high and 3 = high school. Finally, the campus accountability rating was coded as 0 = unacceptable, 1 = acceptable, 2 = recognized and 3 = exemplary.

There were an original total of 8,252 participant schools in this study; yet the sample size data was provided only for 7,020 schools in this dataset. Some schools were eliminated from the sample because the data provided by the Texas Education Agency did not provide the gender of the principal. All schools in this category were elementary, middle school, junior high or high school. However, due to lack of gender data some of these schools were excluded from this study. Additional elimination took place when schools did not list an accountability rating. The final elimination was for the schools that were listed as "other grade group" (i.e., not elementary, middle school, junior high or high school). Therefore, 1,232 campuses statewide were eliminated from this study. At the end of the elimination process 7,020 schools remained in the study.

The state of Texas supports schools that range anywhere from 20 students to 4,697 students in number. The number of students at each campus was coded using four groupings that were deemed appropriate by the researcher for the descriptive and correlational analyses. The number of students (or school size) was coded as 0 = 0 to 1000, 1 = 1001-2,000, 2 = 2,001-3003 and 3 = 3004+. The numbers in each category

were chosen in lieu of the dataset. If a certain number did not appear in the researcher's

original dataset she put the number in the next dataset category. Therefore, instead of

2001 to 3000, researcher has 2001 to 3003. Campus accountability rating was coded as

follows: 0 = unacceptable, 1 = acceptable, 2 = recognized and 3 = exemplary.

Once all data were examined, recoded, and verified for accuracy, the comparative

data analysis was conducted (descriptive statistics in the form of percentages and counts).

The data were compared using the cross tabulation and Chi-Square test. A cross

tabulation was conducted using the principals' gender and campus size, principals'

gender and accountability rating, and finally principal's gender and campus level.

Pearson Chi-Square for categorical data was used to examine whether there is a

relationship between (a) principals' gender and campus size; (b) principals' gender and

accountability rating; and (c) principals' gender and campus level. The number of valid

cases for this study was 7,020.

Descriptive Statistics

Four separate frequency tables were obtained for each of the study variables. A

frequency table is constructed by arranging collected data values in ascending order of

magnitude with their corresponding frequencies (Green & Salkind, 2003). Since gender

was a key variable within this study, a count and percentage of all of the principals in the

state of Texas was necessary. Thus, this variable, was included as the first table. The data

for Table 4.1 were drawn from the TEA (2010) website indicating the name of every

school campus in Texas. Once the information was gathered, the TEA ASKTED (TEA,

2010) website was reviewed for every campus, with the name of the principal listed.

Table 4.1 displays the frequency distribution of the prevalence of female and male

principals for the public schools in the state of Texas.

Table 4.1

Frequency Distribution of Principals' Gender, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)

Gender	N	%
Female	4,282*	60.9
Male	2,738*	39.1
Total	7,020*	100.0

*Data provided by TEA.

The sample size represents all public schools principals in the state of Texas

during the year 2010 (TEA, 2010). The data revealed that women occupied 60.9% of the

principal positions in the state of Texas, which is rounded to 61% in the table (*n =*

4,282), while the percentage of men that occupied the principal position was 39.1% (*n =*

2,738). Although women occupied over half of the principals' positions, further analyses

were necessary in order to examine whether or not the principals' gender was statistically

significantly related to the other three variables (i.e., campus level, accountability rating,

and campus size).

Table 4.2

Frequency Distribution of Campus Level, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)

School Level	N	%
Elementary**	4,204*	59.9
Middle School**	1,234*	17.6
Junior High**	311*	4.4
High School**	1,271*	18.1
Total	7,020*	100.0

* Data provided by TEA.
**School level was determined by TEA.

Table 4.2 narrows the school campus level into four separate categories (i.e., elementary, middle school, junior high, and high school). TEA numbered each level in order to distinguish between an elementary, middle school campus, junior high campus and a high school campus, respectively. If TEA coded a school as 1, it represented an elementary school, 2 represented middle school, 3 represented junior high, and 4 represented high school. However, for the purposes of this study, the data were recoded as follows: 0 = elementary, 1 = middle school, 2 = junior high and 3 = high school. The campus names and levels were obtained from the TEA (2010) website, and were listed alphabetically by district. Each school campus was listed, along with the level of the campus. Table 4.2 represents the frequency table for the campus level-recoded.

Notably, Junior High campuses were the fewest in number, with 311 or 4.4% of the total population. Furthermore, there was a statistically significant association

between gender and campus level. There are 45.0 % more women principals at the

elementary level than men.

