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A Quantitative Methods Examination of the Relationship between Student Academic Performance and the Race and Gender of School Administrators

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A Quantitative Methods Examination of the Relationship between Student Academic Performance and the Race and Gender of School Administrators

by

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Dr. Tammy Moore, Dissertation Chair — 04/28/2023 Date

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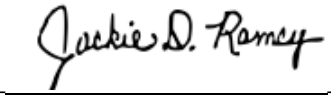

Dr. Jackie D. Ramey, Committee Member — 04/28/2023 Date

Declaration of Originality

I do hereby declare and attest to the fact that this is an original study based solely upon my own scholarly work here at Lindenwood University and that I have not submitted it for any other college or university course or degree here or elsewhere.

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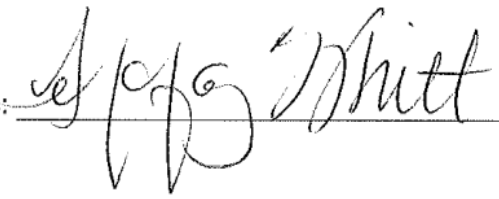
Signature:  Date: 04/28/2023

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Abstract

This quantitative methods study identified and tested research-based constructs of school administrators' race and gender compared to discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. This study aimed to address inequities in educational practices, policies, and systems that directly impact student academic success in schools. The quantitative analyses included statistical ANOVAs and *t*-tests that examined a convenience sample of 68 elementary school administrators' annual accountability data from 68 Missouri urban elementary schools. To determine differences between the gender and race of school administrators and discipline, attendance, and student proficiency, the researcher examined secondary data from the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2022) from the 2016 through 2017 school year.

ANOVA Test analyses showed that there was a difference between student attendance for White Male and Black male, Black Female, and White Female Administrators, with White Male administrators having a significantly higher attendance rate. The results also revealed that White Male Below basic proficiency was significantly lower than Black Male, Black Female, and White Female Administrators.

The researcher ascertained that the literature review did not align with the findings from the ANOVAs and *t*-tests. The literature review revealed educational inequities that impacted annual accountability assessments and reports. Previous studies did not include the examination of elementary school leaders in Missouri's urban schools. The researcher recommended further research to examine differences in school

administrators' leadership style, educational equity, and teacher quality as synthesized in the study and their impact on discipline, attendance, and student achievement.

Keywords: leadership style, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, instructional leadership, student academic achievement, school administrators, student discipline, student attendance, student proficiency

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter One: Introduction

Introduction

The role of a school administrator in public schools has existed for many decades; however, the job duties have evolved over time. Some of the changes were brought about by the sociopolitical landscape (Vishwaroop, 2002). School administrators have been tasked with the responsibility of bringing about changes that influence student academic achievement (Vishwaroop, 2002). The various changes in the last millennium have updated the operations of school administrators in an educational instruction. According to Vishwaroop (2002), the processes that created a freely functioning ecosystem for educational institutes included:

- Planning
- Organizing
- Directing
- Coordinating
- Controlling
- Evaluating (Vishwaroop, 2022).

Although the tasks of school administrators varied, empirical studies showed that effective schools are led by effective school administrators (Louis et al., 2010).

Educational leadership preparation programs focused on courses, such as ethics, finances, law, and curriculum and instruction. Feuerstein (2013) stated that school administrators should focus more on business and corporate operations and organizational management and less on instruction. According to a study done by Kowalski (2008), educators responded stating that educational leadership preparation

programs should focus on necessary skills that provide an adequate knowledge base for those that lead schools.

There has been an interest in leadership styles, whether leading in the educational sector or business industries. The preliminary work of leadership styles was discussed in a study by Burns (1978) and redefined by Bass (1985) and Bass and Avolio (2004). The leadership styles that each study focused on were transformational, instructional, and transactional leadership styes.

According to Bass and Riggio (2006), transformational leaders have a shared vision, led with inspiration, and empowered their followers to grow personally and professionally to help the organization reach their goals. Instructional leaders are guided by a vision that places an emphasis on student learning (Healy, 2009). Transactional leaders led with an exchange between the leader and the followers in order to accomplish a task (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016). According to Bass (1985), school administrators' leadership styles are linked to student academic achievement.

The gender and race of school administrators was another topic of interest in the educational field. According to Henderson (2020), school districts across the nation have discussed the importance of racial and gender diversity among school administrators, yet a study conducted between 2011 and 2012 showed only 20% of school administrators were Black. These inequities have existed, despite an emphasis on culturally responsive pedagogy and an increasingly diverse teacher workforce (Henderson, 2022).

Educational inequities are one of many issues that hindered the academic growth and progress of students, which contributed to the achievement gap (Kamm, 2018). Previous research suggested that inconsistent educational equity was a barrier for

students. Educational equity is established when policies, systems, and practices in schools are addressed that directly impact the experience, outcomes, and access to resources from previously excluded groups (Fields, 2021). School administrators are critical components to the effectiveness of the school environment (Theoharis, 2008). Clifford et al. (2012) stated that leadership style and relationships could directly and indirectly impact student academic achievement. Researchers, such as Grissom and Loeb (2011) linked school administrator's skill set to student academic achievement. Their study indicated that school administrators with strong organizational management skills had greater student academic gains. Further research by Grissom et al. (2013) showed that school administrators that spent more time on instructional leadership, including evaluating and coaching teachers, had greater student academic gains. Additional factors showed that school administrator's tenure was significant to student academic achievement (Brockmeier et al., 2013). The research indicated that school administrators had a pivotal role in student academic achievement.

Rationale of the Study

The researcher examined a breadth of literature to seek a relationship between the gender and race of school administrators and student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. The researcher reviewed literature on the race and gender of school administrators and how that influenced their style of leadership and linked to student academic achievement. The researcher collected state accountability data to determine the relationship between the race and gender of school administrators and student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. As a practicing school administrator,

the researcher sought to determine various methods that support student academic achievement.

According to Clifford et al. (2012), school administrators directly impacted student achievement through teacher quality, school conditions, and instructional quality. Additionally, Bass (1985) thought that when school administrators used a transformational leadership style, it transformed the culture, and improved staff, and student performance. The 1985 study provided evidence that linked school administrators and student achievement. Furthermore, according to Dinham and Scott (1998), schools that had satisfied teachers had students who performed better on standardized tests. Teacher satisfaction is linked to effective school administration. There were no current studies that investigated differences of annual state accountability data according to race and gender of urban, midwestern school administrators.

Purpose of Study

The purpose of this research study was to determine differences in student annual state reported discipline, attendance, and academic achievement and the gender and race of school administrators. The researcher examined the differences between the gender and race of school administrators compared to the discipline occurrences, attendance rates, and academic achievement of students from urban schools in Missouri. The researcher collected secondary data from the Missouri Department of Elementary and Secondary Education database (2022) that provided demographics regarding campus administrators and state accountability measures of proficiency-school report card data for the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Additionally, the researcher examined prior studies that focused on the effects of school administrators on student performance, the influence of school administrators on student outcomes, the importance of principal leadership, and the relationship between student proficiency and the gender and race of administrators (Cruickshank, 2017). The research conducted by Cruickshank (2017) determined that a relationship existed between the race and gender of school administrators and student proficiency.

This research focused on school administrators' gender and race, student discipline, attendance, and proficiency data. The researcher investigated leadership styles of school administrators who experienced substantial gains in students' academic achievement in comparison to those who did not (Bass, 1985; Northouse, 2004). The researchers, Bass (1985) and Northouse (2004), also examined the gender and race of administrators and whether this impacted discipline, attendance, and student proficiency. The evidence stated that school administrators influenced the academic achievement of students (Edmonds, 1979; Leithwood et al., 2004; & Marzano et al., 2005). Furthermore, the research indicated that the leadership style of school administrators impacted the students directly and indirectly (Clifford et al., 2012). A dearth of research existed that linked the race and gender of school administrators to student academic achievement.

Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Definition of Terms

Academic achievement - According to Steinmayr et al. (2014), academic achievement represents performance outcomes that indicate the extent to which a person has accomplished goals that were the focus of activities in instructional environments, specifically in schools, colleges, and universities.

Achievement gap - According to National Center for Education Statistics (2022), achievement gaps occur when one group of students outperforms another group (e.g., students grouped by race/ethnicity, gender) and the difference in average scores for the two groups is statistically significant.

Educational Equity - According to Fields (2021), educational equity creates and/or eliminates policies, systems, and practices in schools that impact the experiences, outcomes, and access to resources for students from previously excluded groups.

Instructional Leadership - According to Choi and Gil (2017), instructional leadership is demonstrated when the administration team aids to change, introduce or align teachers' pedagogical practices. The focus is on student academic progress of students, creating clear goals, planning the curriculum, and evaluating the quality of teachers and their teaching.

Leadership styles - According to the CFI Team (2022), leadership styles refer to the behavioral approach employed by leaders to influence, motivate, and direct their followers. Leadership styles also determine how leaders implement plans and strategies to accomplish given objectives while accounting for stakeholders' expectations and the wellbeing and soundness of their team.

Transactional Leadership - This term was coined by Burns (1978), defining this style of leadership as one focused on the relationship between leader and followers; giving something expecting a return.

Transformational Leadership - According to Cherry (2023), the goals of transformational leader originally coined by Burns (1978) are to inspire growth, promote loyalty and instill confidence in group members. Transformational leadership focuses on school culture and vision to enhance the quality of teaching and learning, develop staff, and improve the organization.

Study Limitations

Limitations may exist with most academic research. The limitations of this study included variables that were out of control of the researcher with possible ramifications on the study's outcome. The sample population only included data from 68 urban elementary schools in the State of Missouri. These 68 urban elementary schools were the only schools in the midwestern region of Missouri that had administrators that served in their role at the same school for two consecutive years. The researcher collected discipline, attendance, and proficiency data from the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2022) using data only from the 2016 through 2017 school year. The researcher found that the 2016 through 2017 school year included full data in

discipline, attendance, and academics for the sample population. The subsequent years had incomplete data due to consequences of COVID-19. Therefore, the researcher relied on the data from the 2016 through 2017 school year to determine the relationship between the race and gender of school administrators and student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. The research sought 80 urban elementary schools that had 20 Black Male administrators, 20 White Male administrators, 20 Black Female Administrators and 20 White Female Administrators. There were only eight urban elementary schools with Black Male administrators. The researcher did not use data from rural or suburban schools, due to limited diversity among school administrators. Finally, the researcher did not include other races in the study, because there were not enough urban elementary schools in the database that included school administrators of different races. Though there was a variety of research on leadership style, there was limited research that linked the race and gender of school administrators and student academic achievement.

Sample Demographics

The researcher analyzed data from urban elementary schools in the State of Missouri. The data categories were based on the gender and race of the school administrators to determine the difference between student discipline, attendance, and proficiency data. The researcher sought 20 schools for each category: Black Male administrators, White Male administrators, Black Female Administrators, and White Female Administrators that served in their roles for two consecutive years at their buildings. The researcher accessed the National Center for Education Statistics database (NCES, Home Page, 2023) to find 80 urban elementary schools to meet the category

requirements for the research. The researcher found 20 urban elementary schools that had Black Female and White Female Administrators. Additionally, the researcher found 20 urban elementary schools with White Male administrators; however, one school had to be eliminated from the study that evaluated attendance, because there were no attendance data during the 2016 through 2017 school year. There were only eight urban elementary schools in Missouri with Black Male administrators. The researcher only used data from urban elementary schools in Missouri during the 2016 through 2017 school year, because this was the only year that included complete data prior to COVID.

Instruments

The researcher used Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) tests to compare the difference between the gender and race of school administrators and student discipline data, the gender and race of school administrators and student attendance data, and the gender and race of school administrators and the student Missouri Assessment Proficiency (MAP) data. The researcher also conducted *t*-tests to compare differences between the gender of school administrators and student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. The researcher did separate *t*-tests to evaluate differences between the race of school administrators and discipline data, attendance data, and proficiency data from the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine if a difference existed between the gender and race of school administrators and student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. The researcher focused on urban elementary schools in the State of Missouri and compared gender, race, and combinations of race and gender variables and

their students annual state assessment and report data. The data revealed that there was a difference. In Chapter Two, the researcher discussed how race and gender can impact student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. The literature review revealed barriers and suggested best practices that influenced student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. This study discussed the three main leadership styles that were used by school administrators, the race and gender of school administrators, and the link to their specific leadership style. Chapter Three discusses the methodology, Chapter Four reveals the results from the data collection and tests, and Chapter Five discusses the results and recommendations for future studies.

Chapter Two: Review of Literature

Chapter Two was organized based on the literature that pertains to this dissertation study. It provided a detailed review of existing literature about school administrators leadership style, the race and gender of school administrators and the links to different leadership styles and how leadership style, race, and gender impact student academic achievement. This chapter begins with a review of leadership theories and focuses on three styles of leadership of school administrators. The next section reviews gender and race of school administrators and their link to specific leadership styles. The literature review then focuses on school administrators' direct and indirect impacts on student academic achievement. The final section reviews school administrators' leadership styles' effects on student academic achievement, discipline, and attendance.

Dimensions of Leadership Styles

Leadership is a concept studied and researched across many domains including the business and educational sectors. Writers and researchers in the educational field have studied different forms of leadership styles of school administrators over many centuries. The empirical studies revealed that a variety of leadership styles had been used to address issues within the school and bring about change (Bass, 1985). Robinson and Gray (2019) and Shen et al. (2019) stated that there are two ways to conceptualize school administrators' leadership by focusing on certain types of leadership theories (e.g., transformational leadership, instructional leadership, and transactional leadership). The second way that principal leadership can be conceptualized is through the identification of leadership by identifying behaviors and traits, such as race and gender that affect student academic achievement.

Leadership Styles

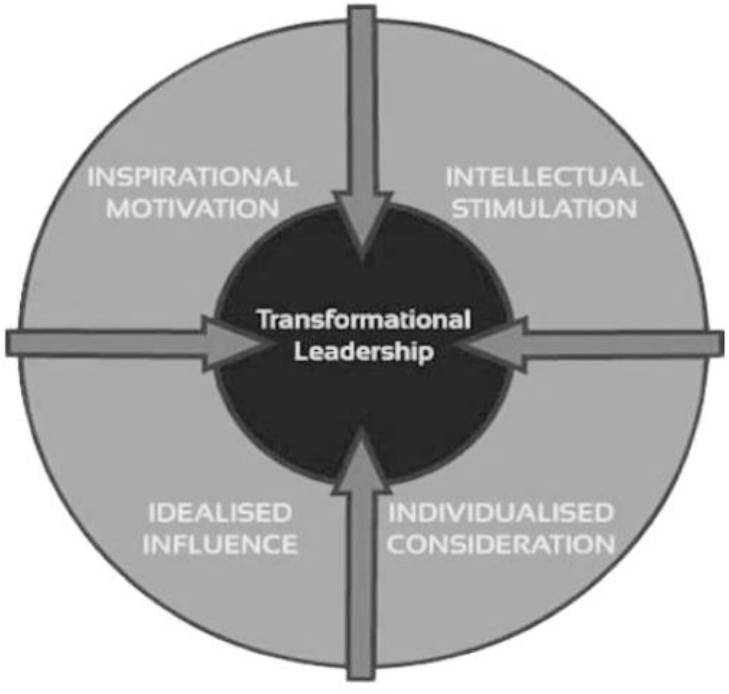
Transformational, instructional, and transactional leadership approaches have been identified as important successful leaderships models. Each of the leadership theories have similarities; however, they have distinct differences. Researchers endorsed all three theories as appropriate models for school administrators, especially on topics related to the impact of leaders on organizational behavior and student academic achievement (Hallinger, 2003; Shatzer et al., 2014). Inandi et al. (2022) defined leadership as a collaborative effort to bring knowledge and skills together among a group of people to achieve a common goal. In the following section, the literature will provide a brief overview and explain transformational, instructional, and transactional leadership styles and how they influence an organization and impact student academic achievement.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership included inspiring followers to commit to a shared vision and goals of an organization. The term was originally defined by Burns (1978) through his descriptive research on political leaders. Burns (1978) believed that transformational leaders and their followers assist one another in cultivating a culture of high morale and motivation. According to Northouse (2016) transformational leadership is one of most popular leadership styles discussed among researchers. Bass and Riggio (2006) stated that transformational leadership was about inspiring followers to work toward a shared vision to meet the goals of an organizational. Transformational leaders encouraged their followers to be creative and solve problems which led to their personal and professional growth (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Bass (1985) reviewed Burns' (1978) ideas on transformational leadership to develop four components. The four concepts of transformational leadership theory included: idealized influence, individual consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation, as displayed in Figure 1 (Bass, 1985). The idealized influence is described as leaders that model the behaviors they want their followers to display (Northouse, 2016; Bass & Riggio, 2006). Individualized consideration is characterized as leaders focusing on the needs of their followers, cultivating a supportive climate, and provided coaching to their followers to build capacity (Bass & Riggio, 2006; Northouse, 2016). Inspirational motivation referred to the ability to stimulate enthusiasm, develop the confidence of followers, and articulate a vision to motivate followers (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2006).

