

Job Satisfaction of Female Superintendents: Role Conflict and Role Commitment

Gregory L. Forrest

Dissertation submitted to the faculty of the Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University in
partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Doctor of Education

In

Educational Leadership and Policy Studies

Glen I. Earthman, Chair

Cherie C. Whitehurst

Michael D. Alexander

John R. Gratto

February 10, 2017

Blacksburg, Virginia

Keywords: Superintendent Job Satisfaction, Role Conflict, Role Commitment, Female School
Administration, Educational Leadership

Job Satisfaction of Female Superintendents: Role Conflict and Role Commitment

Gregory L. Forrest

ABSTRACT

This study examined the relationship between the job satisfaction of female superintendents, role conflict, and role commitment. The population included all female superintendents in the states of Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. Job satisfaction and role conflict were assessed using survey instruments while role commitment was a one question item determining the prioritization of work first, important relationships first, or work and relationships equally. Higher scores in the survey instruments indicated higher overall job satisfaction and internal role conflict, respectively. The relationship between and among variables were investigated using Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient, a multiple regression analysis, and ANOVA.

This study found that unlike both male and female secondary principals in the Midwest (Eckman, 2004), role conflict and role commitment had no statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction for this population. Role commitment and role conflict, however, had a significant, positive relationship where those more committed to work first felt greater internal role conflict while those committed to important relationships first felt less internal role conflict. Finally, professional vs. self was the factor that created the most role conflict while the nature of work and co-workers were factors that contribute most to job satisfaction while operating conditions was the weakest source of job satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction of Female Superintendents: Role Conflict and Role Commitment

Gregory L. Forrest

GENERAL AUDIENCE ABSTRACT

While women make up around 75% of the field of education as a whole, they only make up only around 25% of superintendents even though they outpace men in administrative preparation programs, pursuit of superintendent licensure, and educational doctorates. In answering the School Superintendents Association's (AASA) call to research family obligations, family dynamics, and career choice of female superintendents, this study extends Eckman's (2004) research on secondary principals in methodology, considering the job satisfaction, role conflict, and role commitment of female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. This study failed to identify a significant relationship between the independent variables of role conflict and role commitment with the dependent variable of job satisfaction. Role conflict and role commitment, however, did have a statistically significant relationship, where those more committed to work had greater role conflict while those more committed to important relationships first had less role conflict.

DEDICATION

This study is dedicated first to my wife, Serena, who has put up with too many weekends and evenings of *I have to get some writing done*—I would not have been able to get through this program without your support. I love you and trust this investment of our energy, time, and resources will pay dividends for years to come. To my mom and dad, both lifelong educators—thank you for teaching me the importance of education and determination; you were both my first and most important teachers. This is still true today—thank you and I love you. To my brothers—thanks for being such great examples in not only your dedication to work and schooling but being godly men, husbands, and dads. And finally to my sweet Selah Grace, our baby on the way, and those to follow—this work was for you. Ecclesiastes 12:13. By God’s grace I worked to this end so that your mom and I could do everything in our power to ensure your needs are always met. We love you so much.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There are a number of individuals who deserve acknowledgement for their support of this study. First and foremost—Jesus. Your grace has always been sufficient for me. Your provision is more than enough. My cohort members were such a wealth of knowledge, experience, encouragement, and support. Thank you all for teaching me lessons—in leadership, instruction, and life. All the professors in this program helped to create a wonderful learning environment. My professional colleagues—teachers, administrators, and mentors—helped provide flexibility and support so that I was able to pursue this degree. Much gratitude and appreciation is extended to Dr. Glen Earthman, who served not only as a chair and research mentor but also as a catalyst for continuation when my research slowed. Thank you to Dr. John Gratto who served as a committee member and forced me to refine my ideas throughout this process. I thoroughly enjoyed your classes and our interactions. Dr. Cherie Whitehurst, thank you for being a committee member having never met me. Your insight and interest in my research was a great encouragement. Thank you to Dr. M. David Alexander. Your challenge to present my research helped open the door for a number of opportunities.

Table of Contents

ABSTRACT	II
GENERAL AUDIENCE ABSTRACT	III
DEDICATION	IV
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	V
CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION	1
Statement of the Problem and Purpose	2
Research Questions	2
Research Hypothesis	2
Significance.....	3
Definition of Terms.....	4
Delimitations of the Study	4
Limitations of the Study.....	5
CHAPTER 2 REVIEW OF LITERATURE	7
Foundational Studies.....	7
Themes.....	11
Affirming Issues.....	12
<i>Balancing work and family.</i>	12
<i>Underrepresentation</i>	13
<i>Concept of power.</i>	13
<i>Qualified but unwilling or uninterested.</i>	14
<i>Limited research.</i>	15
Clarifying Misconstructions.....	16
<i>Job satisfaction.</i>	16
<i>Lack of growth or progress.</i>	17
<i>Family life precludes interest or ability.</i>	18
<i>Weaknesses.</i>	19
<i>Gender-bias barriers.</i>	19
Leadership and Practices of Female Superintendents.....	20
<i>Leadership outlooks</i>	20
<i>Leadership practices.</i>	22
Summary	24
CHAPTER 3 METHODOLOGY	25
Research Design.....	25
Research Questions	25
Population	26
Instrumentation	26
Data Collection	28
Informed Consent.....	29
Data Management	29
Data Analysis	29

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS	31
Demographic Analysis.....	31
Descriptive Data.....	34
Subscale Comparison.....	35
<i>Job Satisfaction</i>	35
<i>Role conflict</i>	36
Relationships among Variables.....	37
CHAPTER 5 SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND DISCUSSION	42
Summary.....	42
Conclusion.....	43
Implications for Practice.....	43
Discussion.....	44
<i>Respondent comments</i>	46
<i>Connection to literature</i>	49
<i>Study concerns</i>	49
<i>Recommendations for further study</i>	50
Reflections.....	51
REFERENCES.....	52
APPENDIX A ROLE CONFLICT SCALE	57
APPENDIX B JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY	60
APPENDIX C JOB SATISFACTION OVERVIEW	62
APPENDIX D INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT	64
APPENDIX E IRB APPROVAL.....	65
APPENDIX F COPYRIGHT PERMISSION LETTERS.....	66
APPENDIX G DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS.....	67

List of Figures

<i>Figure 2.1.</i> Projected percentage of female superintendents.....	18
<i>Figure 4.1.</i> State representation.....	31
<i>Figure 4.2.</i> Marital status.....	32
<i>Figure 4.3.</i> Total experience.....	32
<i>Figure 4.4.</i> Length of employment in current position.....	33
<i>Figure 4.5.</i> Age ranges of respondents.....	33
<i>Figure 4.6.</i> Age of children.....	34
<i>Figure 4.7.</i> Overall role conflict.....	34
<i>Figure 4.8.</i> Overall role commitment.....	35

List of Tables

Table 4.1 <i>Job Satisfaction Subscales</i>	36
Table 4.2 <i>Role Conflict Subscales</i>	37
Table 4.3 <i>Correlation between Role Conflict and Role Commitment</i>	38
Table 4.4 <i>Correlation between Role Conflict and Job Satisfaction</i>	38
Table 4.5 <i>Correlation between Role Commitment and Job Satisfaction</i>	39
Table 4.6 <i>Multiple Regression and ANOVA among All Variables</i>	40
Table 5.1 <i>Ages of New Superintendents by Gender</i>	45
Table 5.2 <i>Perceived Discrimination by Gender</i>	48

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

A need exists for qualified superintendents to step into leadership roles, but the number of individuals qualified to do this job remains small (Sutton et al., 2008). Of the few who are seeking to be superintendents, an even smaller amount of them are women (Harris et al., 2004). Women have, however, demonstrated their qualifications to be leaders of organizations in a variety of fields, and there are many positive characteristics about leadership styles of women compared to men. For example, women's leadership styles have been characterized by inclusiveness, empathy, communicating through an up and down hierarchy, and focusing on broader images (Wilson, 2006). Buechel-Haack (2010) cited a number of studies that show women are more democratic, more participatory in their leadership styles, and are more likely to be instructional leaders rather than managers. Women holding superintendent positions have also been more adept than men at focusing on the well-being of children and families, more willing to utilize community resources, and are more likely than men to build learning communities (Grogan, 2005).

If there are so many benefits to having women hold leadership positions, then one must wonder why they are not proportionately represented as superintendents, particularly because the majority of individuals in administrative training programs and who are pursuing superintendent licensure are women (Brunner & Kim, 2010; Dana & Bourisaw, 2006). Hunter (2013) found that male assistant superintendents were more willing to pursue the position of superintendent than female assistant superintendents. While it is apparent that there are many women who are qualified to be superintendents, a relatively small percentage of those licensed or who aspire to become a superintendent of schools end up in this position.

There has been much attention given to and research about professional factors that may discourage or preclude women from achieving the superintendency, but research investigating the more personal or familial factors of role conflict and role commitment after achieving the superintendency is limited (Reecks-Rodgers, 2013).

Statement of the Problem and Purpose

While women make up around 75% of the educational work force, they continue to be disproportionately underrepresented in school administration, particularly in the superintendency where they represent less than 25% (Brunner & Grogan, 2007; DiCanio et al., 2016; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Kowalski et al., 2011; Tallerico & Blount, 2004). In general, women in leadership positions operate in fields dominated by men, such as law, finance, or athletics (Burke & Nelson, 2002; Lennon, 2013). As the figures above point out that education is not a field dominated by males; the school superintendency is, however.

For that reason, the purpose of this study is to examine the relationship between job satisfaction, role conflict, and role commitment as it pertains to female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina.

Research Questions

Two primary research questions will drive this study. Along with the two primary questions, related sub-questions are listed below:

- What is the relationship between the job satisfaction and role conflict of female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina?
- What is the relationship between the job satisfaction and role commitment of female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina?
 - What is the relationship between role conflict and role commitment?
 - Is there a statistically significant amount of variance in role conflict, role commitment, or job satisfaction among states?
 - Does role conflict or role commitment have a stronger relationship with job conflict?

Research Hypothesis

The research hypothesis for this proposed study is that women superintendents who have greater internal role conflict about how to balance home or work roles will be less satisfied with their position. Those who have greater role commitment in a role, whether work or home, will have a higher job satisfaction. The research hypothesis also states that women's role conflict and role commitment will have a significant relationship with their level of job satisfaction. The null

hypothesis is that women's role conflict and role commitment have no statistically significant relationship with their level of job satisfaction.

Significance

Scholar-practitioners in social science fields like education must consider both scholarly and practical significance. The research that has been conducted on this topic affirms the need for and demands continued in-depth analysis of factors impacting the desirability and job satisfaction for females serving in educational leadership roles such as the superintendency (Buechel-Haack, 2010; Collard & Reynolds, 2004; Reecks-Rodgers, 2013). Reecks-Rodgers (2013) specifically noted, "Within the education administration field, there is a need for studies to understand the impact of progress and time on work/family issues" (p. 146). Further, she added, "Work/family studies...need to include...particularly women superintendents of public schools..." (p. 147). She explained that this research will deepen understanding of female leadership in education, provide insight to aspirants, and influence and provide insight to school boards and personnel departments so that they are able to adequately support all perspective superintendents.

Reecks-Rodgers's (2013) emphasis on the scholarly significance aligns closely with the primary significance for practice—insight for aspiring female superintendents. As stated, there are more women than men in administrative preparation programs. These women should be informed about the variables which will impact and ultimately lead to or deprive job satisfaction in their employment. This should be based on objective research rather than hearsay or perception. This vein of research will also aid in understanding how others have managed and balanced work and family responsibilities.

There are a number of other factors that are worth noting for policymakers, aspirants, and school districts. Reecks-Rodgers (2013) called for networks of female superintendents to be created that will consider the latest research, provide a support system, and address issues that specifically pertain to those in the position. This would also create a natural opportunity for needed mentoring. Secondly, principal and superintendent preparation programs need to be aware of the factors that are related to job satisfaction so that they are able to adequately prepare their graduate students for successful service in their future positions.

Definition of Terms

In order to maintain consistency one must give operational definitions to terms that will frequently be used. The following terms will be used regularly throughout this study: role conflict, role commitment, and job satisfaction. These terms are defined below.

1. Role conflict. “Role conflict occurs as individuals attempt to balance their family and home roles with professional roles” (Eckman, 2004, p. 368).
2. Role commitment. “How individuals prioritize between their work and significant relationships” (Eckman, 2004, p. 369).
3. Job satisfaction. Evans (1997) defines job satisfaction by combining job fulfillment and comfort: “a state of mind determined by the extent to which the individual perceives her/his job-related needs to be being met” (p. 833).

Delimitations of the Study

1. This study will only consider the female superintendents in the states of Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. The rationale for the inclusion of only these states is due to the fact that they, along with Hawaii and Alaska, are the only states where 100% of school districts are fiscally dependent (Fowler, 2013). Additionally, a common practice among researchers has been to exclude Hawaii and Alaska as their geography and makeup are atypical (Crain, 2009). Duffy (2013) posited that shared factors shape values, attitudes, and experiences. Two factors will be shared by all respondents—the fact that they are female superintendents and their school districts are all fiscally dependent. This delimitation is also partially due to feasibility and convenience.
2. This study’s independent variables are limited to role conflict and role commitment. There are a broad range of factors that impact and have a correlation with female superintendents’ job satisfaction (Hunter, 2013). The rationale for this delimitation is it naturally extends the work of Eckman (2004) by replicating her methodology, which uses only these variables, and answers the call of Reecks-Reynolds (2013) to analyze the dynamic between work and family for the population.
3. The population does not include male superintendents. As the research above has strongly encouraged continued research about female superintendents and their work

and family dynamic, the scope of this study will not include both men and women (Buechel-Haack, 2010; Collard & Reynolds, 2004; Reecks-Rodgers, 2013).

Limitations of the Study

1. This study will be completed within one school calendar year. That time frame only provides a close-up understanding of a much broader historical phenomenon. It is likely that job satisfaction would have a stronger or weaker correlation with the independent variables at different times. While the study could be more longitudinal, depending on response rates, much of the population being considered will provide a comprehensive close-up on the state of job satisfaction for female superintendents in the region at this point in history.
2. This study will not be generalizable outside of the three states in which it will be conducted. While similar studies could be done in different regions, the results of this study cannot be applied to female superintendents in other states, nationally, or internationally.
3. Superintendent positions change across the three states represented fairly regularly or are filled with interim superintendents all throughout a school year. There will undoubtedly be some female superintendents who are not on the state department of education websites when the list is created or who will be hired or fired between the time the study is commenced and completed. While this fluidity is less than ideal, it will have a limited impact on the overall results of the analysis.