The results for the campus rating (recoded) are presented in Table 4.3, with a row

in the frequency table representing each of the categories rating the school campuses for

the state of Texas. The findings resulted in the Chi-Square being statistically significant.

According to the Chi-Square notation, 0 cells or 0% have expected count less than 5. The

minimum count is 30.03.   The higher campus ratings were schools led by female

principals at the recognized and exemplary level.

Table 4.3

Frequency Table for Campus Rating *(N = 7,020)*

School Level	N	%
Unacceptable**	77*	11.0
Academically Acceptable**	1,393*	19.8
Recognized**	3,047	43.4
Exemplary**	2,503*	36.8
Total	7,020*	100.0

* Data provided by TEA.
** Campus Rating is determined by TEA.

Of the schools receiving a campus accountability rating, 77 campuses (11%)

received an unacceptable rating by the state of Texas. Within this particular number of

schools, 37 had women principals (48.1%), while males with unacceptable campuses

produced a slightly higher rate (51.9%).   Schools that were rated as academically

acceptable totaled 1,393 with 20.0% of the population. Women at academically

acceptable schools totaled 753 (54.1%), while men at such campuses totaled 640

(45.9%). The majority of schools rated as recognized accounted for 43.3% of the total

school sample, with 3,047 campuses statewide. Again, women (57.4%) outnumbered

men. Lastly only 35.7% of schools received exemplary ratings (i.e., 2,503 total schools).

Once again, women led in this category with 70.0% of exemplary schools statewide.

Table 4.4 reports the frequency distribution table for the total number of students

at each campus. Campus size was relevant to determine if the prevalence of gender was

significantly related to the size of a campus. In 2010, on elementary campuses statewide,

there were 3,880 female principals with a thousand students or less, which represented

63.3% of the population. Only 38.4% of schools with a student population of 3000 and

more were led by female principals. Table 4.4 reveals the frequency distribution for the

variable of campus size.

Table 4.4

Frequency Distribution of the Number of Students Recoded into Four Groups *(N =*

7,020)

Number of Students	N	%
0-1000**	6,127*	87.3
1001-2000**	606*	8.6
2001-3003**	235*	3.3
3004+**	52*	0.8
Total	7,020*	100.0

* Data provided by TEA.
**Number of Students categorized by researcher.

Research Questions

Research Question One: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus level (elementary, middle school, junior high, and high school)?

The 2009 data with Roser, Brown and Kelsey indicated that there are more elementary campuses in the state of Texas, while junior high and high school campuses are nearly equivalent percentagewise. Historically, research has indicated that the majority of elementary campus positions in the United States were held by women, with 69% in 2000 by the U.S. Department of Education. For purposes of this study, the results indicated that at the elementary level were held by women with 61% of all elementary principals being women. At the middle school level, men outnumbered women with 53.2%; while, at the junior high level, men outnumbered women with 55.0% male principals. High school results indicated that men also outnumbered women, with 68.6% male. Gender and campus level were found to be significantly related, Pearson $\chi2$ $(2, N = 7,020) = 1,038.81, p = .001$, Cramer's $V = .38$, a moderate to large effect size.

Table 4.5

Cross-tabulation of Principals' Gender by Campus Type, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)

Principals' Gender by Campus Type Cross-Tabulation

		Elementary School 0	Middle School 1	Junior High 2	High School 3	Total
Gender Female	Count	3165.0*	578.0*	140.0*	399.0*	4282.0
	Expected Count	2564.3	752.7	189.7	775.3	4282.0
	% within category	75.3	46.8	45.0	31.4**	61.0
Male	Count	1039.0*	656.0*	171.0*	872.0*	2738.0
	Expected Count	1639.7	481.3	21.3	495.7	38.0
	% within category	24.7	53.2	55.0	68.6***	39.0
Total	Count	4204.0	1234.0	311.0	1271.0	7020.0
	Expected Count	4204.0	1234.0	311.0	1271.0	7020.0
	% within category	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

* Data provided by TEA.
**Less than two-thirds of Texas high schools are headed by female principals.
***More than two-thirds of Texas high schools are headed by male principals.