Figure 1.



The last concept was intellectual stimulation. According to Bass (1985), intellectual stimulation encouraged followers to challenge their beliefs to become creative in problem solving, with no criticism for mistakes.

Transformational leadership theory aimed to foster capacity development and higher levels of commitment to organizational goals. Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) both believed that increased capacities and commitment resulted in greater effort and productivity. Leithwood (1994) and his colleagues integrated Bass' (1985) four components of transformational leadership theory into the educational field to develop a transformational leadership model for school administrators. Leithwood et al. (1994) developed six dimensions of transformational leadership:

1. Building school vision and goals
2. Providing intellectual stimulation
3. Offering individualized support
4. Symbolizing professional practices and values
5. Demonstrating high performance expectations
6. Developing structures to foster participation in school decision making. (Leithwood et al., 1994)

The six dimensions are associated with specific leadership practices and problem-solving solutions (Leithwood & Steinbach, 1995). Studies showed that transformational leaders focused on the future vision and mission of their building (Korkmaz, 2007). Transformational leadership was promoted as the ideal model theory for school administrators since the 1990s. Leithwood and Jantzi (2006) developed three categories of transformational leadership theory: helping people, setting direction, and redesigning

the organization. Although the transformational leadership theory proved to effectively impact the school environment, numerous studies demonstrated that it has indirect or weaker effects on student achievement (Leithwood et al., 2006).

Shatzer et al. (2014) stated that transformational leadership theory focused on cultivating the school's culture and vision to improve the organization, enhance the quality of teaching and learning and develop people. Several studies proved that leaders who led with transformational leadership had a shared vision of focus for their school and a commitment to change (Shatzer et al., 2014). Although transformational leadership contributed to school improvement (Daniels et al. 2019; Geijsel et al. 2003; Leithwood & Jantzi, 1999), it had an indirect, rather than direct, effect on student academic achievement. Geijsel et al. (2003), Friedman (2004), and Korkmaz (2007) found that transformational leadership had positive effects on teacher job satisfaction, commitment, and workplace culture. Marks and Nance (2007) concluded that when school administrators and teachers shared in decision making, it effectively influenced curriculum, instruction, and student achievement.

Instructional Leadership

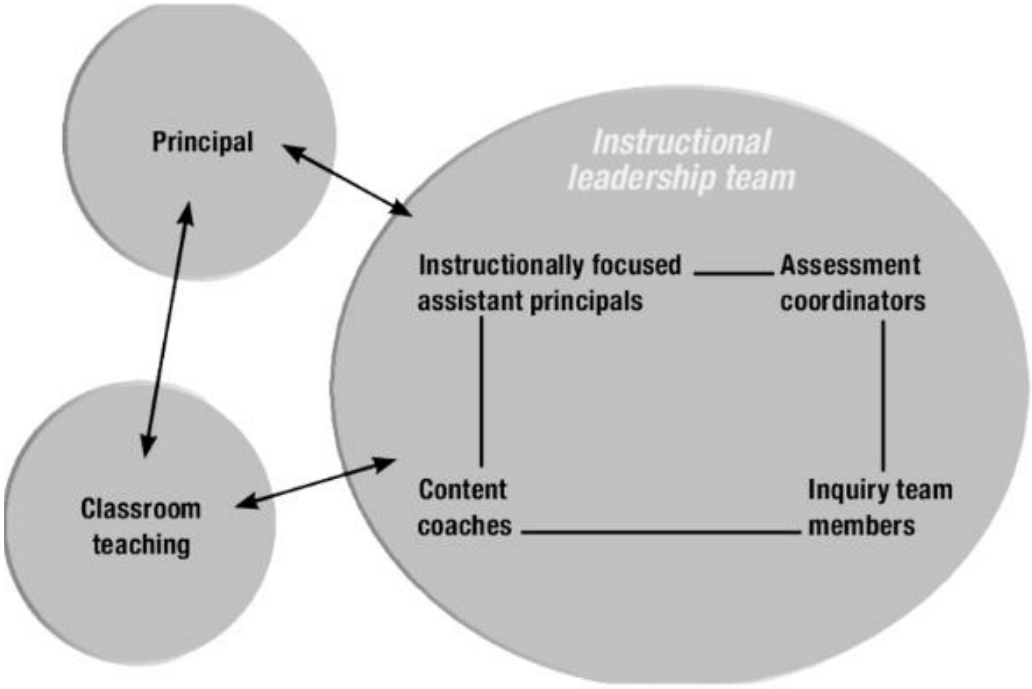
Instructional leadership emerged in the 1980s and focused on the school administrator's role in curriculum and instruction (Hallinger, 2003). According to Robinson (2011), an important element of instructional leadership is a school's vision that concentrated on student learning. Student-centered leadership required direct involvement with teachers to improve teaching and learning (Robinson, 2011). Instructional leaders are guided by their vision that focuses on student learning (Healy, 2009). According to Healy (2009) effective instructional leaders had a clear vision on

how to take their schools from mediocre to great. School administrators should spend most of their time focused on working with teachers and instructional issues versus administrative duties that include budgeting and finances (Southworth, 2003). Lemoine and Greer (2014) stated that schools will never accomplish the goals of student improvement without the involved direction of the school administrator. Menon (2014) agreed by stating that the integration of leadership models provided the most effective systems in schools. Instructional leaders were competent, confident, and qualified to assist teachers in their journey to improve instructional strategies that improved student outcomes (Menon, 2014). Fink and Resnick (2001) noted that school administrators spent less time in classrooms and analyzing instruction of teachers, which resulted in decreased student growth. Instructional leadership required school administrators to spend more time in classrooms, evaluating teachers, and providing feedback to assist teachers in improving their instructional practices to increase student outcomes (Fink & Resnick, 2001). School administrators were not able to accomplish these tasks alone. Effective instructional leaders developed instructional leadership teams that assisted them in providing a student-centered environment (Portin et al., 2009).

According to Portin et al. (2009), school administrators that developed an instructional leadership team, saw the benefits. Figure 2 illustrated the instructional leadership team developed by a school administrator in a large New York elementary school. This leader had four different instructional leaders that understood the work of each team member. It showed the potential of a well-functioning instructional leadership team. Each person' role assisted the school administrator in creating an instructional environment.

Figure 2.