Organization of the Study

The study will be organized into five chapters.

Chapter I contains the introduction, statement of the problem and purpose, research questions, research hypothesis, significance, definition of terms, delimitations of the study, limitations of the study, and organization of the study.

Chapter II contains a review of pertinent literature that describes and investigates the themes of affirming issues, clarifying misconstructions, and the leadership and practices of female superintendents as well as the subthemes balancing work and family, underrepresentation, concept of power, qualified but unwilling or uninterested, limited research, job satisfaction, lack of growth or progress, family life precludes interest or ability, weaknesses,

gender-bias barriers, leadership outlooks, and leadership practices. The literature will be prioritized as peer-reviewed and scholarly work that is relevant to the study. It will also include the basis for the study, highlight the gap in literature that has resulted in the inception of this study, and a summary and synthesis of the literature.

Chapter III contains the methodology including research design, research questions, population, instrumentation, data collection, informed consent, data management and data analysis.

Chapter IV contains the demographic analysis, descriptive data, subscale comparison, and relationships among variables.

Chapter V contains the summary, conclusion, reflection, and discussion of findings including respondent comments, connection to literature, study concerns, and recommendations for further study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

While there is a significant body of research about female school administrators and female leadership in general (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010), there is limited research on the job satisfaction of female superintendents once the position of superintendent has been achieved. Studies completed on the process, barriers, routes, aspirations, or motivators of females who achieve or aspire to the superintendency constitute the major share of research in this area of study. Jordan (2014, p. 10) affirmed this when the researcher stated:

Most studies on female leaders in education began with a discussion of the shortage of female leaders or educational leaders in general. Scholars and educators agreed that there was a shortage of women PK-12 leaders. Most studies discussed barriers to female leadership.

To form a basis of research analysis in this area of study, three studies must be acknowledged as they were either foundational in the conception of this research or seminal studies in female school leadership, though they are only tangentially related to the subject of female superintendent's job satisfaction, role conflict, and role commitment.

Foundational Studies

First, Eckman (2004) compared and contrasted similarities and differences of role conflict, role commitment, and job satisfaction for high school principals. This precise area of research has yet to be explored for superintendents; pairing this fact with Reecks-Rodgers' (2013) call to further explore the work/family dynamic of female superintendents creates a logical progression of research where studies like Eckman's aid in the body of literature for female administrator's job satisfaction.

Eckman (2004) found that "job satisfaction was significantly and inversely related to role conflict for the entire group..." (p. 380). Additionally, while 93% of male high school principals were married, only 68% of female principals were married. Similarly, women had higher conflict about household management, and fewer had children in the home. Women with children at home made up 24% of the population while men with children at home made up 59%, respectively (Eckman, 2004). Men, however, felt significantly higher concern about financial

issues than the women administrators. Marital status impacted career mobility more than gender, and both men and women indicated significant role conflict as they struggled to balance home life and work demands. Those who were committed to work first had the most role conflict, although women were equally conflicted whether they chose work first or home first (Eckman, 2004). The primary finding in the study was that women are nearly twice as likely to choose work first, than men. It will become increasingly evident that role conflict and role commitment are broadly troublesome for female administrators in attaining job satisfaction due to personal or familial strain.

Eckman (2004) pointed out that until the issues of role conflict, role commitment, and job satisfaction are specifically addressed, school districts will be hard pressed in continuing to find the most qualified, highly-effective applicants. One can easily see how this principle extends and applies to superintendents with increased work demands and responsibilities.

One studying female educational leadership, specifically the superintendency, would be hard pressed to find research that does not mention Blount's (1998) seminal work that acknowledges what the first female superintendent in Chicago stated—women are destined to rule schools through the superintendency. Blount (1998) pointed out that there is not one primary reason or a “grand explanatory narrative” for women having little formal power as school district leaders (p. 156). Blount (1998) did affirm the temptation to oversimplify and describe this phenomenon in a neat model or linear historical view rather than the multi-faceted issue that it is.

Instead, a discussion on the following ideas about female superintendents are provided (Blount, 1998):

1. Roles and formal power had been gendered and accepted broadly in education.
2. Women had not been “powerless victims” as representation had increased (p. 157).
3. The concept of separate spheres ideology expanded women's power as they exerted their influence over both the home environment and as educators outside the home. Historically, the spheres in which women found themselves were encumbered and controlled by others, although this was not the case when they were teaching.
4. Contemporary schooling maintained, to some extent, “gender-segregated spaces” (p. 159). As superintendents were largely male and teachers were primarily female, these spaces maintained this historical status quo. These groups had become

increasingly physically removed and segregated. Obviously, the men's group had greater power and had effectually kept women, along with minorities and the culturally diverse, out of power.

Blount (1998) also suggested the following as being considerations in potential solutions in remedying the lack of power or underrepresentation of females in the superintendency:

1. "...the present configuration of school administration is inextricably woven with the traditional gender definitions that are premised on males controlling females. Unless that tradition and the resulting administrative structures are carefully deconstructed, a reliance on the present structure risks perpetuating the same power inequities, but perhaps cut along different social dimensions." (p. 161).
2. Appointing female superintendents without "considering...how they interact, how they fit into the larger culture, and what their experiences are as individuals, is to risk creating a rigid structure that might just as soon be used against women as for them. This happened repeatedly over the past 150 years." (p. 161).
3. Hiring women so that movement toward parity is quantifiable without changing the structure of schooling has been a feeble approach—it does nothing to solve the issue.
4. Some activists and/or feminists assume that women inherently provide sound educational leadership or superior leadership compared with men. Blount (1998) clearly stated these types of broad conclusions are not generalizable. Hiring or promoting a woman to the superintendency because of her gender, it is warned, can be just as dangerous as "the time honored practice of insisting that only men be leaders..." (p. 162).
5. The primary issue can be simply expressed as who has power to control and shape schools. While a superintendent holds formal central power, many stakeholders also hold power. Educational power is nuanced, and it should be a significant part of conversations about women and the superintendency (p. 163).

Blount (1998) concluded:

In sum, the solution is not simply to get more women into superintendencies, but rather there must be a larger reconceptualization of how power is structured in public schooling. In that process it is imperative to consider whether social structures systematically deny

power to individuals or groups...After all, what happens in schools influences what happens in society and vice versa. (p. 165).

For Blount, there were simply inappropriate, gender-based constructions around the superintendency and unequitable educational power. These constructions, Blount (1998) stated, needed to be challenged, and the inequities needed to be remedied.

DiCanio et al. (2016) created a predictive model to assess the willingness of assistant superintendents to pursue the superintendency based on the variables of personal factors, professional factors, and volition. DiCanio et al. (2016) followed the format Jordan (2014) laid out, noting the shortage or discrepancy in parity between male and female superintendents followed by a brief discussion on gender and an analysis of potential barriers. This discussion pointed out the need to survey assistant superintendents in order to understand their willingness or lack thereof. The aforementioned variables were chosen to determine what factors weighed most heavily when assistant superintendents considered pursuing the superintendency. DiCanio et al. cited Vogel's (1985) work that outlined the four factors that precluded women from pursuing and becoming superintendents: woman's place, discrimination, meritocracy, and economic. These factors, although sometimes phrased differently, are common issues found in literature analyzing barriers to female superintendents or aspirants. Ultimately, all four of these factors spoke to women being viewed as inferior to men in leadership ability or effectiveness, affirming what Blount (1998) found regarding power brokers in education.

DiCanio et al. (2016) found that men were nearly 40% more likely to achieve the superintendency, upholding the literature discussed later about concept of power where teaching is viewed as fundamentally feminine while administration is primarily masculine. Three theories on the lack of women in leadership positions were proposed: a psychological theory that is tied to power, a social norm theory where limitations support discrimination against women, and a self-limiting theory where women doubt their potential and abilities to be successful.

Ultimately, Dicanio et al. (2016) found that when viewing marital status as a variable, no statistical significance was found in predicting the willingness of pursuing the superintendency. Rather, volition, district size, and mentorship were found to be statistically significant with an effect size of 60% (p. 75). Mentorship varied the most between genders, with women being 29 times more likely to pursue the superintendency if their own superintendent served as their mentor. "...Regardless of gender, the individual level of volition affects both female or male

assistant superintendents' professional perseverance and level of aspiration" (DiCanio et al., 2016, p. 77). DiCanio et al. (2016) concluded that the common catch-phrase for women's advancement of a "glass ceiling" may be more appropriately described as a "glass maze" without mentorship, often times being forced to navigate the "good ol' boys club" by themselves. Additionally, DiCanio et al. (2016) asserted that a shift in perceptions about female educational leader's knowledge, skills, and professional dispositions is needed if women are to navigate the glass maze.

Themes

Siegle (n.d.) defined data saturation as when a researcher no longer finds new information. This important concept brings validity and trustworthiness to a study as it prevents researchers from injecting personal bias. While data saturation aids trustworthiness, it is important for researchers to acknowledge their own personal perspectives and lenses from which they view the world. Data saturation did occur when analyzing literature. Each study reviewed either affirmed the problematic issues women administrators faced and sought to identify solutions, clarified misconceptions or described these problems through a different lens, or analyzed what sound leadership looked like when a woman was in the role of superintendent, resulting in the following themes and subthemes:

- Affirming Issues
 - Balancing Work and Family
 - Underrepresentation
 - Concept of Power
 - Qualified but Unwilling or Uninterested
 - Limited Research
- Clarifying Misconstructions
 - Job Satisfaction
 - Lack of Growth or Progress
 - Family Precludes Interest or Ability
 - Weaknesses
 - Gender-Bias Barriers
- Leadership and Practices of Female Superintendents

- Leadership Outlooks
- Leadership Practices

These themes and subthemes encompassed all the literature. Interestingly, nearly all books, journal articles, and other scholarly writings cleanly fit into one theme. Those that did not fit cleanly into one category were written broadly and fit into two or all three of these themes.

Affirming Issues

Much of the literature that specifically analyzed the work of female superintendents affirmed problems or issues that are likely to be experienced while women are in the role of superintendent. The primary issues that emerged were 1) Balancing Work and Family, 2) Underrepresentation, 3) Concept of Power, 4) Qualified but Unwilling/Uninterested, and 5) Limited Research. Four of the five subthemes either directly or indirectly relate to the job satisfaction, role conflict, and role commitment of female superintendents, while the limited research affirms the need for this type of research. As synthesized below, one can see there continue to be problems for female superintendents in regards to how factors in their personal lives impact job satisfaction.

Balancing work and family. Most participants, particularly in qualitative studies, noted the difficulty in balancing work and family life. All participants in du Plessis' (2008) study acknowledged that being a superintendent required personal sacrifice. These sacrifices included time with family, friends, and leisure activities. Reecks-Rodgers (2013) affirmed, "The women superintendents expressed concerns about the intrusions that took them away from their families (extended hours) or caused emotional distress within their families" (p. 109). One participant in Reecks-Rodgers (2013) study noted that it wasn't simply the time work required, but the conflict that the job had with important events and days: "But the conflict with families — 'it's my birthday and you have a board meeting?'" (p. 110). These women frequently felt guilty about the time requirements of their role as a superintendent and how it demanded time away from family, although they found solace in the fact that their school districts had made progress while they were at the helm (du Plessis, 2008). Even in broader, quantitative studies that did not specifically seek anything other than descriptive statistics, 44.2% of female superintendents said family concerns, restrictions, and obligations were difficult to navigate and ultimately restricted

access for women (Kowalski et al., 2011). To reiterate, nearly half of all female superintendents cited familial concerns as being an issue while being in the position.

While most mentioned that husbands or families were very supportive and understanding, there was a sense that the demands of the job impacted every facet of life including day-to-day decisions like where to go to dinner and what to wear, which was hard on the families of these superintendents (du Plessis, 2008; Reecks-Rodgers, 2013). Blount (1998) affirmed the need for “devoted partners willing to handle domestic chores” (p. 164). Some of these demands were job-imposed while others were self-imposed, and all the while these women did not feel free from or expect to be released from executive roles within the home (Reecks-Rodgers, 2013). Many of these women had conversations with families on the potential impact and strain it would have on their family before accepting the job, although some reported that they could not fully anticipate the extent of the demand until it was fully realized.

Reecks-Rodgers (2013) affirmed that the primary difficulty within the superintendency is the rigor of the job itself as work demand was the most referenced topic. It is reasonable, then, that most of the literature focusing on female superintendents deals with barriers, routes, and aspirations as was previously mentioned and will be explored later (Jordan, 2014). Still, the difficulty in balancing work and family must not be ignored especially since nearly half of all of female superintendents identify it as restrictive (Kowalski et al., 2011; Reecks-Rodgers, 2013).

Underrepresentation. Jordan (2014) stated that the majority of research about female leadership generally begins with figures about the shortage in female leadership. In fact, two major pieces of literature projected that it will take between three and seven decades to reach parity (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Kowalski et al., 2011). Yet underrepresentation of women in the superintendency is difficult to establish clearly as there is a lack of annual data. The current reality is that figures come from periodic surveys that typically use a sample of a broader population. Still, Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) point out that while around 75% of the teaching force is female, only 13% of superintendents were female in 2000, 18% were female in 2003 (Shakeshaft et al., 2006), and 24% were female in 2010. This growth will be further examined in the Clarifying Misconstructions, but the fact remains that females continue to be underrepresented as superintendents (Kowalski et al., 2011).

Concept of power. Concept of power can be understood as the social norm of power and gender alignment (Collard & Reynolds, 2004). Brunner (2004) wrote, “There is no doubt

that gendered nature of the concept of power...creates difficulty and limitations for females who wish, first, to be superintendents, and second, to be viewed as successful in the role” (p. 135). To examine this further requires a brief discussion about stereotypical gender norms. Brunner (2004) identified two types of power that were correlated with assumptions about masculinity and femininity. The concept of *power over* refers to leadership styles and practices that are prominently viewed as masculine; *power with* leadership, on the other hand, is associated with feminine leadership.

McNay (2013) pointed out that there are “oppressive constraints that operate around ideas of femininity” (p. 42). The context in which McNay wrote has little to do with education, but in writing about the concept of power, the researcher posited the need for questioning assumptions based on gender stereotypes. The principle translates into education when one considers how Brunner (2004) depicts how stakeholders responded to women who acted like men in the superintendency, “... [These women received] poor support, diminished access, personal attacks, unfair criticism, and short tenures” (p. 134). Women who acted “feminine” but with *power over* were viewed as unsuccessful, not well liked, powerless, and called expletives (Brunner, 2004). Blount (1998) wrote, “...if women administrators performed their leadership roles with a feminine demeanor, they were regarded as weak and ineffectual” (p. 9). Chambers (1999) added that in the business world, executive women were likely to exhibit masculine traits of leadership when the researcher studied the job satisfaction of managerial and executive women.