In Table 4.5 Principals' Gender by Campus Type Cross-tabulation it reveals that 61% of all principals are female. However, women are represented at higher proportions at the elementary school levels. For example, 75.3% of all female principals are at the elementary school level, whereas only 31% of female principals are at the high school level. Of the 7,020 principals in the state of Texas, 4,282 are females. Of the 4,282 female principals in the state of Texas, 3,165 are principals at elementary campuses. More than two-thirds of all male principals are at the high school level, 45% at the junior high school level, while only one-quarter of male principals are at the elementary school

level. Thus, there is an association between principals' gender and school type. This is

supported statistically from the chi-square test. The following table shows the proportion

of principals' gender by campus trend:

Table 4.6

Proportion of Principals' Gender by Campus Type Trend, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)

Trend Analysis of Principals' Gender by Campus Type Cross-Tabulation

			Elementary School 0	Middle School 1	Junior High 2	High School 3	Total
Gender	Female	Count	3165.0	578.0	140.0	599.0	4282.0
		% within category	75.3	46.8	45.0	31.4	61.0
	Male	Count	1039.0	656.0	171.0	872.0	2738.0
		% within category	24.7	53.2	55.0	68.6	39.0
Total		Count	4204.0	1234.0	311.0	1271.0	7020.0
		% within category	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Note. Data provided by TEA. The % within category in Texas at various school levels shows a trend.

Figure 4.1

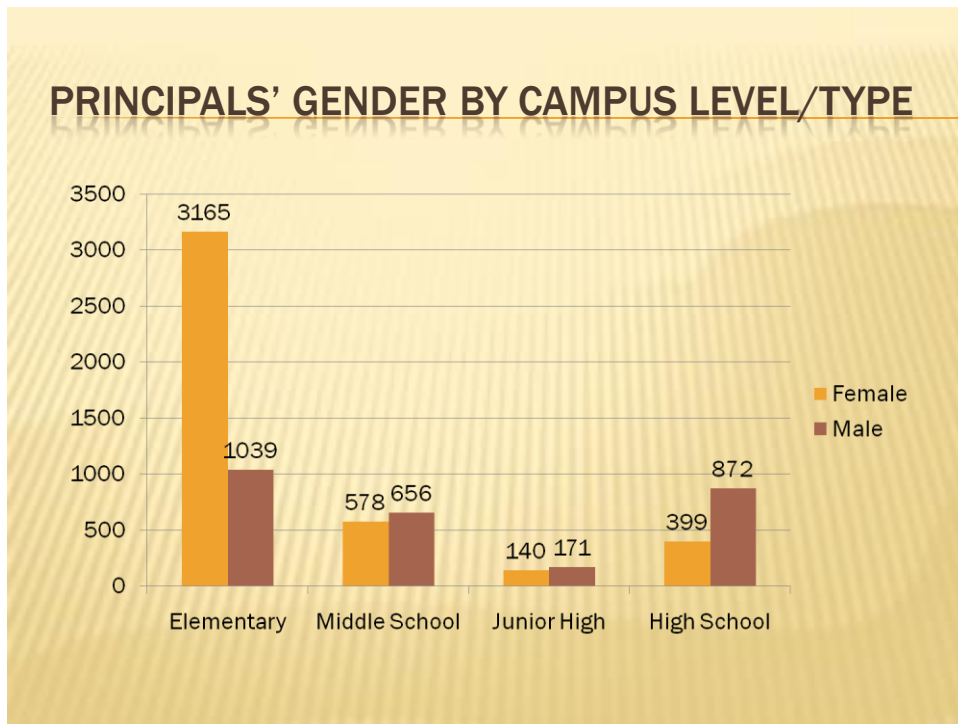*Cross-tabulation of Principals' Gender by Campus Type, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)*

Figure 4.1. Data provided by TEA. The legend shows independent variable gender (female, male). The dependent variables are elementary, middle school, junior high and high school.

Research Question Two: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus academic success as measured by the Texas TAKS test?

Accountability ratings are categorized by the state of Texas and the ratings were kept the same for this study: exemplary, recognized, acceptable, and unacceptable. The prevalence of gender, as it relates to campus accountability rating, is important as Federal funding can be withheld from campuses receiving an unacceptable rating, and may influence hiring practices in the future.

Table 4.7

Cross-tabulation of Principals' Gender by School Rating, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)

			Unacceptable	Acceptable	Recognized	Exemplary	
		Principals' Gender by School Rating Cross-tabulation	0	1	2	3	Total
Gender	Female	Count	37.0*	753.0	1737.0	1755.0	4282.0
		Expected Count	47.0	849.7	1858.6	1526.8	4282.0
		% within category	48.1	54.1	57.0	70.1**	61.0
	Male	Count	40.0*	640.0	1310.0	748.0	2738.0
		Expected Count	30.0	543.3	1188.4	976.2	2738.0
		% within category	51.9	45.9	43.0	29.9***	39.0
Total		Count	77.0*	393.0	3047.0	2503.0	7020.0
		Expected Count	77.0*	1393.0	3047.0	2503.0	7020.0
		% within category	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Data provided by TEA.
**Seventy-one percent of Exemplary Texas schools are headed by female principals.
***Less than thirty percent of Exemplary Texas Schools are headed by male principals.