Effective Instructional Leadership team



The emergent popularity of instructional leadership style prompted a variety of early studies that examined the constructs of instructional leadership (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger & Heck, 1998; O'Donnell & White, 2005). Hallinger and Murphy (1985) developed the constructs of instructional leadership theory through three key goals: defining the school's mission and goals, managing and supervising the delivery of curriculum and instructional programs and promoting and encouraging a positive school climate and learning environment. Each dimension helped instructional leaders guide followers in establishing and applying effective instruction aligned to the school's goals (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985).

The first goal of defining the school's mission and goals encompassed the school administrator's work in establishing the purpose and direction of the school. Hallinger (2005) stated that the goals needed to be clearly defined, measurable, timebound, and

focused on student outcomes. Hallinger (2005) commented that school administrators do not determine the school's goals on their own or in collaboration with staff if the goals were not centered around student academic achievement, research based, and implemented with fidelity by the teaching staff.

The second goal of managing and supervising the delivery of curriculum and instructional programs focused on the school administrator's engagement in teaching and learning. Hallinger (2005) believed that this goal was self-explanatory. School administrators needed to have a laser focus on curriculum and instruction to monitor the progress of teaching and learning, supervise the implementation and cultivate an environment to stimulate teaching and learning.

The final goal in instructional leadership theory was promoting and encouraging a positive school climate and learning environment. Hallinger (2005) believed this goal included the use of academic press through three components:

1. High expectations for teachers and students.
2. Continuous culture of improvement that included purposeful incentives and rewards.
3. Developing a culture and climate that supports continuous school improvement (Hallinger, 2005).

The research on instructional leadership theory concluded that instructional leadership could impact student academic achievement indirectly (Robinson et al., 2008; Shatzer et al., 2014).

A body of empirical studies examined the correlation between instructional leadership and student academic achievement (Hallinger, 2005; Hallinger & Heck, 1998;

O'Donnell & White, 2005). The studies resulted in findings of direct or indirect impact of instructional leadership. A variety of more recent studies have conceptualized the role of school administrators in improving student academic achievement as an instructional leader (Alam & Ahmad, 2017; Goddard et al., 2015; Hou et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2012; Mitchell et al., 2015; Sebastian et al., 2017). Other studies showed that instructional leadership can influence student academic achievement through an improvement in school culture and teacher work conditions (Robinson et al., 2008; Shatzer et al., 2014). It was noted through numerous studies that instructional leadership had more of an impact on student academic achievement than transformational leadership, because it placed emphasis on the quality of teaching and learning (Hou et al., 2019; Lee et al., 2012; Mitchell et al., 2015).

Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership was defined by Bass (1997), and he stated that transactional leaders operated within a defined system with clear rules and expectations for their followers. Stewart (2006) and Yahaya and Ebrahim (2016) argued that transactional leadership is described as an exchange. Burns (1978) believed transactional leadership is related to positive exchanges and punishment for failure to meet performance goals and expectations. Burns also suggested that transactional leadership focused on systems, rules, routines, and procedures to maintain order and achieve the goals of the organization (Sergiovanni, 2007). School administrators who operated under the transactional leadership theory maintained a structured environment managed with mechanical precision (Sergiovanni, 2007).

According to Friedman (2004), transactional leadership took a very directive approach to managing an environment. Bass et al. (2003) stated that transactional leadership clarified expectations and provided recognition when goals were met. According to Goodwin et al. (2001), positive reinforcement was effective when goals and expectations were met, because it strengthened professional dispositions of faculty and staff. Hallinger (2003) found that critics alleged that the responsibilities of present day school administrators would make the transactional leadership style an impossible leadership task to take on because of its outdated methods. Friedman (2004) agreed with this notion by stating that transactional leadership style ignored daily task of teachers that worked with students to carry out mandated directives to effectively implement curriculum and instruction to increase student outcomes.

According to Avolio and Bass (2004), transactional leadership theory identified two dimensions within the framework. The *fir*st dimension was defined as "contingent reward" (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transactional leaders aimed to improve performance and achieve organizational objectives. In this dimension, followers are rewarded for meeting organizational expectations. The school administrator set goals for the followers and developed incentives as a positive reinforcement for meeting said goals. Bass (1985) stated that transactional leaders under this dimension managed the actions of followers by linking their behavior with rewards or punishments.

The second dimension of transactional leadership was "management by exception (Avolio & Bass, 2004). Transactional leaders monitored the actions and performance of followers and when it did not align with the goals and expectations of the organization, negative reinforcement was administered. Stewart (2006) stated that management by

exception was defined as the leader monitoring the follower then correcting the follower as necessary. Yahaya and Ebrahim (2016) viewed management by exception in two distinct categories: active and passive. These categories were illustrated in Figure 3 (Thomasyager, 2022).

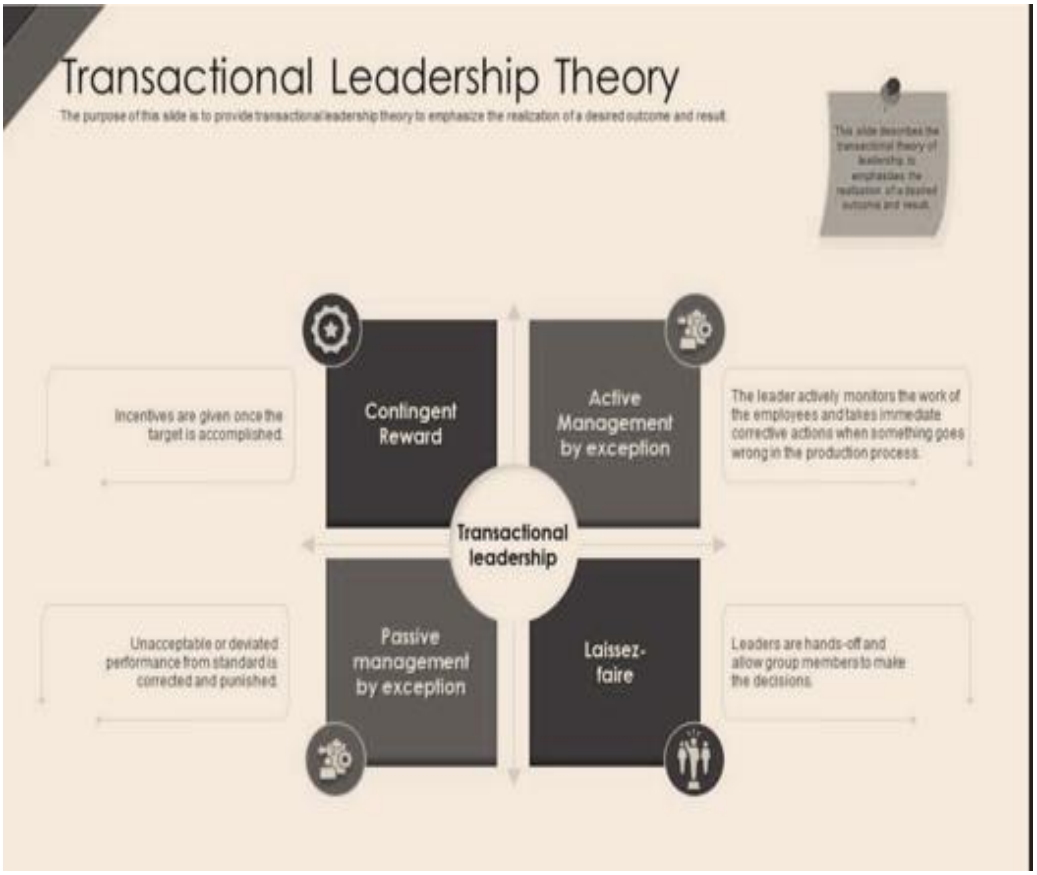
Active management by exception involved leaders that took the initiative to monitor the behavior of their followers and intervene before errors or problems occurred and/or to correct the errors or problems. Bass and Riggio (2006) stated that active leaders corrected the mistakes of followers by monitoring and tracking their performance. This leadership category had a negative connotation towards followers when they failed to meet expectations (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Passive management by exception allowed for errors to occur before the leaders intervened. Leaders waited for the work's completion to determine if errors or problems occurred. Bass and Riggio (2006) stated that unlike active management, passive management did not correct the mistake until after the problem had occurred. This category of management by exception had a more positive connotation towards followers verses followers under active management by exception (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

The transactional leader believed their system of rewards and punishment garnered obedience (Karabag Kose & Guclu, 2017). Korkmaz (2007) believed that teachers that work for transactional leaders focused on the avoidance of mistakes to prevent consequences. Other researchers, such as Amedone (2018) believed that transactional leadership created a negative school culture and climate.