While gender-bias will be discussed separately in the Clarifying Misconstructions theme, a problem emerges when the literature clearly paints a no-win situation for women in leadership positions, particularly the superintendency. The research points out that women who act with “feminine” leadership traits and a *power with* outlook are viewed as weak, while women who lead with a more “masculine” outlook from *power over* are undermined and seen as being cold and impersonal. The concept of power is a poignant example of a professional frustration for female superintendents once the role is attained, but this can be turned into a strength.

Qualified but unwilling or uninterested. Kowalski et al. (2011) pointed out that the majority of school administration students are female. Dana and Bourisaw (2006) affirmed this, stating that a large number and percentage of those who possess superintendent certification are women. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) found through an analysis of the U.S. Department of Education’s National Center for Education Statistics that women have overtaken men in earning

more educational doctorate degrees since the 1990's. Shakeshaft et al. (2006) added that women worldwide are just as likely as men to be certified administrators in countries that have educational requirements. Still, Hunter (2013) found that male assistant superintendents were more willing to pursue the superintendency than their female counterparts.

When looking at these statistics, one might assume the aforementioned underrepresentation is quickly being remedied. While growth in the percentage of female superintendents has been steady for the past decade, however, increases have not been exponential or caused researchers to feel that a resolution has been achieved. Shakeshaft et al. (2006, p. 503) explains this in one of two ways—either balancing the work of a leader and a family has brought about reluctance or women simply entered education because they were passionate about teaching:

At the same time, women sometimes say that family responsibilities keep them from applying for and assuming administrative positions, not because these women do not think they could do everything, but because they believe the costs would be too high for their families and themselves...[Other] women have indicated...they entered education to teach.

Sharp et al. (2004) affirmed this idea when pointing out that around 50% of female superintendents in the three states studied felt that “women may not apply for a superintendent’s position because they did not want to spend too much time away from home” (p. 31). Blount (1998) echoed the greater demands paired with getting away from the “real work of education” make some women simply uninterested in pursuing the superintendency (p. 151).

Limited research. Blount (1998) called it the *conspiracy of silence* in her seminal study that is nearly 20 years old, but as recent as 2010, Grogan and Shakeshaft wrote, “...there is a more accurate and detailed account of reindeer in Alaska than of women in educational leadership at the Pre-PK-12 level nationwide” (p. 103). Prior to the 1980's, the vast majority of educational superintendents were male; thus, the ability and need to research female superintendents is a relatively new necessity in regards to educational research (Kowalski et al., 2011). Still, the majority of research about female superintendents have been in dissertations and particularly examining barriers to women achieving the position (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Jordan, 2014). Additionally, much of the research has paired ethnicity and gender or been a

comparison of male and female superintendents rather than analyzing female superintendents as a population by itself (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Murphy et al., 2007; Tallerico, 1999). Researchers propose that studies should “move away from comparisons of women and men and toward understanding the worlds of women” (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010, p. 32; Reecks-Rodgers, 2013).

While quantitative research has decreased from 40% to 28% in the past 20 years (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010), Shakeshaft et al. (2006) suggested that “the more we know about women in leadership roles...the greater the likelihood of increasing their numbers in the field” (p. 105). In addition, studies on women in leadership roles within education have rarely included work/family issues in which role conflict has been examined (Reecks-Rodgers, 2013).

One additional noteworthy item will be explored in this section—the atypicality of this research. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) stated, “few white men study women or people of color...” (p. 35). In fact, the only male researchers cited thus far in this chapter are those who dealt with nationwide, descriptive statistics of the broad perceptions of superintendents. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) posited, “Critics of the traditional research on educational administration suggest that the literature of the field is really a study of male administrative behavior” (p. 31). This finding is supported in Chamber’s (1999) aforementioned research that found female leaders to exhibit masculine traits.

Clarifying Misconstructions

To be clear, the aim of this section is not at all to question the soundness of research, conclusions, or analyses of the mentioned literature, but rather to look objectively and holistically at the body of research. Much of the research that follows or has already been mentioned in the literature review had a limited scope in regards to time or present realities of underrepresentation; this body of research has and will continue to serve as a catalyst for change.

Job satisfaction. Job satisfaction is nearly identical when comparing male and female superintendents (Kowalski et al., 2011). Around 67% of women and 69% of men reported being *very satisfied* with their jobs as superintendents, respectively, while nearly all superintendents at 97% reported being *very satisfied* or *moderately satisfied* in their position (Kowalski et al., 2011). While men are not the “measuring stick,” the comparison is appropriate to determine how and if women are less satisfied with their work. Similarly, the number of superintendents

who would choose the same career or have little career remorse were congruent, with 88.6% of men and 87.7% of women reporting they would choose to be a superintendent again if given the chance. Overall the job satisfaction of female superintendents is commensurate with that of their male counterparts.

Lack of growth or progress. In 1998, Blount stated “...women’s representation [as administrators and superintendents] ...is in fact increasing” (p. 157). More recently, Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) report figures that show steady growth in female representation in the superintendency. As mentioned, this growth is not exponential, but rather regular and consistent. In charting growth from all found data points (Kowalski et al. 2011; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010) since 2000, there has been just shy of 11% growth in 10 years. In projecting the next ten years based on the figures since 2000, it is evident that if the trend continues, around 4% growth will occur every four years, or 1% growth will occur each year. The chart and figure below provides these projections. Projections for 2012 to 2027 are based on 2010 data, the latest available data.

Table 2.1

Projected Percentage of Female Superintendents

Year	Percentage
2000	13.2
2003	18
2004	14
2005	18.2
2008	21.7
2010	24
2012	25.1
2015	29.1
2019	33
2023	37
2027	41

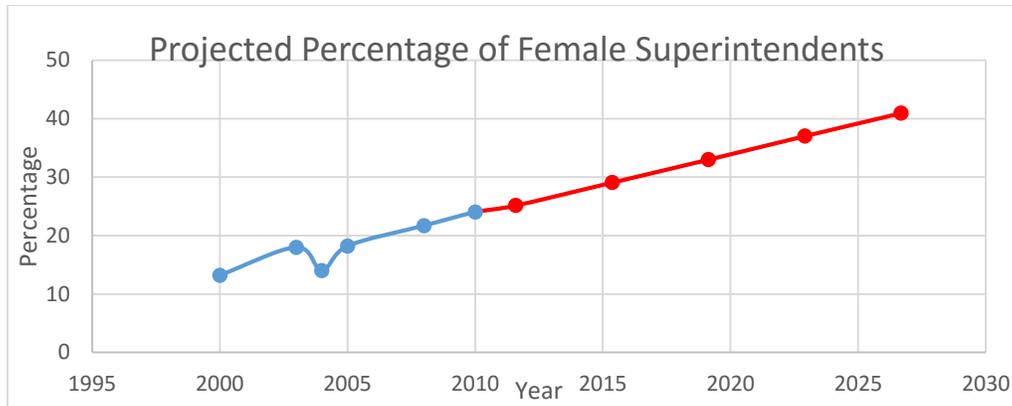


Figure 2.1. Projected percentage of female superintendents.

Family life precludes interest or ability. Collard and Reynolds (2004) wrote, “Societal expectations that women are responsible for child-care and home maintenance increase the workload for women who work outside home. Because of these beliefs, women are often assumed to be less available for leadership positions by those who hire” (p. 508). School boards, like all humans, make assumptions about all candidates. Sometimes these assumptions are correct while others may completely miss the mark. In doing their due diligence, a school board must consider experience, anticipated years of service, and likely commitment to their role as superintendents, whether vetting a male or female candidate. Collard and Reynolds (2004) affirmed assumptions about family interfering with a female superintendent’s work performance occur:

Although there is no documentation that being a parent diminishes managerial ability, there are still many who believe that such responsibilities inhibit the ability of women to perform their jobs as school managers, and, therefore, that such responsibilities make women undesirable candidates for administrative positions. (p.503)

Underlying assumptions tint people’s decisions, but research must drive decision making.

While some research points to the fact that male assistant superintendents are more willing to pursue the superintendency than their female counterparts (Hunter, 2013), administrative preparation programs, percentage of educational doctoral students, and certified applicants would point to the fact that women are both adequately prepared and willing (Grogan & Andrews, 2002; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Sharp et al., 2004). Contrary to the

aforementioned assumptions cited above, Sharp et al. (2004) found that “...female superintendents who were [hired]...did not seem to indicate discrimination by their male board members...” (p. 29). These researchers stated they could not speak for those women who were not hired, but this is particularly important when Sharp et al. (2004) also pointed out that nearly 70% of female superintendents reported not feeling restricted due to family considerations, with 79% of superintendents in this study having at least one child. Reecks-Rodgers (2013) additionally found that school district type and experience were greater indicators than marital status and children status of the primary demands female superintendents faced—work issues.

Weaknesses. Female superintendents have been told to do the following if they desire to be taken seriously (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010, p. 83):

- Talk like men.
- Don’t act feminine.
- Hide emotions.
- Act tough.
- Never let your guard down.
- Wear a dark suit and scarf (read: tie).
- Play hardball.

As mentioned in the Concept of Power subtheme in the Affirming Issues section of this chapter, these statements prove to be problematic. While women who heed this advice may be more likely to be hired, they ultimately are “less likely to last than...other women and all men” (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010 p. 83). Therefore, the advice outlined above is not only inappropriate, it is simply poor counsel. Female leadership outlooks and practices will be explored later, but these practices are not weaknesses nor should they be viewed this way. In fact, Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) point out that “...many men are gravitating towards the same approaches [that are typically attributed to women]” (p. 44).

Gender-bias barriers. Gender bias has been well documented for women, particularly those seeking leadership positions dominated by men. In fact, DiCanio et al. (2016) pointed out that women have been discriminated against for millennia—Aristotle viewed women as defective. While women were three times more likely to report discrimination on their quest to the superintendency (Kowalski et al., 2011), du Plessis (2008) wrote, “Many participants appeared to avoid the topic of gender, preferring to view it as a non-issue” (p. 79). Griggs

(2014) wrote that a respondent in her study did not perceive any gender bias during their experiences in the selection process. While the majority of female leaders in the literature openly affirm gender-bias through cultural norms or social schema (Caceres-Rodriguez, 2011; McMahon et al., 2006), a minority percentage of women have reported that if gender bias did occur, it was not evident to them during their career.

Leadership and Practices of Female Superintendents

As previously mentioned, women lead differently than men (Benham et al., 2005; Collard & Reynolds, 2004; du Plessis, 2008; Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Kowalski et al., 2011; Shakeshaft et al., 2006). Much of the research on female leaders and superintendents compares traits with men and women, while, as recommended by scholars, the field is beginning to more pointedly focus on women as their own population (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Jordan, 2014; Murphy et al., 2007;). The Leadership and Practices of Female Superintendents theme is broken up into two subthemes where outlooks or philosophies will be explored followed by specific practices of female superintendents.

Leadership outlooks. Women primarily view and approach leadership in one of the five following ways (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010):

1. Relational Leadership
2. Leadership for Social Justice
3. Spiritual Leadership
4. Leadership for Learning
5. Balanced Leadership

One can see how some of these outlooks can be viewed as *power with* (feminine) rather than *power over* (masculine) (Collard & Reynolds, 2004). As previously stated, what was once viewed as weak or feminine leadership has become the strength of female superintendents. This is evidenced as these five models or approaches for leadership are becoming increasingly desirable traits in male school superintendents (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010). As the common female outlooks and practices of female superintendents are explored, readers should consider the concept of power as well as how these practices are becoming the expected traits and desired norms for educational leaders.

Benham et al. (2005) stated, “Leadership is relational” (p. 4). Relational leadership creates an environment where people feel valued above programs and buy-in is not a problem to be solved but rather the process of inclusive decision making. This outlook is certainly not top down, and responsibilities are shared for the greater good, bringing about a collective accountability among all stakeholders. Diverse, collective leadership espouses creating open systems to involve the community and stakeholders to participate in shared leadership (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010). This collective outlook shares leadership with individuals and shifts from an “individualized account of leadership” (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010, p. 44). Benham et al. (2005) described relational, collective leadership: “...the group as a whole is a leader just as members within the group can be leaders within the group. Leadership...becomes a shared function of the group” (p. 4). Women “see themselves as working together with those they lead” (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010, p. 46). This statement is the heart of relational leadership.

Leadership for social justice is the hands of female leadership. As this population has long been underrepresented, when a platform of influence is given, women believe it is too big of a responsibility to sit idly and allow injustice to occur. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) identify the purpose of many female superintendents is to “right social wrongs...and to increase support for underserved groups” (p. 90). Interestingly, nearly 50% of female superintendents reported being hired to be a political leader or statesman (Kowalski et al., 2011). Being a political leader is undoubtedly a large part of the superintendency as one is asked to navigate public funds, but the fact that nearly half of women appointed to the position identifying this as a reason why they were hired confirms their role can serve as a potential catalyst for social justice through policy. Blackmore et al. (2006) posited that, for women, educational research should be rethought of as *for* social justice, not simply one aspect of the role.

Spiritual leadership can be seen through respondents in Collins’s (2002) study that described the role of superintendent as a calling and “mission” rather than simply a career or job. Alston (2005) stated, “Many of these women have an unyielding faith and sense of spirituality that enables them to always strive toward excellence” (p. 682). Jones (2003) identified spirituality as the foundation that allows some female superintendents to remain grounded as the difficulties of the superintendency bring about struggles. Another aspect related to spiritual leadership is a servant leadership (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Shakeshaft et al., 2006). Alston (2005) directly tied the two together, “These women...are deeply caring about their mission—to

serve” (p. 682). Leaders employ a servant leadership approach when they seek to serve those with whom they lead, whether through facilitation, collaboration, or motivation. It is the leader’s desire to connect with outside groups and bring groups together. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) pointed out that many women in the superintendency draw out the Latin root of the word administer, that being minister, through their spiritual and servant leadership.

Leadership for learning speaks to many female superintendent’s strengths of pedagogical knowledge and instructional acuity. Grogan and Brunner (2005b) discovered that both men and women believed that women have an advantage over men when it comes to instructional leadership. In fact, women were much more likely to report being hired due to instructional leadership than men, with 74.6% of women identifying this as a factor for appointment compared to men’s 55.2%, respectively. (Kowalski et al., 2011). There are two readily available reasons for this. First, women lead school districts by making decisions about what is optimal for student learning (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010). Second, women have statistically spent a larger percentage of their career in the classroom and are thus more experienced in leadership focused on learning and instruction (Kowalski et al., 2011). This emphasis on instruction and learning is significant in today’s accountability-driven system.