A two-way contingency table analysis was utilized to evaluate whether administrator gender was related to campus rating. The two variables consisted of administrator gender, cross tabulated with four levels of campus rating (unacceptable, acceptable, recognized, and exemplary). Gender and campus rating were found to have a negative correlation.

Table 4.7 (i.e., Principals' Gender by Rating Crosstabulation) reveals that out of the 4,282 female principals in Texas, 1,755 of those campuses are exemplary, and another 1,737 are recognized. Therefore, the table demonstrates that female principals

have higher rating campuses. Male principals, on the other hand, have 748 exemplary

campuses, and 1,310 recognized campuses out of a total of 2,738 male principals in the

state of Texas. This table also revealed that 70.1% of female principals were at

exemplary campuses, and 57% at recognized campuses. The table also revealed that

29.9% of male principals were at exemplary campuses and 43.0% at recognized

campuses. The following table illustrates the proportion of principals' gender by school

rating:

Table 4.8

Proportion of Principals' Gender by School Rating Trend, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)

Trend Analysis of Principals' Gender by School Rating Cross-tabulation						
		Unacceptable 0	Acceptable 1	Recognized 2	Exemplary 3	Total
Gender Female	Count	37.0*	753.0	1737.0	1755.0	4282.0
	% within category	48.1	54.1	57.0	70.1	61.0
Male	Count	40.0*	640.0	1310.0	748.0	2738.0
	% within category	51.9	45.9	43.0	29.9	39.0
Total	Count	77.0*	1393.0	3047.0	503.0	7020.0
	% within category	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Data provided by TEA.

Figure 4.2

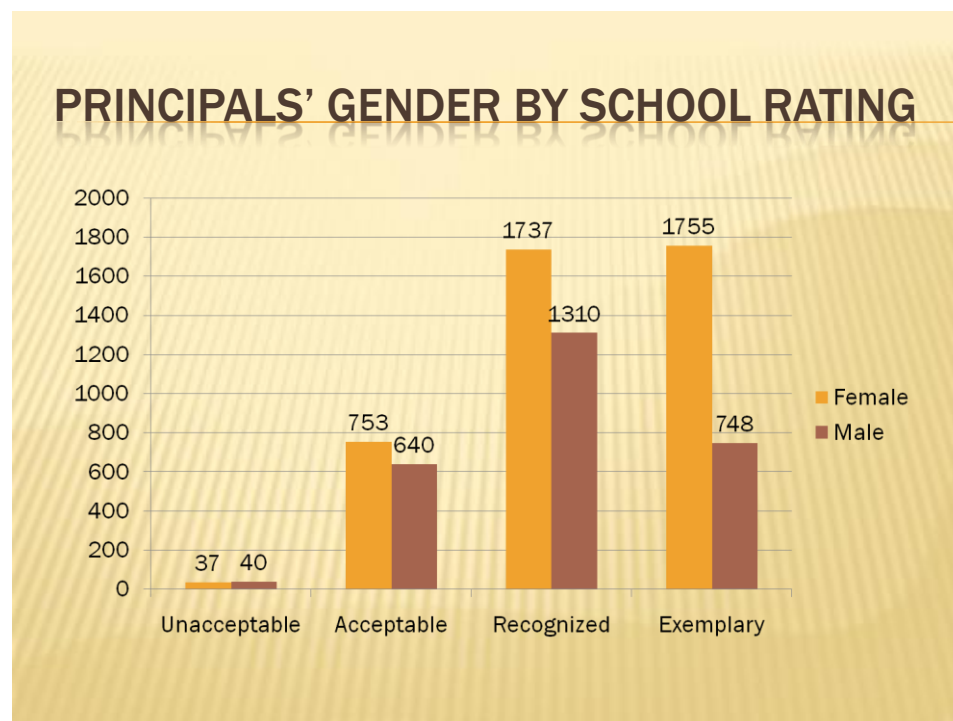*Cross-tabulation of Principals' Gender by School Rating, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)*

Figure 4.2. Data provided by TEA. The legend shows independent variable gender (female, male).
The dependent variables are unacceptable, acceptable, recognized and exemplary campuses.

Research Question Three: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and

campus size?