Figure 3.

Transactional Leadership Theory



Bass (1985) noted that transactional leaders worked within the organization culture that existed. In terms of transactional leadership's impact on student academic success, there was limited research that correlated the two. A school environment conducive to learning, well managed, and structured is important in influencing student academic achievement (Kotter, 1996).

Gender and Leadership Styles

There have been a variety of studies conducted on gender differences in leadership styles. A meta-analysis conducted by Eagly and Johnson (1990) found that men and women led using two distinguished leadership approaches. The two leadership

approaches were: task-oriented and interpersonally oriented style. These leadership styles were introduced by Bales (1950) and further developed by a group of researchers from Ohio State University and University of Michigan (Hemphill & Coons, 1957; Likert, 1961). The research showed slight differences in leadership styles between men and women (Gipson et al., 2017). The tasks were coined based on the gender of the leader; however, Eagly and Johnson (1990) found that leadership styles were gender stereotypical.

Gender has played an influential role in how leaders are perceived. Men have been in leadership roles longer than women. The field of education has been a female dominating field; however, there have been more men leading in administrative roles. There have been gender stereotypes that were considered simplistic and violated a role theory suggesting that leadership roles and styles were constrained to gender. Eagly and Johnson (1990) believed that school administrators were influenced more by their required administrative task than their gender. The meta-analysis review provided a systematic and quantitative integration of research that compared the leadership styles of female and male school administrators.

According to Nichols and Nichols (2014), the stereotype that men are better suited for leadership over women has been discussed in research dated back to the 1900s. McFadden et al. (2009) agreed with this notion by stating that men were considered the more dominant gender and therefore more equipped to run schools and districts. The research conducted by Eagly and Johnson (1990) founded that men were prone to be more assertive, independent, and motivated to master the environment. This behavior was closely aligned to the task-oriented leadership style. Task-oriented style was defined as

accomplishing tasks by organizing tasks relevant to activities. Makhijani and Klonsky (1992) supported Eagly and Johnson's (1990) theory by stating that men led with a masculine style that is dominating and task oriented. Loden (1985) stated that male leaders led with a dominant Alpha leadership style. He noted that Alpha leaders were analytical, quantitative, rational, and used problem-solving skills.

In contrast, previous researchers believed women were understanding, sympathetic and more concerned with others. Loden (1985) argued that women used an alternative feminine leadership model that was collaborative and used problem solving skills based on empathy and intuition. According to Eagly and Johnson (1990), women tended to be more interpersonally oriented rather than men. Interpersonally oriented style was defined as being concerned with interpersonal relationships by tending to the morale and welfare of others. Female school administrators were less likely to create a school climate that was controlling or balkanizing. Gipson et al. (2017) agreed with this notion by stating that female school administrators adopted leadership styles associated with collaboration and community within schools. Gipson et al. (2017) added that leadership styles enacted by women were more effective than men in terms of improving school outcomes. A meta-analysis study conducted by Eagly et al. (1992), found that female school administrators were more collaborative and participative than male school administrators. A multivariate analysis conducted by Urick and Bowers (2014) found that school administrators that employed a collaborative and integrative style were more likely to meet state accountability goals.

Hallinger et al. (2016) conducted a meta-analysis that examined the relationship between gender and instructional leadership, and they found that female school

administrators were more likely to enact instructional leadership behaviors than male school administrators. Rosener (1990) conducted similar research on transformational leadership and gender. This research found that transformational leadership style was more congenial to women, because they tend to discuss web of connections that sought to strengthen human bonds, improve communication, affirm relationships, and instill values of inclusion. Childs and Shakeshaft (1986) reported that female administrators viewed their position from the lens of a master teacher or educational practitioner while men viewed it from a managerial or industrial perspective. Reviews conducted by Carli (2001) and Eagly and Karau (2002) showed that Female Administrators were considered less trustworthy and more disliked than male school administrators especially when they exerted authority over men, demonstrated high levels of ability, or communicated in a dominating manner. Therefore, female school administrators relied heavily on their instructional leadership and transformational leadership styles to avoid problems in the workplace that male school administrators were less likely to face.

Overall, the meta-analysis conducted by Eagly and Johnson (1990) showed that female school administrators led with a more *interpersonally oriented* style and men led with a *task-oriented* style. The findings showed that female school administrators were more likely than their male counterparts to invite all stakeholders into a collaborative and participative space in terms of decision making. Male school administrators were found less collaborative and more dominant and direct than their female counterparts. Additionally, female school administrators more often led with an instructional and transformational leadership style over their male counterparts avoiding issues and problems. Eagly and Johnson (1990) stated, when they possessed certain characteristics.

Unfortunately, there was limited research with respect to the leadership behaviors and effectiveness between male and female school administrators. The effectiveness of school administrators based on gender was a more complex question that could not be addressed in the meta-analysis without taking measures of administrative performance into account. Fraser (1979) stated that there was an optimal unknown on whether the school environment was impacted based on the gender or leadership style of the school administrator. The findings of this quantitative analysis showed no evidence that Female Administrators were less qualified than male school administrators in public schools. The gender of a school administrator had no bearings on their potential to be an effective school administrator.

Race and Leadership Styles

Few studies have been conducted on the difference in leadership styles regarding race. Eagly and Johnson (1990) stated that the studies examining ethnic and racial differences had limited information about the differences in leadership style between ethnic minority leaders compared to the dominant White culture. Parker (1976) conducted a research investigation on Black, White, and Chicano employees supervised by Black and White leaders. Hetty van Emerick et al. (2008) examined Parker's findings and determined that cultural background impacted leadership style.

Ardichvili et al. (2009) took a deeper look into the study and concluded that ethnic minorities led with a nurturing, inclusive and inspiring leadership style that closely related to characteristics of transformational leadership. Black leaders were seen as more supportive, had a greater ability to complete tasks, and were considered solution oriented. Also, Black leaders engaged in leadership styles that were the opposite of the dominant