Albert Einstein once said that life is like riding a bicycle. To keep one’s balance, he or she must keep moving. Balanced leadership insists just that—to keep moving forward—and ties directly to this topic as it considers how women leaders work to balance responsibilities at home and work (Shakeshaft, 2006). Many studies have researched how female administrators balance their lives (Coleman, 2002; Dillard, 2006; Mendez-Morse, 2004; Smith-Campbell, 2002). This research on work/life balance is connected with both role commitment and role conflict. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) concluded, “Balanced leadership includes the notion that women are better able to perform their educational responsibilities if they have found ways to manage their home duties as well” (p. 23). Further, they added that this balance allows energy to be poured into both aspects of life. This desire and need for balance is fundamentally significant to this topic.

Leadership practices. These five approaches or philosophies result in certain practices. For example, relational and servant leadership supports a foundational practice common among female superintendents—distributing power and responsibilities. Distributing this leadership emphasizes the “importance of collaboration and interdependen[ce]” (Kowalski et al., 2011, p.

90). Collaboration and interdependence result in the need for accurate and frequent communication with stakeholders (du Plessis, 2008), creating a shared vision that is instruction-focused and child-centered. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) emphasized that women superintendents are particularly attentive listeners to or diverse perspective, leading to an atmosphere that is open to honesty and vulnerability.

Women are also noted to be more interpersonal, authentic, and empathetic in their leadership—some sharing that they have cried with teachers, shared spiritual encouragement, or opened up about hopes, aspirations, and personal topics (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010; Shakeshaft, 2006). Additionally, women have been seen as professionally nurturing, motivating, protective, supportive, and encouraging—many traits that are often associated with a mother (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010). This disposition opens the door to allow colleagues the autonomy to, at times, falter so that growth is a highly valued commodity (Lipman-Blumen, 1996). As mentioned, this “softer” aspect of female leadership has historically been viewed as a weakness. Many women, however, have turned the concept of *power with* into their greatest strength and a highly sought after attribute.

A distributed, collective leadership often creates buy-in when addressing problems requiring a cognitive shift in belief. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) stated, “A cognitive shift provides an opportunity for leaders to change their action plans as a result of understanding the problem better” (p. 55). Female superintendents often have an outsider’s perspective and encourage dissent, input, and feedback from both internal and external stakeholders (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010). Pairing this with a collective outlook, they are able to tackle these required cognitive shifts as they fully understand the implications of problems within their school district. They are able to navigate the dynamics of their constituency and potential solutions, often resulting in broad consensus. At times, though, it results in an outcome that is not the leader’s preference (Shakeshaft et al., 2006). This type of distributed leadership encourages transparency and openness for the sake of the greater good.

Kowalski et al. (2011) stated that 95% of female superintendents frequently or occasionally read educational research, a practice rooted in both leadership for learning and social justice (Shakeshaft, 2006). Regular consumption of research in one’s field unquestionably expands professional knowledge. By itself, the practice improves competence, equips superintendents to handle challenges, and ensures educational leaders are up to date on pertinent

legal and policy issues. This sort of professional drive affirms that women in the superintendency did not achieve the position by accident. Female superintendents often view school as a social movement (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010). They are motivated to be change agents—both educationally and socially. Grogan and Shakeshaft (2010) stated, “Women...are in the job to make change, to create difference, and to disrupt the norm” (p. 90). These women have a passion for social justice and are only satisfied when their leadership has meaning (Grogan & Shakeshaft, 2010, p. 64).

Shakeshaft (2006) stated that whether these specific practices are different from male superintendents or not, female superintendents “...often include a focus on communication, collaboration, teamwork, inclusiveness, and attention to instructional issues” (p. 508). These traits are becoming increasingly desirable to school boards and men who aspire to or are currently superintendents.

Summary

The literature analyzed above focused on female superintendents and pointed out the need for further research on female superintendents in general and, particularly, the balance between these women’s work and life. In doing so, three themes emerged—1) Affirming Issues, 2) Clarifying Misconstructions, and 3) Leadership Practices of Female Superintendents. While affirming the fact that women should not simply be hired due to their gender, some of the research cited called to tear down the system that can subdue female leaders or aspiring leaders (Blount, 1998). As an alternative, this research attempts to start the process of what educators, and particularly educational leaders, are frequently tasked with doing—identifying a problem and creatively finding ways to adapt, resulting in a tangible, meaningful, and reasonable solution. In doing so, the *conspiracy of silence* is no longer muted.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This section will briefly provide an overview of the methodology that was used for the study as well as the research that affirmed the rationale for the design, collection, instrumentation, and analysis that was used.

Female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina were surveyed using three instruments. The Role Conflict Scales were used to quantify role conflict (Holahan & Gilbert, 1978). A role commitment question was posed that clarifies commitments between work and home (Napholz, 1995). A Job Satisfaction Survey was used to create sub-scale scores and a total score, rating overall job satisfaction (Spector, 1994). The participants were solicited via email along with follow up emails that included a reminder and an appreciation statement for their service as female leaders and consideration of participating in the study. Once the results were collected, a multiple regression analysis was run where job satisfaction was treated as the dependent variable and role conflict and role commitment were the independent variables. Howell (2014) stated a multiple regression is the appropriate analysis to run when considering the relationship of two independent variables on one dependent variable, which helped in determining the relationship between the dependent variable and its multiple predictors.

Research Design

A survey design was used in this study. Creswell et al. (2003) stated that in choosing a design to address a research problem, the approach must match the problem. Measuring attitudes or rating behaviors lent itself to a survey design; the analysis of the job satisfaction of female superintendents using quantitative data was supported by the survey design (Creswell et al., 2003). The independent variables for the study were role conflict and role commitment, and the dependent variable was job satisfaction.

Research Questions

The research questions that guided this study were as follows:

- What is the relationship between the job satisfaction and role conflict of female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina?

- What is the relationship between the job satisfaction and role commitment of female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina?
 - What is the relationship between role conflict and role commitment?
 - Is there a statistically significant amount of variance in role conflict, role commitment, or job satisfaction among states?
 - Does role conflict or role commitment have a stronger relationship with job conflict?

Population

The population of the study was female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. All members of the target population were invited to participate in the study. At the time of the study, there were 10 female superintendents in the state of Maryland out of 24 total listed on the department of education website; there were 36 female superintendents in the state of Virginia out of 135 total listed on the department of education website; and in North Carolina 23 out of 116 total listed were women on the department of education website, respectively. All of these women were asked to complete the three portions of the survey questionnaire if applicable, where the maximum N=69.

Instrumentation

Three separate instruments were used for this study, with two of them being surveys. While the aim was to utilize the same instruments as Eckman (2004), the authors of the surveys were unable to be contacted for permission after seeking directory information and reaching out to their previous universities of employment. Therefore, a review of possible instruments was completed, and the following instruments were chosen due to their broad, generic nature and similarity in layout of results to the instruments Eckman (2004) used. These instruments from the field of psychology emerged as most congruent to the needs of this educational research.

The first instrument was a role conflict scale by Holahan and Gilbert (1978) with 34 items, which was used to assess role conflict. It was created to assess situations that occur commonly in married couples' lives. Due to this fact, not all respondents were able to participate in this survey, limiting the usage of the results of their other responses. Participants rated their level of conflict between (1) *causes no internal conflict* to (5) *high internal conflict*. Survey

questions in this instrument included the following aspects of role conflicts: 1) Professional v. Self, 2) Professional v. Parent, 3) Spouse v. Parent, 4) Spouse v. Self, 5) Parent v. Self, and 6) Professional v. Spouse (Beere, 1990). The role conflict scale had been found as valid and reliable with Cronbach alpha coefficients range from .75 – .88 (Holahan & Gilbert, 1978; Beere 1990). In regards to validity, a correlation analysis found that professional women whose careers were briefly interrupted were more likely to experience role conflict, confirming content and predictive validity (Beere 1990). Beere (1990) reported that “the items contributing to each scale are summed to yield six scale scores” which correlated with the listed aspects of role conflicts (p. 380). These sub-scale scores can be compared if they are averaged as they have different numbers of items. Additionally, a summative score can be given, where higher scores represent greater role conflict. A copy of the instrument is found in Appendix A.

Napholz posed a role commitment question (1995), which was the second instrument. Napholz (1995) gave participants three choices in regards to significant relationships being first, work and relationships being equal, and work being first. As in Eckman’s (2004) research, in order to enable the data to be used ordinally, the question was modified to a 5 point Likert-scale from (1) *work being first* to (5) *significant relationships being first*. Napholz’s (1995) role commitment question did not report any alpha level as it is one question that asked those surveyed to state whether work or relationships come are a higher priority. Napholz (1995) wrote, “Role Commitment was a 1-item measure developed by the investigator to *subjectively* identify how one sets priorities for work and relationship roles” (p. 25, italics added).

The third instrument was a job satisfaction survey by Spector (1994) developed for public organizations, nonprofit organizations, and human services; it is a 36 item questionnaire. It should be pointed out that this survey was not created for superintendents specifically, and due to this fact, two subscales had to be given adapted definitions. Its nine facets or subscales had four items each which assess attitudes about and aspects of a job. The facets are 1) Supervision, 2) Operating Procedures, 3) Nature of Work, 4) Promotion, 5) Pay, 6) Fringe Benefits, 7) Contingent Rewards, 8) Coworkers, and 9) Communication. Promotion was noted in the survey as a new position that the respondents would consider more than a lateral move. Supervisor(s) were stated to be understood as school boards. There are six choices per item ranging from (1) *strongly disagree* to (6) *strongly agree*. Questions are written in both directions with around half the questions being done so inversely, so these questions needed to be reverse scored. Spector’s

(1985) job satisfaction survey reported alphas ranging from .60 – .91 (p. 700). Through a multi-trait—multi-method analysis this job satisfaction survey was confirmed both valid for discriminant and convergent validities (1985, p. 701). This was done by running correlations between equivalent subscales. When scoring, higher scores represent greater job satisfaction. The nine facets of the survey produce sub-scores that range from 4 to 24 and a summated total job satisfaction score ranging from 36 to 216. A copy of the instrument can be found in Appendix B. Appendix C includes an overview of the job satisfaction survey.

Data Collection

An online questionnaire with the three instruments was used in order to facilitate the collection of data. They were formatted using Google Forms. Female superintendents were surveyed during the fall of 2016. The names and email addresses of the superintendents were obtained from the Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina Department of Education websites. This list was updated the month the study was approved. Initially, an email was sent to the entire population thanking them for their consideration with a write up acknowledging the importance of women in leadership. Attached in the email was the questionnaire that included the three instruments measuring role conflict, role commitment, and job satisfaction as well as demographic information that included marital status, age bracket, total experience as a superintendent, length in current position, geographic state of employment, and children, if any. The demographic questions are found in Appendix G. Included in the email was a note explaining the study and its voluntary basis, an anonymity statement, and a two-week end date.

One week after sending out the first email, a follow up email was sent reminding these superintendents that they had one week remaining if they wished to be a part of the study. One day before closing the window for responses, one last email was sent to those who had not responded asking that they consider participating. When the end date arrived, a list was compiled to have hand written thank you notes sent to respondents. There was no follow up to inquire why non-respondents did not participate or to compare results of non-respondents and respondents. The response rate will be discussed further in the discussion section in Chapter 5.

Informed Consent

Researchers must seek to *do no harm* when conducting their studies. Informed consent, which is required by the Institutional Review Board (IRB), works toward this end by informing participants of the scope of research, potential risks, rights of participants, benefits respondents may achieve, confidentiality, and an overview of results (Seidman, 2006). Seidman (2006) stated informed consent was the “first step towards minimizing the risks participants face when they agree to be interviewed” (p. 61).

In considering the ethical implications of research, including the well-being and rights of participants, this study took the autonomy, beneficence, and justice of respondents into account as recommended by the National Commission for the protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research (1979). The aforementioned protections were submitted to the IRB and presented to potential respondents before they participated in the study along with a description of the study. In order to access the survey instruments, participants were required to sign their names recognizing the informed consent and the scope, risks, respondent’s rights, participant’s benefits, and confidentiality of the study. Before submitting their surveys, the participants confirmed a receipt of consent acknowledging they were given notice of their informed consent. This statement can be found in Appendix D.

Data Management

All data received from respondents was kept digitally secure via password protection. This ensured the data was not tampered with, adjusted, or manipulated in any way. Additionally, once the analysis was run in SPSS, the results were kept secure digitally with password protection.

Data Analysis

This study addressed role conflict and role commitment, considering their relationship with the job satisfaction of female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina. The data analysis mirrors Eckman’s (2004) research methodology on secondary principals. Demographic information including marital status, age bracket, total experience as a superintendent, length in current position, geographic state of employment, and children, if any, was also included. Marital status of female superintendents was included in this research to

determine if nationwide figures were congruent with that of the states included in this study as well as to discern if there was a difference in the job satisfaction of married and non-married female superintendents.

According to Howell's (2014) decision tree, a multiple regression is called for when considering the relationship of two independent variables on a dependent variable. This multiple regression was run with the alpha level of .05. In order to avoid multicollinearity where predictors are redundant, a Pearson correlation was run between the two independent variables before the analysis, clarifying the relationship between these two. The knowledge of the relationship between independent variables allowed to control for one independent variable while examining the other relationship. An analysis of variance was run to answer the sub-questions that investigate the variability of scores from among the three states.

The role commitment question was one question using a Likert-type answer. This independent variable was examined nominally when completing the multiple regression analysis. The role conflict scale required 34 responses, and the job satisfaction survey had 36 items. Both were considered ordinal data as they receive a sum score with greater values implying greater conflict and job satisfaction, respectively.

Subscales were examined to determine areas that caused the most and least conflict among female superintendents as well as which aspects of their jobs caused the most or least satisfaction. The role conflict subscales included 1) Professional v. Self, 2) Professional v. Parent, 3) Spouse v. Parent, 4) Spouse v. Self, 5) Parent v. Self, and 6) Professional v. Spouse. The job satisfaction subscales included 1) Pay, 2) Promotion, 3) Supervision, 4) Fringe Benefits, 5) Contingent Rewards, 6) Operating Conditions, 7) Coworkers, 8) Nature of Work, and 9) Communication.