In order to report the campus size, the TEA website ASK TED (2010) was

utilized for each school campus in the state of Texas. The numbers were recoded in order

to procure a manageable list with which to categorize school campus numbers. Results

were then cross tabulated for observed and expected frequencies. Campuses were divided

into four numerical groups: 0 – 1000 students, 1001 – 2,000 students, 2,001 – 3003, and

3004 + students. The data indicated that women hold the majority of positions at

campuses that have from 0 – 1000 students, while men hold the majority of positions at

campuses that have from 1001 – 2,000 students. Men also hold the majority of positions at campuses with populations of 2,001 – 3003 and also men hold the majority of positions at campuses with populations of 3004+ students. The largest group of male principal's was 1,039 at small campuses. The largest group of female principals was 3,165 also at small-sized campuses.

Table 4.9

Cross-tabulation of Principals' Gender by Campus Enrollment, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)

Principals' Gender by Campus Enrollment Cross-tabulation		0-1000 0	1001-2000 1	2001-3003 2	3004+ 3	Total
Gender Female	Count	3880.0*	292.0	90.0	20.0	4282.0
	Expected Count	3737.3	369.6	143.3	31.7	4282.0
	% within student	63.3**	48.2	38.3	38.5	61.0
Male	Count	2247.0*	314.0	145.0	32.0	2738.0
	Expected Count	2389.7	236.4	91.7	20.3	2738.0
	% within student	36.7***	51.8	61.7	61.5	39.0
Total	Count	6127.0*	606.0	235.0	52.0	7020.0
	Expected Count	6127.0	606.0	235.0	52.0	7020.0
	% within gender	87.3	8.6	3.3	.7	100.0
	% within student	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Data provided by TEA.
**Sixty-three percent of all Texas schools with student enrollment of 1000 or less are headed by female principals.
***Thirty-seven percent of all Texas schools with student enrollment of 1000 or less are headed by male principals.

A two-way contingency table analysis was utilized to evaluate whether administrator gender was related to campus size. The two variables consisted of administrator gender crosstabulated with four levels of campus size (0 - 1000, 1001 – 2,000, 2001 – 3003 and 3,004 + students). Gender and campus size were found to be significantly related, *Pearson χ2 (2, N = 7020) = 390.50, p < .001,* Cramer's *V = .22,* a moderate effect size. Results showed a prevalence of men at the larger campus sizes, for example, 1001 – 2000 students, 2001 – 3,003 students, and 3,004 + students.

Table 4.9 (Principals' Gender by Students Crosstabulation) reveals that out of the 4,282 female principals in the state of Texas, only 20 was at schools with 3003+ students. However, the data in the table also shows that 3,880 female principals held positions on campuses with 0-1000 students. When one compares the female principals to the male principals in this table the data reveals that 38.5% of female principals had a student population of 3003+ and male principals reflected 61.5% in this same category. The female principals were 48.2% at the 1001-2000 student population level, while male principals were at 51.8% in this same category. Therefore, male principals held principal positions in larger schools than female principals. The table below illustrates the proportion of principals' gender by campus enrollment:

Table 4.10

Proportion of Principals' Gender by Campus Enrollment Trend

Trend Analysis of Principals' Gender by Campus Enrollment Cross-tabulation			0-1000	1001-2000	2001-3003	3004+	
			0	1	2	3	Total
Gender	Female	Count	3880.0*	292.0	90.0	20.0	4282.0
		% within student	63.3	48.2	38.3	38.5	61.0
	Male	Count	2247.0*	314.0	145.0	32.0	2738.0
		% within student	36.7	51.8	61.7	61.5	39.0
Total		Count	6127.0*	606.0	235.0	52.0	7020.0
		% within gender	87.3	8.6	3.3	.7	100.0
		% within student	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

*Data provided by TEA.