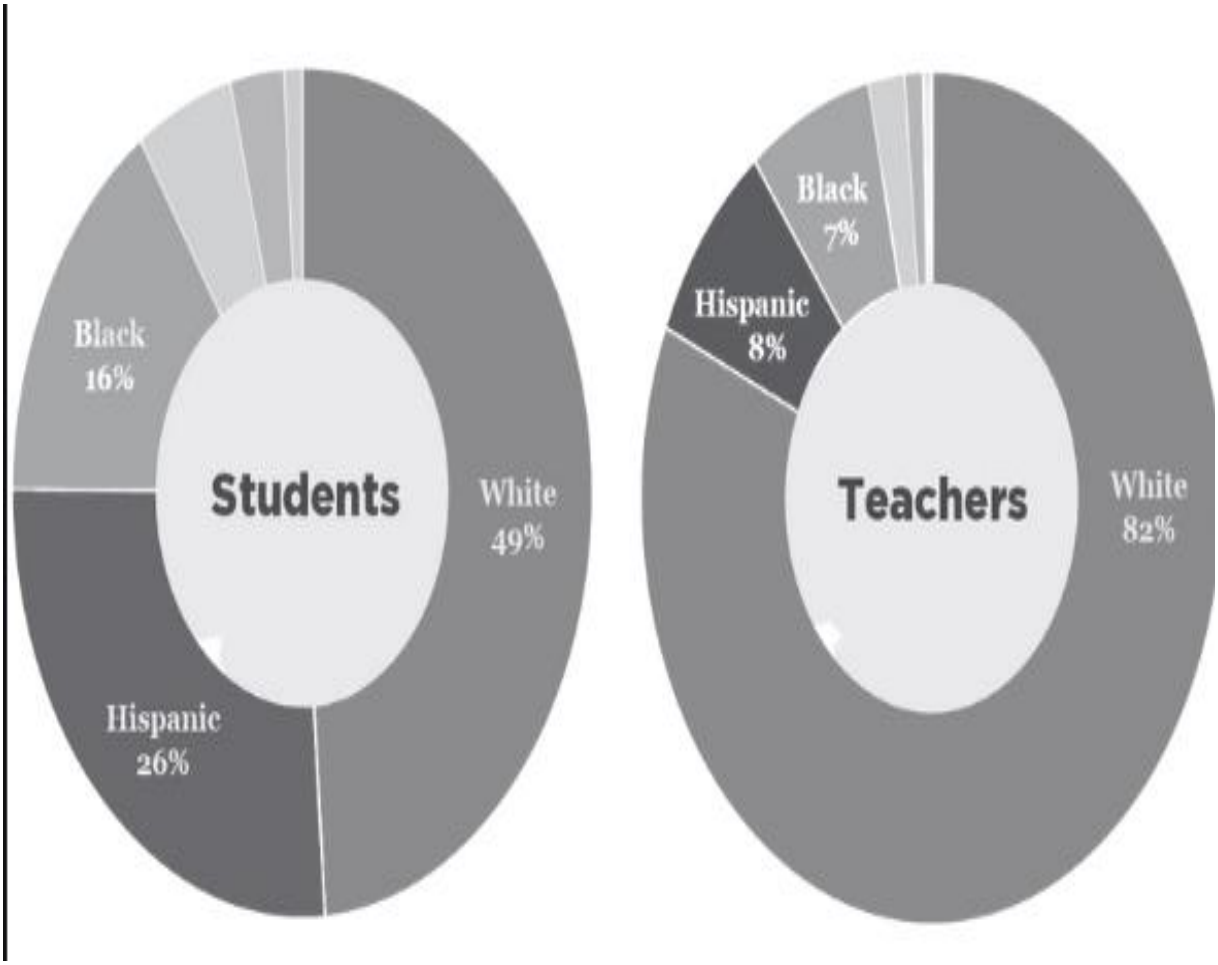
culture. The study also concluded that Black leaders made meaningful connections with others. The study ended by stating that ethnic minority leaders made a positive impact on their subordinates due to the interpersonal skills they used to communicate.

Education was considered the pipeline that provided schooling. Gershenson et al. (2017) stated that it was extremely important for Black boys to see Black men in educational leadership roles. However, Black males led the nation in homicides and exhibited the highest percentage of suicides, AIDS, and HIV cases. The study conducted by Parker (1976) had sufficient evidence about ethnic minority leaders, yet the school system failed in providing Black students with the same opportunities as White students. Decuir-Gunby (2009) stated that Black boys were underrepresented in gifted programs and overrepresented in at-risk programs and suspensions. Gershenson et al. (2017) collected data from a study conducted on public schools in North Carolina and they found that Black boys that had Black male teachers experienced a 39% lower high school dropout rate. The graphic in Figure 4 depicts how American public school looked by showing the percentage of teachers by race in comparison to the percentage of students by race (Hanford, 2022).

Taylor (2013), Van den Hoogenhof (2012), Villegas, Storm, and Lucas (2012) all agreed that Black teachers had a valuable impact on Black students; however, Cooper and Jordan (2003) stated that the scarcity of Black males in educational leadership deserved a deeper examination. In fact, there is limited research on Black male leadership development.

Figure 4.

Percentage of teachers and students by race



Milligan (2013) stated that White teachers benefited from Black leaders in educational leadership positions, because they helped White teachers with culturally responsive practices that impacted their decisions in terms of the academic and psychological wellbeing of minority students. The study showed that there are benefits of having ethnic minority leaders.

When looking at Parker's (1976) findings on the dominant White culture, there were clear differences in the leadership approach in comparison to ethnic minority leaders. White leaders led with a leadership style that was closely related to task oriented

and transactional leadership styles. White leaders were more direct and blind to their privilege, which made them less aware of how their leadership styles impacted how they led and who they led. Sullivan (2006) stated, "whiteness" is a radical privilege that White people used to look at themselves, others, and society. "Whiteness" was not targeting the color of their skin but used as a term that identified certain groups of people that operated in a manner that assumed that their way was "the right way."

Lui and Baker (2016) works identified ways that White leaders have led. The first one was normalization which was the process by which "Whiteness" imposed itself as the standard. Grimes (2001) stated normalization resulted in White people denying the ways they are affected by race which created harm to those that were racialized. Tochluk (2010) said whiteness plays out in many ways. She stated people who operate in whiteness try to say that race isn't real which causes them to play victim to its effects:

> Distancing ourselves from our discomfort with racial identity by claiming that we are not white betrays our hopes. Although we hope that the distance excuses us from being a part of the problem of race, our denials do not stop us from being treated as white. Philosophically rejecting whiteness does not stop us from escaping racial profiling. We will never have to deal with the frustration of being passed over by cab drivers due to our race. We will never be mistaken for gardeners when working in our front yard. (p. 20)

Tochluk (2010) goes on to say that social and economic benefits come with whiteness. She stated, "We remain blind to the myriad ways that whiteness opens doors" (Tochluk, 2010, p. 20) This type of mindset can affect students because of the refusal to look through a lens of equity, diversity, and inclusion. According to Emdin (2017), most urban

education experts do not look like the students and are far removed "both geographically and psychologically from the schools and students" (p. 19). He goes on to say that their distance from the community does not impede their ability to engage in the work. The issue arises when a school administrator or teacher refuses to understand the culture. Students see themselves as one thing, but they are not seen through that lens; their image is invisible. Most of the time students of color are deemed as being disruptive, chronically late and unprepared. This type of ideology is rooted in whiteness.

The second one was solipsism by which Whites acted in ways that were only beneficial for them. Tochluk (2010) states that whiteness creates a shield that "protect us from considering how lingering, unconscious prejudices may play out" (p. 27). This plays out in classrooms all over the world. State standards, standardized tests, literature, and textbooks are culturally biased. They are normed and based on the knowledge of the majority group. Students of color do not see themselves in the content as often as their White peers. Black and Latinx faced stereotype threats in standardized testing. Aronson and Steele (2020) stated that research showed how stress from negative stereotypes take a toll on students of color. It manifested in lower test scores and caused stress and anxiety among students of color. Statistically, students of color score significantly lower than White or Asian students creating what has been called an achievement gap. According to Hardy (2015), in reading and math, 43 percent of White 8th graders scored Proficient or above, compared to 13 percent of African Americans and 19 percent of Hispanics and 61 percent of Asians scored Proficient or above. Culturally responsive teaching has not been implemented into teaching and learning as one of the ways to address the achievement gap. If students are held to a standard that was not designed for them, they will continue

to fall behind. According to Emdin (2017), urban students are expected to leave their life at the door and conform to the norms of the classroom. Emdin (2017) also stated that failure to acknowledge the experiences from the student's perspective led to ineffective teaching and learning. He then went on to say, "The work to become truly effective educators requires a new approach to teaching that embraces the complexity of place, space, and their collective impact on the psyche of urban students" (p. 25). Addressing the issue started with educators creating a vision that looked at students the way they look at themselves (Emdin, 2017).

School Leadership and Student Academic Achievement

There are many variables that have influenced student academic achievement. The relationship between school administration leadership and student academic achievement is direct and indirect (Marzano et al., 2005). According to Marks and Printy (2003), school administrators have a stronger influence on school processes that contribute to students' academic achievement. Leithwood et al. (2008) claimed that school administrators were second to teachers in influencing student academic achievement. Teacher quality was the first factor that influenced student academic achievement and school administrators were the second most influential factor according to research by Clifford et al. (2012).