The multiple regression was executed with job satisfaction as the dependent variable in order to determine the relationship between the dependent variable and its multiple predictors, which were role conflict and role commitment. Standardized regression coefficients were analyzed in order to determine the relative importance of both independent variables. This also resulted in a reported R^2 in order which defined effect size and the amount of variance in job satisfaction that could be attributed to the independent variable. Additionally, any extreme residuals were investigated. Once this analysis was completed, the results were summarized and presented in a written document.

CHAPTER 4 FINDINGS

This chapter will provide an overview of the findings according to the stated research questions. Demographic and descriptive data will be reported before comparing subscales. Ultimately the data analysis of the relationship among variables will be investigated.

Demographic Analysis

Of the population (N=69), 34 female superintendents responded to the survey from Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina for a response rate of 49%. Figure 4.1 provides a breakdown of total participation percentage by state, with 18 respondents from Virginia, 12 from North Carolina, and 4 from Maryland. This amounts to 52% of female superintendents in North Carolina, 50% of the female superintendents in Virginia, and 40% of the female superintendents in Maryland.

In which state do you work? (34 responses)

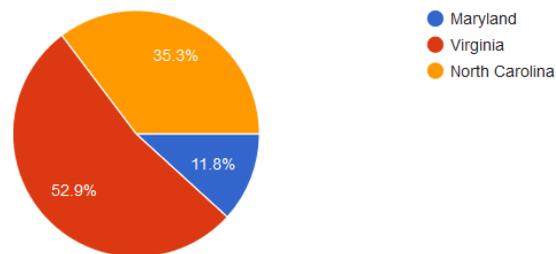


Figure 4.1. State representation.

Figure 4.2 provides the marital status of respondents, where nearly 82% or 27 of the respondents were married. Approximately 12% of respondents were divorced. Two of these respondents completed the role conflict survey while two abstained. Around 6% or 2 respondents were single.

What is your marital status? (33 responses)

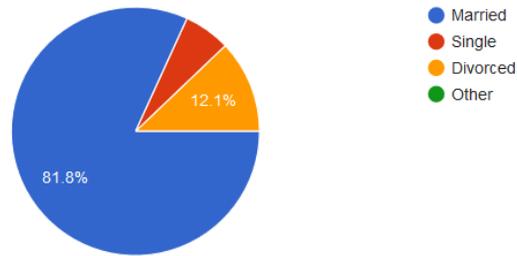


Figure 4.2. Marital status.

In regards to experience, the majority of respondents had fewer than 5 years of experience. This group represented 82%, with 41% with fewer than 2 years of experience and 41% having 2-5 years of experience. Three respondents represented around 9% that had 5-10 years of experience, and 2 respondents or 6% had greater than 10 years of experience. One respondent was an interim superintendent. Total experience can be seen below in Figure 4.3. Figure 4.4 shows the length of employment in current position in which these superintendents found themselves. This demographic breakdown was split more evenly, with 14.7% or 5 respondents being in their position for greater than five years, 29% or 10 respondents holding their position for 3-5 years, 29% or 10 respondents holding their position 1-3 years, and around 27% or 9 respondents holding their position for less than 1 year, respectively.

What is your experience as a superintendent? (34 responses)

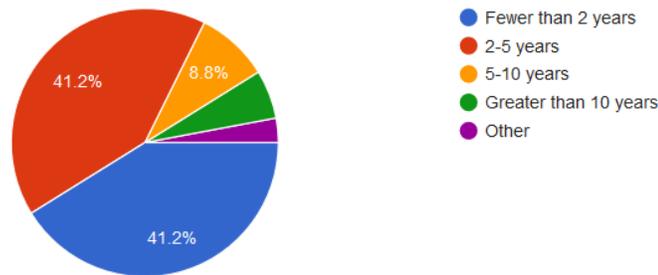


Figure 4.3. Total experience.

How long have you been in your current position? (34 responses)

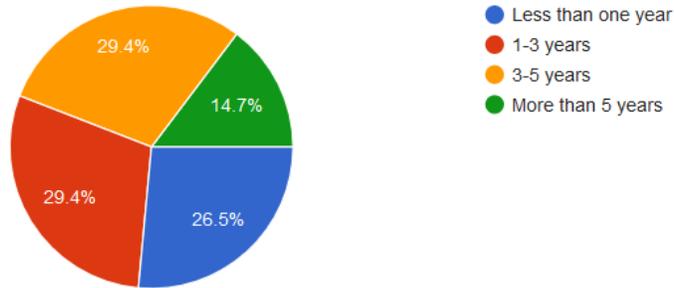


Figure 4.4. Length of employment in current position.

The demographic data that may have the most impact on the outcomes and implications of the study appear in the age ranges of respondents and age of children figures. Figure 4.5 provides the age ranges of respondents, with around 56% of respondents being older than 50, 35% of respondents within the 46-50 range, and nearly 9% representing the 41-45 age bracket. No women were 40 or younger. Additionally, around 77% of respondents with children had offspring that were beyond high school. Around 18% of respondents had no children, while 4 respondents made up around 12% of the sample with children in either middle or high school. Only one respondent had children in elementary school, amounting to about 3% of respondents. This breakdown can be seen in Figure 4.6. Of the five respondents who had children at home, one was in the top 3 scores for job satisfaction, one was in the bottom 4 for job satisfaction scores, and the other three were in near the middle, with scores of 120, 141, 158, 168, and 196, respectively.

Choose your age bracket. (34 responses)

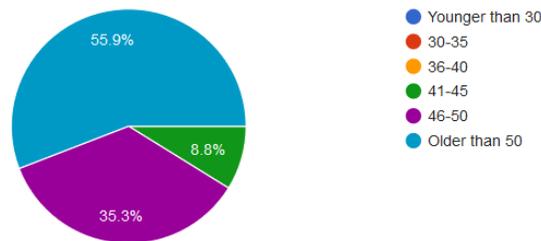


Figure 4.5. Age ranges of respondents.

If you have children, how old are they? (34 responses)

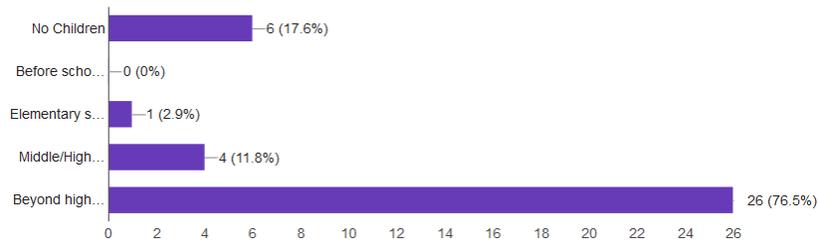


Figure 4.6. Age of children.

Descriptive Data

Overall, the majority of respondents accounting for around 63% of the sample felt little to no overall role conflict within their life. Exactly 20% or 6 respondents felt no conflict, while around 43% felt little role conflict. The next highest percentage reported was around 27% or 8 respondents who indicated an intermediate level of role conflict. Around 7% or 2 respondents indicated some role conflict, while 1 respondent comprising around 3% noted high role conflict. Figure 4.7 shows a positive skewness to the question that inquired about overall role conflict.

34) In general, how much total role conflict do you experience? (30 responses)

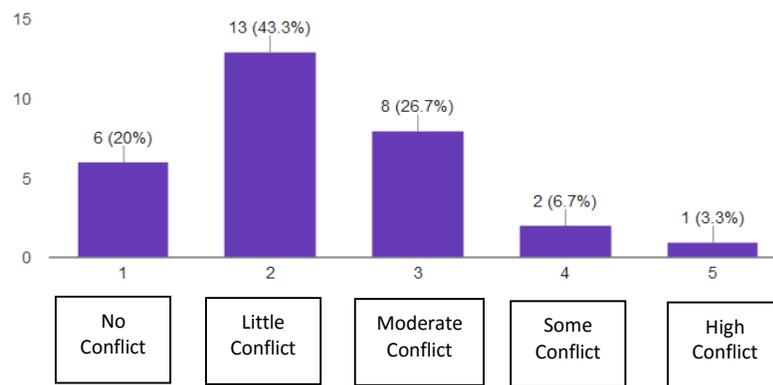


Figure 4.7. Overall role conflict.

Similarly, figure 4.8 shows a positive skewness for overall role commitment, with more respondents indicating that they prioritize important relationships first than those who prioritize work first or work and important relationships equally. Around 39% of respondents indicated they are more committed to important relationships than they are to work. Those who selected “1” or “2” were combined to indicate they were more committed to relationships than work

when running any analysis, where N=13. In the middle, 10 respondents made up 29% indicated they prioritize work and important relationships equally. Approximately 32% or 11 respondents indicated they prioritized work first. Those who selected “4” or “5” were combined to indicate they were more committed to work than important relationships when running the analysis, where N=11.

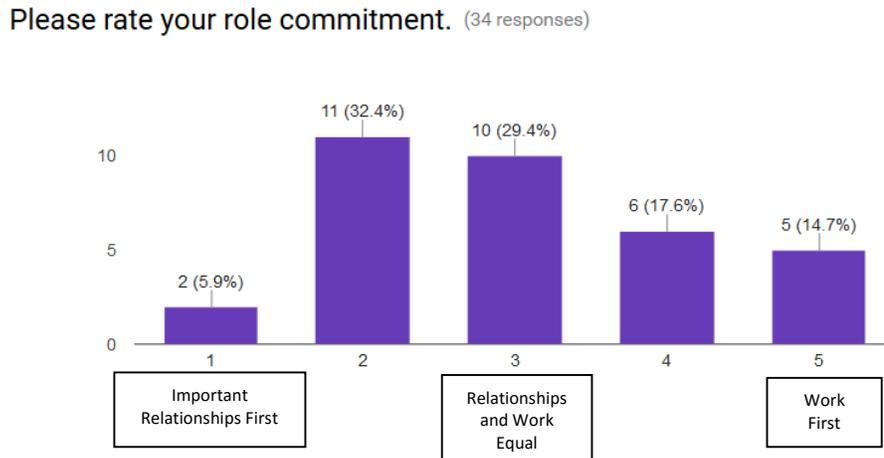


Figure 4.8. Overall role commitment.

Anecdotally, the four respondents whose scores indicated the highest level of role conflict indicated “work first” in their role commitment while four of the five respondents whose scores indicated the lowest level of role conflict indicated “relationships first” in their role commitment, with the fifth noting an equal commitment to work and relationships.

Subscale Comparison

The job satisfaction subscales include pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of work, and communication. The role conflict subscales include professional vs. self, professional vs. parent, spouse vs. parent, parent vs. self, professional vs. spouse, spouse vs. self. The mean of the job satisfaction subscales can be compared to determine which aspects are more or less satisfying; similarly, the mean of the role conflict subscales can be compared to identify which aspects bring cause more or less internal conflict.

Job Satisfaction. The job satisfaction subscales are seen in Table 4.1. They were calculated by finding the mean of all subscale sums. The discussion below considers both the

means as well as the standard deviations in order to determine which subscales promote the greatest job satisfaction.

Table 4.1

Job Satisfaction Subscales

<i>Job Satisfaction Subscales</i>	
Nature of Work	21.06
Coworkers	19.85
Communication	19.55
Supervision	18.03
Fringe Benefits	17.61
Mean (μ)	17.46
Contingent Rewards	16.61
Promotion	15.49
Pay	14.67
Operating Conditions	14.30

Among these subscales, $\mu = 17.463$; Fringe Benefits is closest to this mean, making it most anemic in regards to impacting job satisfaction. As $\sigma = 2.39$, this indicates that *Coworkers* is very close to one standard deviation above the mean and *Nature of Work* is comfortably beyond one standard deviation—both are strong sources of job satisfaction for female superintendents. On the other hand, *Pay* and *Operating Conditions* both yield results beyond one standard deviation lower than the mean, indicating they are the weakest sources of job satisfaction.

Role conflict. The role conflict subscales are seen in Table 4.2. They were calculated by finding the mean for each subscale.

Table 4.2

Role Conflict Subscales

<i>Role Conflict Subscales</i>	
Professional vs. Self	2.39
Professional vs. Spouse	2.05
Professional vs. Parent	1.96
Mean (μ)	1.93
Parent vs. Self	1.9
Spouse vs. Self	1.75
Spouse vs. Parent	1.55

Among these subscales the mean is between two role conflict factors, where $\mu = 1.933$; *Professional vs. Parent* and *Parent vs. Self* are nearest to this mean, making them the least likely indicators to positively or negatively impact overall role conflict scores. As $\sigma = .284$, *Professional vs. Self* is the only facet of role conflict that is beyond one standard deviation above the mean. On the other hand, *Spouse vs. Parent* is the only indicator below one standard deviation from the mean, making it the weakest indicator of internal role conflict.

Relationships among Variables

A Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient was computed to assess the relationship between role conflict and role commitment; the same analysis was computed to ascertain the relationship between job satisfaction and role conflict as well as determining the relationship between job satisfaction and role commitment.

A Pearson correlation between role conflict and role commitment produced a correlation of $R = .451$. This moderate correlation is relatively strong for social sciences, and was significant with an alpha level of $p < .05$, where $p = .016$. From this result, it can be reasoned that role conflict does vary with role commitment, where higher conflict scores increase with higher role commitment scores. With an effect size of $R^2 = .204$, it can be determined that around 20% of the variance found in role commitment can be attributed to role conflict and vice versa.

Table 4.3

Correlation between Role Conflict and Role Commitment

		ROLECONFLI CT	ROLECOMMI TMENT
ROLECONFLICT	Pearson Correlation	1	.451*
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.016
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	21272.964	284.393
	Covariance	787.888	10.533
	N	28	28
ROLECOMMITMENT	Pearson Correlation	.451*	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.016	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	284.393	23.882
	Covariance	10.533	.724
	N	28	34

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

For role conflict and job satisfaction, there was a negative correlation that was not statistically significant with an alpha level of $p < .05$, where $R = -.096$, $p = .628$. This indicates that the relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction are not statistically significant.

Table 4.4

Correlation between Role Conflict and Job Satisfaction

		ROLECONFLI CT	JOBSATISFA CTION
ROLECONFLICT	Pearson Correlation	1	-.096
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.628
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	21272.964	-1761.036
	Covariance	787.888	-65.224
	N	28	28
JOBSATISFACTION	Pearson Correlation	-.096	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.628	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	-1761.036	21236.265
	Covariance	-65.224	643.523
	N	28	34

Six respondents did not complete the role conflict scale as they did not have children, were not married, were divorced, or some combination of these factors. This resulted in a greater N value available for the role commitment and job satisfaction scales. The Pearson R was run twice, once including and once excluding these respondents. When excluding respondents who did not fill out all survey instruments completely, role commitment and job satisfaction had no statistically significant relationship with an alpha level of $p < .05$, where $R = -.076$, $n = 28$, $p = .701$. Similarly, when including all available respondent responses for the two variables, role commitment and job satisfaction had no statistically significant relationship with an alpha level of $p < .05$, where $R = .018$, $n = 34$, $p = .920$.