Figure 4.3

Cross-tabulation of Gender by Campus Enrollment, 2010 Data (N = 7,020)
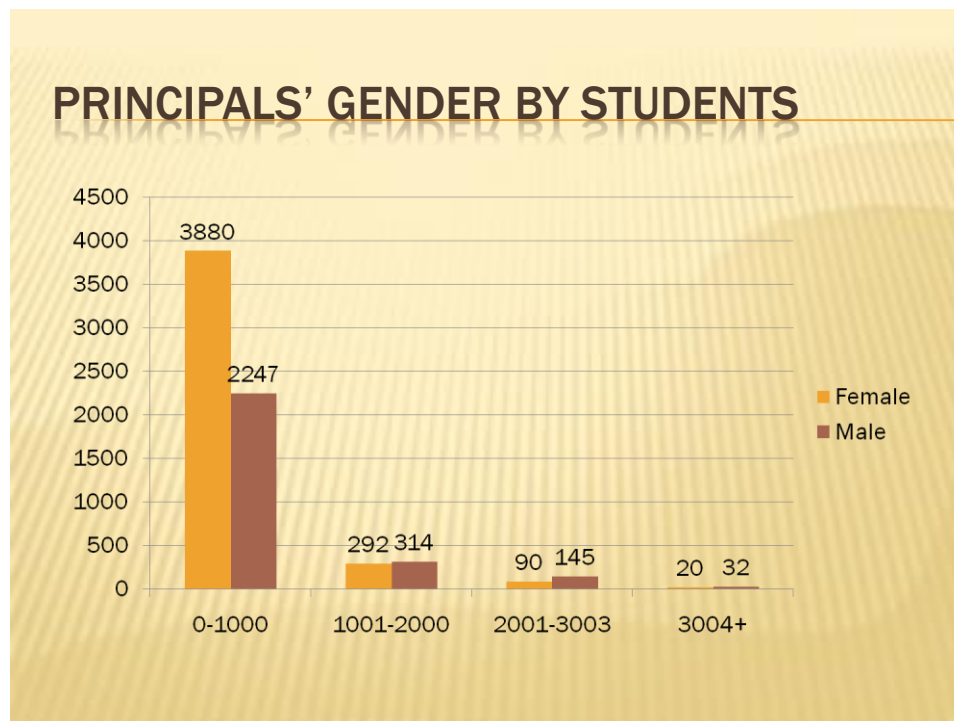

Figure 4.3. Data provided by TEA. The legend shows independent variable gender (female, male). The dependent variables are campus sizes of 0-1000, 1001-2000, 2001-3003 and 3004 +.

Implications may necessitate further examination of differences in gender when schools are involved in making hiring decisions with regard to state accountability. Although current results indicate a higher accountability rating for campuses led by women, historical trends of hiring men continue to flourish in a world where education and research is supposed to be esteemed over all things. This research study has examined whether there is a statistically significant association between principals' gender and school campus ratings that have been rated as acceptable or above in the state of Texas. Further, implications of the study may be creating discrimination towards men

in hiring practices if districts consider only the data concerned with unacceptable campus ratings that was reported.

Summary

This research study began because an Athletic Director approached the researcher, as a, principal intern and stated, "You will make a great elementary principal." Given she was completing an internship at the high school level at the time of the comment, the researcher could not help but be offended. In fact, the researcher had no intention on applying at an elementary school. The Athletic Director's comment was innocent in nature; yet, the biases in this comment were palpable. The Athletic Director's single comment initiated the researcher's quest to examine the number of female principals at the secondary level, as well as their success rate as principals in the state of Texas.

This research study showed that there is a statistically significant relationship between the Texas school principals' gender of school campuses that have been rated as acceptable or above in the state of Texas. In addition, the results revealed that a statistically significant association exists between the school principals' gender and grade level and campus success. Finally, the results showed that a statistically significant association exists between the school principals' gender and grade level and campus size.

This research study was designed to further explore and understand the many variables associated with investigatory enlightenment. Research is necessary in order to understand historical trends, associations, and influences that shape outcomes in our world. This study attempted to discover the changes that have occurred in an ever-

developing society that has struggled for equality in the workplace, competition to

succeed, and accountability for actions. Further research on this topic is still needed.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

This study found that males are statistically more likely to lead Texas schools that are categorized by TEA as middle school, junior high or high schools. This study also found that males are statistically more likely to head Texas schools with enrollment more than 2000 students. In addition, this study discovered that males are statistically more likely to head schools that are rated Unacceptable in the Texas accountability system. Furthermore, this study found that females are statistically significantly more likely to head Texas schools that are categorized by TEA as elementary schools. This study found that females have school enrollment of 1,000 or fewer students. Finally, this study found that females head schools that are rated Acceptable, Unacceptable, and Exemplary in the Texas accountability system. Although the ratings are higher for female principals in the state of Texas, this study showed a limitation of female principals at the secondary level.

Historically, research has indicated a distinctive pattern of male dominance in public administration, particularly at the secondary school level (Mertz, 2006), and the results of this study assert the same implication. Gotwalt and Towns (1986) reported that women occupied 55% of elementary schools, 12% of junior high schools, and 6% of high schools during the 1930s. Results from the study indicated that women held 73.5% of elementary positions, 41.3% of junior high positions, and 29.8% of high school positions. Since the 1930s, the greatest increase for women occurred in the junior high school positions, which accounted for a 29.3% increase overall. The second increase in positions occurred at the high school level as women have gained an increase of 23.8%. It would

appear that the results of this study support the historical data in reporting that women are more prevalent in elementary principal positions.