Direct Impact on Student Achievement

According to research conducted by Branch et al. (2012), highly effective school administrators raise student academic achievement. Dhuey and Smith (2014) found that student academic achievement can boost with a quality school administrator. They used data from schools in British Columbia that revealed that a one standard deviation

improvement in the quality of the school leader improved student performances in math and reading by a range of 0.289 to 0.408 standard deviations. The data also revealed that a one standard deviation increase in improved reading scores by eleven percentile points and math scores by sixteen percentile points. Dhuey and Smith (2018) then used data from schools in North Carolina and found that significant increases. They used the same method that showed an increase in reading scores by five percentile points and seven percentile points in math. Both studies used data from elementary and middle schools.

Hausman, Crow and Sperry (2000) stated that school administrators played a critical role in school effectiveness. Effective school administrators improved efficiency and equity in schools according to Pont et al. (2008). School administrators directly impacted student achievement when they were knowledgeable of academic content and pedagogical techniques, worked with teachers to improve their practices and strengthen their skills, collected and analyzed data, and developed an inclusive culture for all stakeholders, community leaders and local businesses to provide resources to promote student academic improvement. Boyd et al. (2010) stated that school culture directly impacted student achievement because it helped with job satisfaction and teacher retention. Additional research conducted by Clifford et al. (2012) discussed specific ways in which school administrators influenced students directly and indirectly.

Clifford et al. (2012) outlined practices of school administrators that can influence student academic achievement directly. When school administrators implemented these practices with fidelity, it influenced the school environment (Clifford et al., 2012). Research suggested that school administrator's practices influenced the successful implementation of school programs linked to student academic achievement. This aligns

with another study conducted by Louis et al. (2010) where they found that student progress occurred because of the school administrator's implementation of initiatives and their belief that improvement was possible. The next section will discuss the practices that directly influence student academic achievement.

School Conditions

The are many areas of school conditions, such as: school safety, financial management, staff attitude and trust, availability of resources, programs, and services, and working conditions (Clifford et al., 2012). Hallinger and Heck (1998) found in their research that school administrators shaped school improvement systems, school goals, policies and procedures, and school culture. They also believed that teaching and learning was influenced by the school's administrator's ability to work towards meeting goals and properly allocate funds and resources. Another group of researchers, Waters et al. (2003) stated that school administrator's relationships and interactions with community stakeholders and their ability to effective advocate for quality educational programs influenced school conditions. These factors impacted teacher working conditions according to Ladd (2009).

Ladd (2009) stated that positive teacher working conditions included cultivating a climate of trust that fostered a collegial, collaborative, and supportive school culture. He also believed that positive teacher working conditions contributed to student academic achievement. A similar study conducted by Louis et al. (2010) found that there was a correlation between schools where teachers gave the instructional climate high ratings and high levels of student academic achievement. The instructional climate was defined as "steps that principals take to set a tone or culture in the building that supports continual

professional learning" (p. 13). School administrators that valued and successfully applied research-based strategies were more likely to receive high ratings on instructional climate (Louis et al. 2010).

Louis et al. (2010) and Ladd (2009) went on to say that school administrators influenced teacher working conditions by building capacity in their teachers. Effective school administrators focused on professional learning communities, collaborative learning, relationship building, and intentional effective professional development, which significantly influenced school conditions (Louis et al., 2010; Mendels, 2012). Ladd (2009) also stated that school administrators contributed to positive teacher working conditions by targeting effective instructional resources, creating time for collaboration and teacher reflection and engaging teachers in high quality professional development. These school conditions would not be influential without quality teachers in place (Leithwood et al. 2004).

School Administrators and Teacher Quality

According to Leithwood et al. (2004) effective school administrators were successful in recruiting, hiring and retaining quality teachers and teachers viewed their relationships with school administrators as a strong factor in their career. Milanowski et al. (2009) stated that quality school administrators were one of the important factors for prospective teachers. A survey conducted by Luekens et al. (2004) showed that 38% of teachers moved to new schools, due to inadequate support from school administrators. In 2003, a similar survey conducted by Ingersoll and Smith (2003) found that 26% of the participants stated that poor support of school administration was the number one reason that they left the profession.

School administration influenced teacher quality and their effectiveness (Mendels, 2012). Poor teacher quality impacted minority students more than any other race, according to Imazeki and Goe (2009). The *No Child Left Behind Act* of 2001 documented that less experienced and less qualified teachers systematically taught minority students (Clifford et al., 2012). In essence, inspiring and highly competent school administrators made a difference in teacher quality (Mendels, 2012).

Indirect Impact on Student Achievement

Leithwood et.al. (2008) stated that there is evidence on school effectiveness suggested that school administrators influenced student academic achievement indirectly. Hallinger and Heck (1998) agreed and included that there were statistically non-significant direct positive influences on student outcomes. They also concluded that school climate, work environment, teacher satisfaction, and classroom practices were directly related to student academic achievement. Pounder et al. (1995) found that school administrators contributed to educational outcomes, but there were no direct links to student academic achievement. Additional research by Hallinger and Heck (1998) revealed that the school administrator's leadership style impacted school improvement. The two leadership styles that Hallinger and Heck (1998) focused on in their research were instructional and transformational leadership.

The school administrator that led from an instructional lens focused on school improvement and academic learning (Hallinger, 2003). The school administrator that led from a transformational lens focused on making necessary changes that aligned to the school's mission and vision (Hallinger, 2003). Despite the conceptual dichotomy of instructional and transformational leadership styles, there are some common shared

themes. Both leadership styles viewed the school's mission and vision to help them make decisions, set goals, provide and promote professional development, etc... (Leithwood et al., 2008). According to Spillane et al. (2004), school administrators that provided resources and support to maximize instructional time effectively shaped teachers' instruction. School administrators worked through indirect means to achieve academic gains (Kearney, 2010).

Instructional Quality

Several studies have shown that school administrators are linked to student academic achievement indirectly (Kearney, 2010). Smith et al. (2001) indirectly impacted student academic achievement by selecting curriculum, programs and instructional resources that align with research based instructional practices. Additionally, they provided teachers with meaningful professional development to implement instruction with fidelity to get expected student outcomes (Smith et al., 2001). School administrators supported professional development by:

- Emphasizing its importance
- Developing a culture among faculty that values ongoing learning
- Encouraging faculty members to facilitate such learning
- Providing common structured time for such learning
- Equipping teachers with student data to inform their learning (Croft et al., 2010).

Louis et al. (2010) stated that these practices directly impact teacher instruction and further research documented that the practices have a significant influence on student academic achievement indirectly. In short, school administrators directly influenced teacher instruction by protecting instructional time, providing resources and effective