Table 4.5

Correlation between Role Commitment and Job Satisfaction

		Correlations	
		JOBSATISFA CTION	ROLECOMMI TMENT
JOBSATISFACTION	Pearson Correlation	1	.018
	Sig. (2-tailed)		.920
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	21236.265	12.706
	Covariance	643.523	.385
	N	34	34
ROLECOMMITMENT	Pearson Correlation	.018	1
	Sig. (2-tailed)	.920	
	Sum of Squares and Cross-products	12.706	23.882
	Covariance	.385	.724
	N	34	34

While neither independent variables, role conflict and role commitment, have a statistically significant relationship with job satisfaction, role conflict does have a negligibly stronger, negative relationship with job satisfaction, where $R = -.096$ and $R = .018$, respectively. Similarly, when controlling for both of the independent variables that had a relatively strong relationship and looking at their correlation with job satisfaction, both remained insignificant statistically, where Role Conflict and Job Satisfaction produced $R = -.069$, and Role Commitment and Job satisfaction produced $R = -.037$, respectively.

The multiple regression analysis and ANOVA were used to determine if a combination of the independent variables could be predictors for, accounted for variability in, or had a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable. Using an alpha level at the $p < .05$, it can be reasoned that the regression coefficient for both independent variables is not significantly different than zero, where Role Conflict reported $R = .733$, and Role Commitment reported $r = .854$. Neither variable is a significant predictor of Job Satisfaction. Additionally, these predictor variables do not account for a significant amount of variance in the criterion variable Job Satisfaction; $F(2, 25) = .133, p = .876, R^2 = .011$. The standardized regression coefficients that determine relative importance affirm the negligible relationship the independent variables have with the dependent variable, with Role Conflict's negative relationship being slightly stronger than Role Commitment's negative relationship with Job Satisfaction.

Table 4.6

Multiple Regression and ANOVA among All Variables

Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.103 ^a	.011	-.069	25.123

a. Predictors: (Constant), ROLECOMMITMENT, ROLECONFLICT

ANOVA^a

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	167.719	2	83.859	.133	.876 ^b
	Residual	15779.246	25	631.170		
	Total	15946.964	27			

a. Dependent Variable: JOBSATISFACTION

b. Predictors: (Constant), ROLECOMMITMENT, ROLECONFLICT

Coefficients^a

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.
		B	Std. Error	Beta		
1	(Constant)	162.118	15.588		10.400	.000
	ROLECONFLICT	-.067	.193	-.077	-.345	.733
	ROLECOMMITMENT	-1.214	6.514	-.042	-.186	.854

a. Dependent Variable: JOBSATISFACTION

There was also no significance in variance among the variables by state, where Role Conflict $F = 56, p = .578$; Role Commitment $F = .14, p = .870$; and Job Satisfaction $F = .4, p = .674$.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND DISCUSSION

Summary

When considering the research questions and hypotheses, the research hypothesis for this study was that female superintendents who had greater internal role conflict would be less satisfied with their job. This was not found to be the case as there was no statistically significant relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction. Additionally, the research hypothesis stated that women who were more committed to either work or home would be more satisfied within their role as a superintendent; this, too, was not affirmed as there was no statistically significant relationship between role commitment and job satisfaction for female superintendents. Finally, when combining the two independent variables of role conflict and role commitment, there is no statistically significant relationship between them and the dependent variable, job satisfaction. Therefore, this research fails to reject the null hypothesis, which states that female superintendent's role conflict and role commitment have no statistically significant relationship with their job satisfaction.

Similarly, two of the three sub-questions that drove the study failed to produce statistically significant variance or relationships among variables. There was a negligibly stronger relationship between role conflict and job satisfaction than between role commitment and job satisfaction. Both of these independent variables can be understood as having virtually no correlation or relationship with the dependent variable, job satisfaction. Additionally, there was no statistically significant variance among states in relation to job satisfaction, role conflict, or role commitment.

The one research sub-question that starkly stood out was the relationship between the two independent variables, role conflict and role commitment. This statistically significant relationship was positive and fairly significant when considering the nature of social sciences such as education, where $R = .451$ with an effect size of $R^2 = .204$, which supports the fact that around 20% of the variance in role conflict can be attributed to role commitment and 20% of variance in role commitment can be attributed to role conflict.

Conclusion

One cannot affirmatively answer the two main research questions about role conflict and role commitment's relationship with overall job satisfaction. In regards to the sub-question regarding the relationship between role conflict and role commitment, however, it can be reasoned that this statistically significant relationship supports that school districts continue to have a human resources issue. As school boards are managers of human capital, they do not want employees who are more committed to work having greater internal role conflict as this would lead to an overall less effective and productive employee. This is the major conclusion developed as a result of this study. Human capital managers should seek the overall well-being of employees, and one's commitment to her job ought not negatively impact her internal role conflict and likely lead to poorer performance.

Figures in this study regarding experience and turnover were consistent with Glass and Franceschini's (2006) findings that placed turnover for superintendents between 14-16% and had the tenure of superintendents averaging 5-6 years. Around 82% of respondents had less than 5 years of total experience, while around 15% or 5 respondents had been in their current position for more than 5 years. The 5 respondents who have surpassed the average tenure likely found a school district with a mutually supportive and beneficial work environment fostered by their school board investing and engaging them personally. The "political wrangling" a respondent mentioned overlaps with the *Operating Conditions* in which female superintendents find least satisfying. This sort of potentially toxic environment that some find themselves in is not what female superintendents are passionate about—the nature of their work—providing instructional excellence in the education they seek to provide each child within their school district.

Implications for Practice

While the total number of respondents in this survey did not support generalizability, some implications of this research are transferrable to other female superintendents. As aspiring female superintendents are a primary target for the practical implications of this research, three messages to aspirants are noted. First, aspirants should not place undue pressure on themselves to prioritize work above important relationships. Second, aspirants should understand that their work as educational leaders will likely continue to be rewarding, though operating conditions and political wrangling may detract from overall job satisfaction. Finally, aspirants should know

that with the intensity of demands that will be placed on them, their professionalism versus self is the facet that will likely cause internal role conflict; therefore, it is essential to prioritize caring for their own health and well-being.

Additionally, school boards would be wise to carefully consider including a question about how aspiring superintendents prioritize their commitments and find a healthy work/life balance when interviewing. It is important to note, however, that this line of inquiry must be broad and non-specific as narrow questions about marital status, number of children, or family situations could easily be considered discriminatory. An appropriate sample question could be: “Being a superintendent places substantial demands on an individual; it is often a stressful position. If you were hired as the superintendent of this school district, how would you balance these demands with the every-day burdens of your non-work life? How have you sought to create a healthy work/life balance in your previous work experiences?” School boards also should contemplate ongoing ways of supporting female superintendents in their endeavor to find a healthy work/life balance. This will look different in varying contexts, but could include following up to this interview question in superintendent evaluations, providing additional leave specifically designated to help achieve this work/life balance, or appointing a board member to follow up on and support a healthy work/life balance quarterly are advisable.

Discussion

It is important for social science researchers to only draw conclusions that are supported by the data, though it is imperative to pursue and discuss possible explanations for outcomes that were either affirmed or unanticipated. The most surprising result of this study was that no significant relationship was found with the independent variables, role conflict and role commitment, and the dependent variable, job satisfaction as there were with secondary principals in the Midwest, both male and female (Eckman, 2004). This is likely due to the fact that the overall satisfaction of respondents was overwhelmingly positive, affirming Kowalski’s (2011) findings. Job satisfaction scores had the potential to range from 36-216, with the median being 126. Of the 34 respondents, only 11.8% or 4 female superintendents’ results were below this median. The five lowest job satisfaction summed scores were 126, 120, 120, 115, and 107, and the five highest job satisfaction summed scores were 207, 202, 196, 195, and 182, respectively. To put this into perspective by looking at the different ends of the range, the highest reported

score is closer to perfect job satisfaction than the lowest score is to the median. Because nearly all the respondents were moderately or very satisfied with their job, role conflict or role commitment would not have a statistically significant relationship with the dependent variable due to relative low variability within the job satisfaction scores.

Around 91% of respondents were 46 or older, with only approximately 15% of these female superintendents having children in age brackets that required them to be at home. To break this down further, around 3% or 1 respondent had an elementary-aged child or children and approximately 12% or 4 respondents had a child or children of middle or high school age. The remaining approximately 85% were at a stage in their life that did not require the demand of having a dependent child living at home. This has significant implications when one considers the ages of novice superintendents, as seen in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1
Ages of New Superintendents by Gender

<i>Age as novice superintendent</i>	Male %	Female %
Less than 36	16.4	4.4
36-40	19.4	9.1
41-45	20.5	17.1
46-50	23.1	28.6
51-55	15.2	26.5
56-60	4.7	12.0
61 or more	0.7	2.3

Source: Kowalski et al., p. 96, 2011

As this table affirms, more women become superintendents later in life than men. A possible explanation will be further discussed in the *Respondent Comments* section below, but it is important to note that Kowalski et al.’s (2011) findings were affirmed that support the fact that female superintendents are typically hired later than men—at a stage both in life and in their career that does not require as much at home in regards to rearing children.

The positive, relatively strong relationship between role conflict and role commitment means that higher conflict scores correlate with higher role commitment scores. This is worth exploring further as the implications were not anticipated. It was posited that those who were more committed to work *or* relationships first would have less conflict. A higher role commitment score means that a respondent felt greater internal conflict. The role commitment score was a trichotomous variable, where the highest score of 3 indicated a commitment to work first. To simplify, those more committed to work had higher internal role conflict while those more committed to important relationships had less internal role conflict. This is profound when one considers research such as Reecks-Rodgers' that emphasizes the importance of having a healthy outlook to achieve work/life balance for female superintendents (2013). This data-point is one of the key findings of this research that indicates it is healthier in regards to internal conflict for female superintendents to place important relationships before work.

Respondent comments. At the end of the survey, respondents were given the opportunity to write an open-ended answer to the question—*Is there any additional information you feel would be pertinent to the study or you would like me to be aware of?* While the majority of respondents did not reply, those who did provided insight that added substance and texture to the study. They ranged from basic statements inquiring about how to attain a copy of the study's findings to stating simply, "I enjoy my job." The respondents who did provide input pointedly got to the foundation of the need for this study, addressing issues about life stage, relationships, concept of power, and the political nature of a superintendent's job.

In regards to children and life stage one respondent stated, "Questions were difficult or not applicable since my children are grown and I am at the top of my career." Another respondent emphasized the demand of the job:

This job does require a significant amount of time. It is a twenty-four hour a day job.

Most educators acquire this role later in their career when their children are grown and they have the time to focus [on] the education of the students in their community.

This statement affirms one of the subthemes that re-emerged from the literature, *Balancing Work and Family*, capturing both the nonstop demand placed on superintendents and the desire or need to delay pursuing the position until one's stage in life aligns with the personal and professional freedom and flexibility that it requires. This, however, should not completely be assumed to be

causal or even an influential factor for all respondents. Another respondent pointedly stated that, for her, the decision to pursue the superintendency was delayed due to the desire to balance work and family:

My responses are reflective of my current stage in life. I delayed pursuing a superintendency to avoid the many areas of conflict your questions addressed. I will be interested to read the conclusions of your study.

This respondent's statement succinctly posits a reasonable, transferrable explanation for the lack of relationship between independent variables and dependent variables as well as the relationship between role conflict and role commitment. Job satisfaction *would* have been impacted by role conflict and role commitment had this respondent not wisely identified that and deferred her quest for the position.

Balancing relationships emerged as an aspect of female superintendents' lives that was difficult, though. As mentioned above, finding a way to prioritize these relationships is vital. One respondent transparently stated:

I also saw that your survey addressed relationships. My job as superintendent came after divorce, but my divorce was certainly a result of my devotion to work. This is interesting research.

This idea about a relationship ending in divorce due to one's devotion to work is certainly not exclusive to education or administration, but it affirms it as a significant issue for female superintendents. Female superintendents are over twice as likely to be divorced than male superintendents, where 8.8% of female and 3.7% of male superintendents are divorced, respectively (Kowalski et al., 2011). While previous research had found husbands of female superintendents as broadly supportive (du Plessis, 2008; Reecks-Rodgers, 2013), one superintendent acknowledged a way that she was able to fulfill her role as a superintendent while spending time with her husband:

I am very fortunate in the aspect my husband is also an educator so many of the sporting functions I attend, he attends with me.

Further, the subtheme *Concept of Power* from the literature section re-emerged when a respondent stated:

Because many women are raised to be seen and not heard, present but not adversarial, and not seen to be capable of strong leadership, it is challenging for women to obtain superintendent positions. The bias against women leaders is real and significant in many communities.

Gender bias was intentionally not an area this study sought to tackle, but it, too, resurfaced in this respondent’s comment as it continues to be a factor for females in educational leadership. Table 5.2 shows that the discrepancy between perceived discrimination or gender bias remains as an area worth studying.

Table 5.2
Perceived Discrimination by Gender

<i>Encountered discrimination</i>	Male %	Female %
Yes	13.2	45.4
No	83.2	48.6

Source: Kowalski et al., p. 98, 2011

Kowalski et al. (2011) found that women are in between three and four times more likely than men to report encountering discrimination in their pursuit of the superintendency.

Finally, a comment was made about the political aspect of the superintendency when a respondent stated, “The job of a superintendent is increasingly more difficult and fraught with political wrangling.” The respondents in this study were unmistakably passionate about the work they did and enjoyed their colleagues as the subscale comparison showed *Nature of Work* and *Coworkers* as the two factors connected with the greatest job satisfaction. Conversely, *Operating Conditions* was the factor which received the lowest job satisfaction rating. While the increasingly difficult political aspects of the job are certainly not unique to a female superintendent’s experience, this ever-increasing demand may be one reason that *Operating Conditions* received the lowest subscale score for the Job Satisfaction Survey as the red tape and

political aspect of the superintendency produces the lowest satisfaction within the position among the female superintendents in this study.