For purposes of this study, women held 59.9% of the 7,020 elementary positions which is a drastic decrease from the 2006 study. Women also held 17.6% middle school positions. The 2006 study did not include middle school; yet, the present study addressed middle school female principals: 4.4% held junior high positions, while 18.1% held high school positions, which is a decrease from the 2006 study. It would appear that the results of this study support historical data in reporting that women are more prevalent in elementary principal positions, even though there was an apparent decrease in the percentage of elementary female principals using TEA's 2009 – 2010 data.

Research Question One: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus level (elementary, middle school, junior high, and high school)?

The results of the study indicated that the prevalence of female principals is greater in the state of Texas than the prevalence of male principals. Past research for the United States indicated that men were more prevalent in principal positions. As reported by Mertz (2006), the hegemony of men during the 1970s in principalship positions had maintained a foothold for over 30 years. According to the Texas Education Agency (TEA) (2002), women principals have been the prevalent gender in the state of Texas since 1998. Although women have been the prevalent gender for the state of Texas, the placement of women at specific campus levels is noteworthy. The results of the study revealed a large number of female principals at the elementary level and a small fraction of female principals at the secondary level. The data revealed that 59.9% of the female principals in the state of Texas were from elementary schools. Of the 7,020 principals in

this study, only 18.1% of female principals were from high schools. Therefore, the results revealed that there is a statistically significant relationship between principals' gender and the campus level, with a tendency for men to outnumber women as the level of the campus increases (from elementary through high school).

Research Question Two: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus academic success as measured by the Texas TAKS test?

The No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 made schools accountable for the academic success of each student on their individual campuses. Student scores were compiled, averaged, and grouped in order to give the campus an AEIS rating indicating academic success or failure (TEA, 2002). In reference back to chapter two, the researcher discussed that women leaders tend to have closely-knit schools, visit more classrooms, be more up to date in terms of curriculum, and be more informed than their male counterparts. They use a powerful discourse of the ethics of care and deliver an administration that serves all individuals through personal relationships and civic responsibility (Blackmore, 1999). Women are natural communicators and tend not to leave any one out of the loop. Female principals' leadership style has contributed to female administrator success at all campus levels. In fact, Roser, Brown, & Kelsey, (2009) revealed that males were most frequently associated with having an unacceptable campus rating. For the purposes of this study, the data also revealed that the male gender was the most frequently associated with having an unacceptable campus rating.

Research Question Three: Is there a relationship between administrator gender and campus size?

In relation to the work of Roser, Brown, and Kelsey (2009), the researcher believed that a variable related to size of campus might reveal a prevalence of gender. The results in this study indicated that the prevalence of gender at the campus size of 0-1000 were female. Female administrators do hold principalship positions at large high schools yet, in reference to chapter two, Hicks (2004) elaborates that her salary at a large suburban high school was much lower than that of the male high school principals because she had no previous administrative experience. She also states, "Even though I ran the largest school and earned my PhD the next year, there was no provision for movement on the schedule, especially when the board for several years had offered no increases for administrators" (p.49). She goes on to explain that her salary was only one dollar more per day than the athletic director. Subsequently, such examples effectually cause women to rethink their decisions about seeking positions in administration. For purposes of this study, students ranged from 1001 – 2000, 2001 – 3003 and 3004+ students were most prevalent with the gender of male. The relationship is a small significance and the strength of the relationship was moderate.

Implications for Practice

The implications of the study are relative to the hiring practices of school administrators as they continue to realize the mandates that are required for Texas state accountability in order to receive federal funding. The findings show that schools that employ a female principal maintain better overall campus accountability ratings than those of their male counterparts. Although women have made tremendous strides in

number of positions attained; nonetheless, they continue to be relegated to the role of nurturer by being placed [historically and prevalently] into elementary campuses. It behooves administrators in charge of hiring decisions at school districts to consider research data that might reveal trends, implications, and significant findings with regard to gender and campus rating.

Implications may necessitate further examination of differences in gender when schools are involved in making hiring decisions with regard to state accountability. Although current results indicate a higher accountability rating for campuses led by women, historical trends of hiring men continue to flourish in a world where education and research are supposed to be valued over all other things, especially predications of gender bias. The research has set out to discover the overall significant principal gender of school campuses that have been rated as acceptable or above in the state of Texas. Furthermore, implications of the study may create a form of discrimination towards men in hiring practices if districts consider only the data concerned with unacceptable campus ratings that was reported.

Recommendation for Further Research

This particular research is designed to further explore and understand the many variables associated with investigatory enlightenment. Therefore, further research is necessary in order to understand historical trends, associations, and influences that shape outcomes in our world. Therefore, further research is necessary in order to understand how gender can affect hiring practices in the state of Texas. Finally, research is necessary to understand how a principals' gender can impact a campus.

Summary

This impetus for this very study was initiated the moment an athletic director advised the researcher she would make a good principal at an elementary school. Although this commentary initially offended the researcher, she ultimately let it go. Then within the same week, a female counselor made the same comment (i.e., the researcher would make a good principal at an elementary school). Finally, when the researcher interviewed for her current position as assistant principal of a high school in the state of Texas, one of the board members asked the question, "How would you handle a student 300 pounds for disciplining," the researcher responded, "The same way I would handle any other student, with care, concern and compassion." Thus, the researcher's comment confirmed the need for this study, but it also validated the discussion in the Review of the Literature in a number of areas, namely, negative attitudes towards women within educational institutions continued to be a major barrier. For instance, the issue of disciplining students is one particular exemplar that serves to highlight the gender biases present in our schools today, – particularly in relation to viewing women's nurturing nature as a detriment. With this particular bias in mind, Shakeshaft(1987) notes, "Women were thought to be constitutionally incapable of discipline and order, primarily because of their size and supposed lack of strength" (p.39). In sum, after the two initial comments from her male counterparts in education, and one comment made by a female counselor, the researcher began this study.

It is important to note that hiring practices should focus on experience, professional development, collegiality, and training of school principals, rather than giving preference to gender. The identification of gender bias that women principals face

as school administrators has been an important component in the process of increasing opportunities for women seeking advancement. Eagly (2007) pointed out that "the good performance of business organizations that have more women among their executives provides an argument for nondiscrimination that complements the more fundamental arguments that discrimination flouts laws and violates the American value of equal opportunity" (p. 6). The observations and studies presented in this study may contribute to insights that can help central office administrators and school boards when making decisions on principal candidates in the state of Texas. Namely, hiring the most qualified person should remain the focus, not an applicant's gender. Using action skills to address contemporary problems faced by female school administrators should enable current candidates to achieve success (Smith & Hale, 2002).

In this study, the researcher attempted to discover the changes that have occurred in an ever-developing society that has struggled for equality in the workplace, competition to succeed, and accountability for actions. Improved hiring practices are necessary in the state of Texas to hire the best candidate for the principalship at all campus levels regardless of gender. Finally, this study is intended to help awaken both female and male educators at all levels to the fact that gender biases exist in education, and that further research on this topic is necessary.

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APPENDIX A

HUMAN SUBJECTS APPROVAL LETTER

U N I V E R S I T Y of H O U S T O N

COMMITTEES FOR THE PROTECTION OF HUMAN SUBJECTS

December 1, 2010

Ms. Sonerka
Mouton c/o Dr.
Allen R. Warner
Curriculum and
Instruction

Dear Ms. Mouton:

Based upon your request for exempt status, an administrative review of your research proposal entitled "Exploring Relationships between Secondary School Principals' Gender and Campus Ratings in the Texas Accountability System" was conducted on October 25, 2010.

At that time, your request for exemption under **category 4** was approved pending modification of your proposed procedures/documents.

The changes you have made adequately respond to the identified contingencies. As long as you continue using procedures described in this project, you do not have to reapply for review.* Any modification of this approved protocol will require review and further approval. Please contact me to ascertain the appropriate mechanism.

If you have any questions, please contact Alicia Vargas at (713) 743-9215.

Sincerely yours,

Enrique Valdez, Jr.
Director, Research Compliance

*Approvals for exempt protocols will be valid for 5 years beyond the approval date. Approval for this project will expire **October 1, 2015.** If the project is completed prior to this date, a final report should be filed to close the protocol. If the project will continue after this date, you will need to reapply for approval if you wish to avoid an interruption of your data collection.

Protocol Number: 11084-EX

APPENDIX B

REQUEST FOR DATA LETTER

November 19, 2010

Dear Ron,

Per our conversation earlier today, I am requesting Texas principal files for the last three years with the campus accountability ratings added to each file. You can email me the data at sonerkamouton@yahoo.com.

Thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Sonerka Mouton
Doctoral Student

APPENDIX C

TEA RESPONSE

From: Newland, Ron [Ron.Newland@tea.state.tx.us]
Sent: Friday, November 19, 2010 4:51 PM
To: Mouton, Sonerka
Subject: data requested from TEA

Ms. Mouton,

I have attached the principal files for the last three years with
the campus accountability ratings added to each file.
If I can be of further assistance just ask.

Ronald Newland
Programmer IV
Texas Education Agency
512 463 0916