Connection to literature. The findings of this study tie nicely into the body of research on female superintendents and their job satisfaction, role commitment, and role conflict. Specifically, a number of figures or conclusions from this research align with the three themes in the review of literatures—*Affirming Issues*, *Clarifying Misconstructions*, and *Leadership and Practices of Female Superintendents*. This research supports one of the clarified misconstructions that female superintendents are broadly satisfied as Kowalski et al. (2011) found. Further, the raw percentages represented from each of the three states analyzed affirm an overall growth in proportional representation of female superintendents in two of the three states studied, where women make up 42% of superintendents in Maryland, 27% of superintendents in Virginia, and 20% of superintendents in North Carolina, respectively. Additionally, while a greater number of women are qualified in regards to certification, education, and experience (Dana & Bourisaw, 2006; Grogan and Shakeshaft, 2010; Kowalski et al., 2011), respondents pointed out that some women feel they must intentionally defer their pursuit of the superintendency in order to maintain a healthy work/life or work/family balance. Finally, one respondent unknowingly identified concept of power as a contributing factor in her experience and quest toward becoming a superintendent.

This study also takes one more step toward answering the issue of limited research on female superintendents as it speaks to their perceptions, outlooks, and beliefs. Many women have proven to be effective, qualified instructional leaders when given the opportunity to lead school districts. This population needs to continue to be researched by itself so that issues are addressed directly and misconstructions can be clarified through hard, statistical analysis. In addition, studies should be completed comparing results with male superintendents so that comparisons can be drawn on whether experiences are universal or impacted by gender.

Study concerns. One concern for this study is the relatively small sample and population size. Additionally, the sample size did not meet expectations for the anticipated response rate, preventing generalizations from being made—data collected can only be applied to respondents. There are a number of possibilities for this, though it is the belief of the author that demands placed on non-respondents made them feel too busy to participate in something they did not consider to be required. Due to this, one could suggest that the statistical analysis of

this study lacks the rigor to draw meaningful conclusions. The overall number of responses (N=34) and useable surveys (N=28) as well as the population as a whole (N=69) could unquestionably be strengthened with greater numbers. This, however, can be combated by pointing out the strong, significant relationship found among the independent variables. While the analysis provided above produced clear results both finding a statistically significant relationship and a lack of relationships, greater numbers in regards to response rates and total figures would bolster the statistical rigor of this or future studies within the same topic of research. Additionally, the descriptive data, subscale comparisons, and respondent comments provide clarity, affirmation, and substance to the statistical analyses.

Multicollinearity also proved to be a problem in this study. Because of the relatively strong relationship between the independent variables, little new information was added when the multiple regression analysis was run. This creates a problem as the way in which the independent variables interact with the dependent variable are redundant. In his statistics text book, Howell (2014) strongly advises researchers to avoid using highly correlated or even moderately correlated independent variables when possible.

Some may also take issue with the conclusion that stated those superintendents more committed to work had higher internal role conflict while those more committed to important relationships had less internal role conflict, indicating it is healthier in regards to internal conflict for female superintendents to place important relationships before work. This statement is one of the few in this study that can be affirmatively stated due to statistical analysis. In regards to the statement about health, the comment speaks only to internal role conflict and not overall health or well-being. It is not an attempt to qualify, judge, or recommend how female superintendents should prioritize their work/life balance, but rather it speaks to how role commitments impact role conflict.

Recommendations for further study. Looking forward, there are many areas in which this research could be extended. It is recommended that future studies inspect the following:

- Expand to more states within a region for larger population/sample size.
- Look at and/or compare varying regions.
 - Researchers could consider different factors such as social dynamics within different regions.

- Use/create instruments designed for superintendents/school administrators rather than using broad a broad job satisfaction survey.
- Further pursue the relationship between role conflict and role commitment.
 - Pursue information specifically about work/life balance.
 - Pursue qualitative research to add substance to quantitative data.
- Perform studies that compare responses of male and female superintendents.
- Examine perceptions and nature of marital relationships of superintendents.

Reflections

This study was both interesting and engaging as it was completed outside the typical sphere of researchers who usually participate in gender-related research. Particularly in this time period and where the United States is currently in regards to issue of gender equality, egalitarianism, and conflicting world views, the researcher is appreciative for the opportunity to have participated in research that contributed to the ongoing discussion taking place broadly in society. All people have innate value and dignity regardless of gender—and everyone should be treated accordingly. This is not to say there are not differences among men and women; to fail to acknowledge that would be a mistake in this researcher’s opinions. The results of this research point to reason for optimism as representation for female superintendents is increasing, job satisfaction is broadly on par with the total population of superintendents, and concrete, productive conclusions can be drawn in the form of addressing human resource and work/life balance issues.

REFERENCES

- Alston, J. A. (2005). Tempered radicals and servant leaders: Black females persevering in the superintendency. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 41(4), 675-688.
- Andrews, R., & Grogan, M. (2002). Defining preparation and professional development for the future. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 38(2), 233-256.
- Beere, C. A. (1990). *Gender roles: A handbook of tests and measures*. Santa Barbara, CA: Greenwood Publishing Group.
- Benham, M. K. (2005). Leadership and school quality: Bringing out the best. *Government, Assessment, and Accountability in the United States: A Primer for Chinese Educational Leaders*, 116.
- Björk, L. G., & Keedy, J. L. (2001). Changing social context of education in the United States: Social justice and the superintendency. *Journal of In-Service Education*, 27(3), 405-428.
- Blackmore, J., & Wright, J. (2006). The quality agenda and some issues for educational research and researchers: An introductory essay. *Counterpoints on the quality and impact of educational research: Review of Australian research in education*, 1-18.
- Blount, J. M. (1998). *Destined to rule the schools: Women and the superintendency, 1873-1995*. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.
- Brunner, C. C. (2004) Contributing writer. *Leadership gender and culture in education*. Columbus, OH: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Brunner, C., & Grogan, M. (2005b, February). Women leading systems. *The School Administrator*, 62(2), 46-50.
- Brunner, C. C., & Grogan, M. (2007). *Women leading school systems: Uncommon roads to fulfillment*. Boulder, CO: Rowman & Littlefield Education.
- Brunner, C. C., & Kim, Y. L. (2010). Are women prepared to be school superintendents? An essay on the myths and misunderstandings. *Journal of Research on Leadership Education*, 5(8), 276-309.
- Buechel Haack, A. (2010). *Beating the odds---women who achieved the superintendency a phenomenological study*. (Doctoral dissertation, Marian University).

- Caceres-Rodriguez, R. (2011). The glass ceiling revisited: Moving beyond discrimination in the study of gender in public organizations. *Administration & Society*. doi: 0095399711429104
- Coleman, M. (2002). *Women as headteachers: Striking the balance*. London, UK: Trentham Books.
- Collard, J., & Reynolds, C. (2004). *Leadership gender and culture in education*. Columbus, OH: McGraw-Hill Education.
- Collins, P. L. (2002). *Females of color who have served as superintendent: Their journeys to the superintendency and perceptions of the office*. (Doctoral dissertation, Seton Hall University).
- Chambers, J. M. (1999). The job satisfaction of managerial and executive women: Revisiting the assumptions. *Journal of Education for Business*, 75(2), 69-74.
- Crain, W. M. (2009). *Volatile states: Institutions, policy, and the performance of American state economies*. Ann Arbor, MI: University of Michigan Press.
- Creswell, J. W., Gutmann, M. L., Hanson, W. E., & Plano-Clark, V. L., (2003). Advanced mixed methods research designs. *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research*, 209-240.
- Dana, J. A., & Bourisaw, D. M. (2006). *Women in the superintendency: Discarded leadership*. Boulder, CO: Rowman & Littlefield Education.
- DiCanio, D., Ferrantino, A., Hunter, T. N., Oakdale, N. Y., Rodney, N. G. C., Schilling, L., & Tatum, S. (2016). The glass maze and predictors for successful avigation to the top seat to the superintendency. *AASA Journal of Scholarship & Practice*, 12(4), 66-86.
- Dillard, C. B. (2006). *On spiritual strivings*. Albany, NY: SUNY Press.
- Duffy, B. (2013). Viewpoint: 'My' generation: shared experiences shape individual values and attitudes. *International Journal of Market Research*, 55(4), 2-4.
- du Plessis, S. B. (2008). *Leadership practices of women superintendents: A qualitative study*. (Doctoral dissertation, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University).
- Dwyer, C. A., Fox, L. H., Grayson, D. A., Klein, S. S., Kramarae, C., Pollard, D. S., & Richardson, B. (Eds.). (2014). *Handbook for achieving gender equity through education*. New York, NY: Routledge Publishing.

- Eckman, E. W. (2004). Similarities and differences in role conflict, role commitment, and job satisfaction for female and male high school principals. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40(3), 366-387.
- Evans, L. (1997). *Teacher morale, job satisfaction and motivation*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage Publications.
- Foley, B. J. (2015). *Breaking barriers to achieve the superintendency*. (Doctoral Dissertation, University of Southern Maine).
- Fowler, F. C. (2009). *Policy studies for educational leaders: An introduction*. Boston, MA: Allyn & Bacon—Pearson Publishing.
- Gilbert, L. A., & Holahan, C. K. (1978). *Interrole conflict for dual career couples: The effects of gender and parenthood*. Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, Toronto, Canada.
- Griggs, S. E. (2014). *Career pathways of female superintendents: Perceived barriers and supports*. (Doctoral dissertation, The Pennsylvania State University).
- Grogan, M. (2005). Echoing their ancestors, women lead school districts in the United States. *Educational Administration and Supervision*, 33(2), 21-30.
- Grogan, M., & Shakeshaft, C. (2010). *Women and educational leadership*, 10. Charlottesville, VA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Harris, S., Hopson, M., Lowery, S., & Marshall, R. (2004). Superintendent perceptions of motivators and inhibitors for the superintendency. *Planning and Changing*, 35(1/2), 108.
- Howell, D. C. (2014). *Fundamental statistics for the behavioral sciences*. Scarborough, ON, Canada: Nelson Education.
- Hunter, T. N. (2013). *A Comparison of male and female assistant superintendents and their descriptions of internal barriers, external barriers, motivators, stressors, and discriminatory acts they anticipate encountering on the route to the superintendency*. (Doctoral dissertation, Dowling College).
- Jones, S. N. (2003). *The praxis of Black female educational leadership from a systems thinking perspective*. (Doctoral dissertation, Bowling Green State University).
- Jordan, A. J. (2014). *Beneath the glass ceiling: What causes some qualified female educators to remain in the classroom while others obtain leadership roles?* (Doctoral dissertation, Lynchburg College).

- Kowalski, T. J., McCord, R. S., Peterson, G. J., Young, P. I., & Ellerson, N. M. (2011). *The American school superintendent: 2010 decennial study*. Boulder, CO; Rowman and Littlefield Education.
- Lipman-Blumen, J. (2006). *The allure of toxic leaders: Why we follow destructive bosses and corrupt politicians-and how we can survive them*. Oxford University Press, USA.
- McMahon, M., Limerick, B., Cranston, N., & Andersen, C. (2006). Going up? Women in the public sector. *Career Development International*, 11(7), 609-618.
- McNay, L. (2013). *Foucault and feminism: Power, gender and the self*. Charlottesville, VA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Méndez-Morse, S. (2004). Constructing mentors: Latina educational leaders' role models and mentors. *Educational Administration Quarterly*, 40(4), 561-590.
- Murphy, J., Elliott, S. N., Goldring, E., & Porter, A. C. (2007). Leadership for learning: A research-based model and taxonomy of behaviors 1. *School Leadership and Management*, 27(2), 179-201.
- Napholz, L. (1995). Indexes of psychological well-being and role commitment among working women. *Journal of Employment Counseling*, 32(1), 22-31.
- National Commission. (1979). National Commission for the Protection of Human Subjects of Biomedical and Behavioral Research. *Report and Recommendations: Research Involving Children*.
- Reecks-Rodgers, D. A. (2013). *Challenges, not barriers: The work and family issues of women superintendents*. (Doctoral dissertation, Teachers College, Columbia University).
- Seidman, I. E. (2006). *Interviewing as qualitative research: A guide for researchers in education and the social sciences (3rd ed.)*. New York, NY: Teachers College Press.
- Shakeshaft, C., Skelton, C., Francis, B., & Smulyan, L. (2006). *The Sage handbook of gender and education*. Thousand Oaks, CA: SAGE Publications.
- Shakeshaft, C., Brown, G., Irby, B. J., Grogan, M., & Ballenger, J. (2007). Increasing gender equity in educational leadership. *Handbook for Achieving Gender Equity Through Education*, 2, 103-129.
- Sharp, W. L., Malone, B. G., Walter, J. K., & Supley, M. L. (2004). A three-state study of female superintendents. *Educational Research Quarterly*, 27(3), 22-37.

- Siegle, D. (n.d.). Educational research basics. Retrieved from <http://researchbasics.education.uconn.edu/>
- Smith-Campbell, S.I. (2002). *Exploring the world of black women middle school principals* (Doctoral dissertation, Michigan State University).
- Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the job satisfaction survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 13*(6), 693-713.
- Spector, P. E. (1994). *Job Satisfaction Survey, (JSS)*. Tampa, FL: University of South Florida.
- Sutton, C. M. (2008). Status of superintendent pipeline. *School Administrator, 65*(4), 21.
- Tallerico, M. (1999). Women and the superintendency: What do we really know. *Sacred Dreams: Women and the Superintendency, 29-48*.
- Vogel, B. E. (1985). Economic agendas and sex-typing in teaching. *Contemporary Education, 57*(1), 16.
- Wilson, M. C. (2006). *Closing the leadership gap: Why women can and must help run the world*. New York, NY: Penguin Group USA.

APPENDIX A

ROLE CONFLICT SCALE

Role Conflict Scales

Listed below are situations that commonly occur in the lives of married couples. We are interested in knowing the degree of internal conflict within yourself that each of these particular situations poses for you, at this time or stage of your life. Please use the following five-point scale to indicate, in your opinion, how much internal conflict each of the following situations presently poses for you. If a situation is not applicable to you, circle na.

	1 causes no internal conflict	2 slight internal conflict	3 some internal conflict	4 moderate internal conflict	5 high internal conflict	
PRSP	1	2	3	4	5	na (1) Putting yourself first in terms of your work versus your spouse putting himself first in terms of his work.
PRSF	1	2	3	4	5	na (2) Wanting to be recognized at a high level in terms of your work versus wanting to maximize your personal development.
PRPA	1	2	3	4	5	na (3) Supporting your child's recreational activities versus spending time on your career development.
SPPA	1	2	3	4	5	na (4) Taking a long vacation with only your spouse versus being with your child.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na (5) Your need for time with your spouse versus your spouse's need for time with you.
SPSF	1	2	3	4	5	na (6) Attending social functions that support your spouse's career versus attending functions congruent with your own interests.
PASF	1	2	3	4	5	na (7) Giving priority to your family versus giving priority to yourself.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na (8) Feeling that your spouse would be unable to function and keep himself together if he did not succeed career-wise versus wanting to put yourself first career-wise.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na (9) Wanting to advance career-wise versus wanting to have a family.
PRPA	1	2	3	4	5	na (10) Spending most evenings on work-related activities versus spending most evenings with your family.
SPSF	1	2	3	4	5	na (11) Entertaining the colleagues of your spouse versus using your recreational time for your own needs.

	1 causes no internal conflict	2 slight internal conflict	3 some internal conflict	4 moderate internal conflict	5 high internal conflict		
PASF	1	2	3	4	5	na	(12) Devoting recreational time to yourself versus devoting recreational time to your child.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na	(13) Handling household management yourself versus feeling that your spouse should share household responsibilities.
PASF	1	2	3	4	5	na	(14) Wanting to be alone versus your child wanting to be with you.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na	(15) Your attitudes in regard to extramarital relationships versus your spouse's attitudes in regard to extramarital relationships.
PRSP	1	2	3	4	5	na	(16) Feeling it is more important for your spouse to succeed in his work versus feeling it is more important for you to succeed in your work.
SPPA	1	2	3	4	5	na	(17) Hiring a child-care person so that you and your spouse can have uninterrupted time together versus being with your child.
SPSF	1	2	3	4	5	na	(18) The life style you prefer versus the life style preferred by your spouse.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na	(19) Feeling an overload in household responsibilities versus not trusting others to perform them.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na	(20) Taking responsibility for the needs of your child versus wanting your spouse to take more responsibility in this area.
SPPA	1	2	3	4	5	na	(21) Spending prime time developing and maintaining the relationship with your spouse versus spending prime time developing and maintaining the relationship with your child.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na	(22) Taking a vacation by yourself versus taking a vacation with your spouse.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na	(23) Leaving a satisfying work environment because of your spouse's career aspirations versus staying in this environment despite your spouse's career aspirations.

	1 causes no internal conflict	2 slight internal conflict	3 some internal conflict	4 moderate internal conflict	5 high internal conflict	
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na (24) Spending time with your spouse versus spending time with your colleagues.
SPSF	1	2	3	4	5	na (25) Wanting your spouse to participate in household management versus your spouse wanting to devote his time to his own career development.
PRSP	1	2	3	4	5	na (26) Wanting to devote time to your work versus your spouse wanting you to spend time with him.
PRSF	1	2	3	4	5	na (27) Letting your work consume nearly all your time and energy versus devoting time to the development of outside interests.
PRPA	1	2	3	4	5	na (28) Your child's requesting that you stay home with him or her versus your following the routine of your usual work schedule.
PRSP	1	2	3	4	5	na (29) Wanting to be a "good" spouse versus being unwilling to risk taking the time from your work.
PRPA	1	2	3	4	5	na (30) Devoting a large percentage of your time to the raising of your family versus devoting a large percentage of your time to your work.
PRSF	1	2	3	4	5	na (31) Advancing your career goals versus developing meaningful relationships.
PRSF	1	2	3	4	5	na (32) Doing what you know you need to do to advance in your work versus doing what you would prefer to do in your work.
filler	1	2	3	4	5	na (33) Feeling burdened from child care responsibilities versus not trusting others to perform them.
overall stress	1	2	3	4	5	na (34) In general, how much total role conflict do you experience? (1 = no conflict, 5 = extremely high conflict)

© Lucia A. Gilbert and Carole K. Holahan

Ref.: Human Relations (1979) 3216, 451-467.

APPENDIX B
JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY

JOB SATISFACTION SURVEY Paul E. Spector Department of Psychology University of South Florida Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.							
PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly		
1	I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.	1	2	3	4	5	6
2	There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
3	My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
4	I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
5	When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.	1	2	3	4	5	6
6	Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.	1	2	3	4	5	6
7	I like the people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6
8	I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.	1	2	3	4	5	6
9	Communications seem good within this organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
10	Raises are too few and far between.	1	2	3	4	5	6
11	Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.	1	2	3	4	5	6
12	My supervisor is unfair to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
13	The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.	1	2	3	4	5	6
14	I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.	1	2	3	4	5	6
15	My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.	1	2	3	4	5	6
16	I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.	1	2	3	4	5	6

<p>PLEASE CIRCLE THE ONE NUMBER FOR EACH QUESTION THAT COMES CLOSEST TO REFLECTING YOUR OPINION ABOUT IT.</p> <p>Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved.</p>		Disagree very much	Disagree moderately	Disagree slightly	Agree slightly	Agree moderately	Agree very much
17	I like doing the things I do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
18	The goals of this organization are not clear to me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
19	I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.	1	2	3	4	5	6
20	People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.	1	2	3	4	5	6
21	My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.	1	2	3	4	5	6
22	The benefit package we have is equitable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
23	There are few rewards for those who work here.	1	2	3	4	5	6
24	I have too much to do at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
25	I enjoy my coworkers.	1	2	3	4	5	6
26	I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.	1	2	3	4	5	6
27	I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.	1	2	3	4	5	6
28	I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.	1	2	3	4	5	6
29	There are benefits we do not have which we should have.	1	2	3	4	5	6
30	I like my supervisor.	1	2	3	4	5	6
31	I have too much paperwork.	1	2	3	4	5	6
32	I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.	1	2	3	4	5	6
33	I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.	1	2	3	4	5	6
34	There is too much bickering and fighting at work.	1	2	3	4	5	6
35	My job is enjoyable.	1	2	3	4	5	6
36	Work assignments are not fully explained.	1	2	3	4	5	6

APPENDIX C
JOB SATISFACTION OVERVIEW

Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS

Paul E. Spector

The Job Satisfaction Survey, JSS is a 36 item, nine facet scale to assess employee attitudes about the job and aspects of the job. Each facet is assessed with four items, and a total score is computed from all items. A summated rating scale format is used, with six choices per item ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Items are written in both directions, so about half must be reverse scored. The nine facets are Pay, Promotion, Supervision, Fringe Benefits, Contingent Rewards (performance based rewards), Operating Procedures (required rules and procedures), Coworkers, Nature of Work, and Communication. Although the JSS was originally developed for use in human service organizations, it is applicable to all organizations. The norms provided on this website include a wide range of organization types in both private and public sector.

Below are internal consistency reliabilities (coefficient alpha), based on a sample of 2,870.

Scale	Alpha	Description
Pay	.75	Pay and remuneration
Promotion	.73	Promotion opportunities
Supervision	.82	Immediate supervisor
Fringe Benefits	.73	Monetary and nonmonetary fringe benefits
Contingent Rewards	.76	Appreciation, recognition, and rewards for good work
Operating Procedures	.62	Operating policies and procedures
Coworkers	.60	People you work with
Nature of Work	.78	Job tasks themselves
Communication	.71	Communication within the organization
Total	.91	Total of all facets

For more information about the development and psychometric properties of the JSS, consult the following sources:

Spector, P. E. (1985). Measurement of human service staff satisfaction: Development of the Job Satisfaction Survey. *American Journal of Community Psychology, 13*, 693-713.

Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

The JSS is provided free for noncommercial educational and research purposes.

Job Satisfaction Survey, copyright Paul E. Spector, 1994, All rights reserved.

October 8, 2001

APPENDIX D
INFORMED CONSENT STATEMENT

Thank you for your consideration to participate in this study. In order to ensure that the research *does no harm*, informed consent is required. This informed consent includes a summary and scope of the research, potential risks, rights of participants, benefits respondents may achieve, confidentiality, and an overview of results.

- Summary of research—This study considers the relationship between the job satisfaction, role conflict, and role commitment of female superintendents and is being completed as a dissertation at Virginia Tech. Role conflict can be understood as how conflicted one is between work and home, while role commitment can be understood as how committed one is to work first, home first, or both equally. Along with analyzing the relationship among these variables, variance by state or other notable demographics may be included.
- Scope of research—Female superintendents in Maryland, Virginia, and North Carolina will be included. Participants will be asked to complete one survey/questionnaire assessing job satisfaction, role conflict, and role commitment.
- Potential risks—There are no foreseeable or expected risks. There may be unknown risks.
- Rights of participants—The decision to participate in this study is entirely optional. Participants have the right to withdraw or inquire about the status of the study without repercussion at any time. This decision will not result in any loss of benefit to which participants may receive. Participants have the right to not answer demographic questions; however, incomplete surveys may not be used. Should participants have any questions or wish to withdraw, they can contact the researcher via email at gforrest@vt.edu.
- Benefits respondents may achieve—Participants will aid in answering the call for research regarding female superintendents in two ways. First, researchers on this topic have called for studies to analyze female administrators specifically rather than compare women to men—this study accomplishes that. Second, researchers have called for studies to consider not only the professional issues but also the personal issues that are difficult for female leaders. These benefit the participants in better understanding their own work/family dynamics as well as providing mentees with valuable information.
- Confidentiality—The records of this study will be kept strictly confidential. Research records will be kept electronically using password protection. Information will not be reported in a way that makes any participants identifiable.
- Overview of results—Participants will be sent a summary of the findings once the study is completed.

Your signature indicates you have reviewed and understand the aforementioned informed consent.

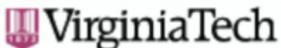
Name

Digital Signature

Date

APPENDIX E

IRB APPROVAL



Office of Research Compliance
Institutional Review Board
North End Center, Suite 4120, Virginia Tech
300 Turner Street NW
Blacksburg, Virginia 24061
540/231-4606 Fax 540/231-0959
email irb@vt.edu
website <http://www.irb.vt.edu>

MEMORANDUM

DATE: November 11, 2016
TO: Glen I Earthman, Gregory Lee Forrest
FROM: Virginia Tech Institutional Review Board (FWA00000572, expires January 29, 2021)
PROTOCOL TITLE: Dissertation: Female Superintendent's Job Satisfaction - Role Conflict and Role Commitment
IRB NUMBER: 16-973

Effective November 11, 2016, the Virginia Tech Institution Review Board (IRB) Chair, David M Moore, approved the New Application request for the above-mentioned research protocol.

This approval provides permission to begin the human subject activities outlined in the IRB-approved protocol and supporting documents.

Plans to deviate from the approved protocol and/or supporting documents must be submitted to the IRB as an amendment request and approved by the IRB prior to the implementation of any changes, regardless of how minor, except where necessary to eliminate apparent immediate hazards to the subjects. Report within 5 business days to the IRB any injuries or other unanticipated or adverse events involving risks or harms to human research subjects or others.

All investigators (listed above) are required to comply with the researcher requirements outlined at: <http://www.irb.vt.edu/pages/responsibilities.htm>

(Please review responsibilities before the commencement of your research.)

PROTOCOL INFORMATION:

Approved As: **Exempt, under 45 CFR 46.110 category(ies) 2,4**
Protocol Approval Date: **November 11, 2016**
Protocol Expiration Date: **N/A**
Continuing Review Due Date*: **N/A**

*Date a Continuing Review application is due to the IRB office if human subject activities covered under this protocol, including data analysis, are to continue beyond the Protocol Expiration Date.

FEDERALLY FUNDED RESEARCH REQUIREMENTS:

Per federal regulations, 45 CFR 46.103(f), the IRB is required to compare all federally funded grant proposals/work statements to the IRB protocol(s) which cover the human research activities included in the proposal / work statement before funds are released. Note that this requirement does not apply to Exempt and Interim IRB protocols, or grants for which VT is not the primary awardee.

The table on the following page indicates whether grant proposals are related to this IRB protocol, and which of the listed proposals, if any, have been compared to this IRB protocol, if required.

Invent the Future

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY
An equal opportunity, affirmative action institution

APPENDIX F

COPYRIGHT PERMISSION LETTERS

Spector, Paul <pspector@usf.edu>

6/27/16 ★  

to me ▾

Dear Greg:

You have my permission for noncommercial research/teaching use of the JSS. You can find copies of the scale in the original English and several other languages, as well as details about the scale's development and norms in the Scales section of my website (link below). I allow free use for noncommercial research and teaching purposes in return for sharing of results. This includes student theses and dissertations, as well as other student research projects. Copies of the scale can be reproduced in a thesis or dissertation as long as the copyright notice is included, "Copyright Paul E. Spector 1994, All rights reserved." Results can be shared by providing an e-copy of a published or unpublished research report (e.g., a dissertation). You also have permission to translate the JSS into another language under the same conditions in addition to sharing a copy of the translation with me. Be sure to include the copyright statement, as well as credit the person who did the translation with the year.

Thank you for your interest in the JSS, and good luck with your research.

Best,

Paul Spector, Distinguished Professor
Department of Psychology
PCD 4118
University of South Florida
Tampa, FL 33620
[813-974-0357](tel:813-974-0357)
pspector [at symbol] [usf.edu](mailto:pspector@usf.edu)
<http://shell.cas.usf.edu/~spector>

From: Gregory Forrest [mailto:gforrest@vt.edu]
Sent: Monday, June 27, 2016 3:14 PM
To: Spector, Paul <pspector@usf.edu>
Subject: Instrument

Lucia Gilbert <lgilbert@scu.edu>

4/18/15 ★  

to me ▾

Dear Greg,

Thank you for your email. Yes, you have permission to use my role conflict scale for your dissertation. Best of luck in undertaking what looks like an important study.

Sincerely,
Lucia Gilbert

Lucia Albino Gilbert, Ph.D.
Professor of Psychology
Santa Clara University Santa Clara, CA 95053
[408.510.0885](tel:408.510.0885) (phone)

APPENDIX G
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS

Demographic Information

Most of these demographic questions are optional but have the potential to provide additional insight into circumstances that impact job satisfaction.

1. In which state do you work?
 - a. Maryland
 - b. Virginia
 - c. North Carolina
 2. What is your marital status?
 - a. Married
 - b. Single
 - c. Divorced
 - d. Other
 3. What is your experience as a superintendent?*
- a. Fewer than 2 years
- b. 2-5 years
- c. 5-10 years
- d. Greater than 10 years
- e. Other
4. How long have you been in your current position?
 - a. Less than one year
 - b. 1-3 years
 - c. 3-5 years
 - d. More than 5 years
5. If you have children, how old are they? (This question allowed multiple selections)
 - a. No children
 - b. Before school age
 - c. Elementary school age
 - d. Middle/High school age
 - e. Beyond high school age
6. Choose your age bracket.
 - a. Younger than 30
 - b. 30-35
 - c. 36-40
 - d. 41-45
 - e. 46-50
 - f. Older than 50

*Indicates required question.