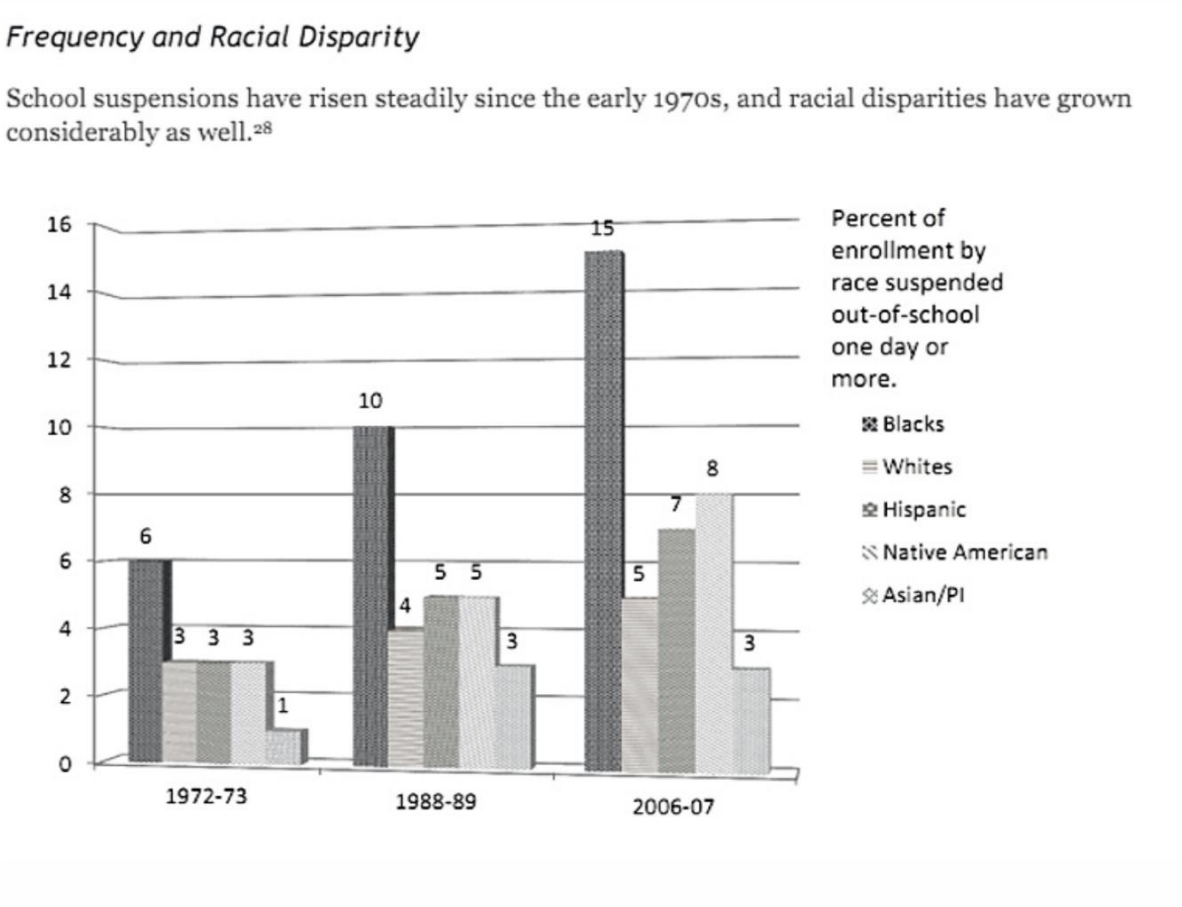
professional development which indirectly impacted student academic achievement (Louis et al., 2010).

School Administrators and Student Discipline

According to Irby (2014) and Kupchik (2009), discipline policies were put in place to keep schools safe and centered on student learning. Inequitable discipline infractions are often enacted that reflect systematic racial disparities (Irby, 2014). Research has shown that these types of "harsh punishments, overly punitive punishments, or counterproductive punishments" have reflected a misuse or abuse of authority that further contributed to racial discipline gaps and school to prison pipeline (Kupchik, 2009). Irby (2014) stated that harsh punishments resulted from district and state discipline policies that impacted students of color at a higher rate than their White peers and often aligned to historic trends of racial discrimination in schools. Several researchers have documented that Black students are less likely to engage in misconduct; however, they have received harsher discipline consequences than White or Asian students (Fenning & Rose, 2007; Gregory et al., 2010; Gregory & Weinstein, 2008; Losen, 2011). A public analysis from the Texas Education Agency (2015) revealed data that aligned with the previous research findings. The enrollment percentage for Black students was 12.6%; however, they made up 34.8% of the suspensions. The data also showed that Black students were less likely to bring guns, drugs, or alcohol to school than White students, yet they were more likely to suspended or expelled for discretionary offenses such as: misconduct, fighting or threats.

Figure 5.

Racial Impact of Rising use of Suspension



This data showed the disproportionate rates of suspensions among different races. The data were collected from over 97,000 public schools across the nation from grades as early as pre-k through high school. The data painted a clear picture, which was a clear indicator that whiteness has perpetuated itself in the school system for many decades. The data showed that:

- About 50% of Pre-K students that were suspended multiple times were Black; however, Blacks represented less than ¼ of the enrollment.
- Black students are more likely to be arrested and referred to law enforcement for school-based offenses.

- Latino and Black students were punished more severely than white students for the same violations.
- Black girls are suspended more than their white counterparts. (Chen, 2023)

Morris (2005; 2007) stated in his research that Black boys and girls were described as disruptive, loud, and disrespectful by teachers and school administrators more than their White peers. A similar study conducted by Ferguson (2001) showed that Black boys, as early as elementary age, were "adultrified" by teachers and school administrators and deemed as unsalvageable when they displayed the same actions as their White peers. Khalifa et al. (2014) stated in their study on racism and educational leadership that school administrators viewed racism as peripheral issue and failed to recognize racial issues. A study conducted by DeMatthews et al. (2017) showed how different school administrators of different races and years of experience handled discipline. They viewed three categories to classify each participant to collect data on their responses to misconduct.

The first two school administrators were classified as "overt racial justifiers" (DeMatthews et al., 2017). Carl was a Latino male, who worked in suburban schools, with 14 years of leadership experience and Albert, a White Male, who worked in urban schools with seven years of leadership experience. Carl stated that his job was to maintain order. He believed that Latino and White parents were more likely to discipline their children than Black parents. Carl had a similar mindset. He stated that "Leadership must be neutral. Principals can't use their emotions; they must draw from the facts." However, he also believed that Black parents did not discipline their children at home.

Both school administrators said racist comments about Black students and their families. For example, Carl stated:

> "...It's definitely cultural; our other students typically don't have the same behavior problems."

Albert stated:

> "They don't raise their children or share the same values as most White people."
>
> Both school administrators viewed Black students as deviant and problematic; therefore, it resulted in Black students being disciplined at higher rates than their White peers. (DeMatthews et al., 2017)

The next four school administrators in the study were classified as rigid rule enforcers. Ben, a White man with nine years of leadership experience, believed that if students were constantly acting out, he needed to investigate further and not punish the student excessively. Fred, a Black Male, who worked in urban schools with predominately Black students, with six years of leadership experience, believed that most students in his school struggled to get by, so they deserved a caring school environment. Daniel, a Latino man with four years of leadership experience, believed that his teachers struggled to identify antecedents to behavior, and it was due to poor classroom management. Both Fred and Daniel found alternative means to handle discipline. Jackie, a Black woman with 12 years of leadership experience in urban schools, believed that student discipline should not take away from instructional time. She used in-school suspensions for students who disrupted the learning environment because she didn't want students to miss valuable instructional time. Each of these principals tried to find

alternative means to curve student behavior without it resulting in an out of school suspension (DeMatthews et al., 2017).

The last group in the student were classified as flexible and cognizant disciplinarians. Eric, a Black male with five years of leadership experience in urban schools, believed that students' background impacted their behavior. He recognized that certain teachers were afraid of Black male students due to their lack of experience. Eric created programs for Black male students because he believed they needed Black male role models. Haley, a White Female, who worked in urban school with 10 years of leadership experience saw her teachers bullying or antagonizing students who were frequently in trouble. She stated that discipline was complicated and felt she was the blame for students' out of control behavior. Isabel, a Latina female who worked in suburban schools with three years of leadership experience, believed that teachers had to tools to handle student misconduct in class; however, when students did not comply, she removed them so other students could learn. Lastly, Gabrielle, a White woman working in a diverse suburban school with six years of leadership experience believed in Response to Intervention (RTI) and Positive Behavioral Supports (PBS) because they provided data. She stated that teachers needed experience working with students from diverse backgrounds but understood that some teachers struggled with classroom management because they failed to engage with certain students. She believed limited time was the barrier for her ineffective discipline efforts (DeMatthews et al., 2017).

The school administrators in all three categories made underlying assumptions about race and class and those beliefs led their discipline efforts (DeMatthews et al., 2017). Black boys were considered criminally deviant and needed more attention than

any other peers of other races and genders. The school administrators believed in rule adherence, but each used different means to handle discipline based on their personal beliefs about the students in their schools (DeMatthews et al., 2017). This case study revealed that students were targeted based on race, bullied, feared, ignored, given special privileges and labeled by school administrators of different races, in different settings with different years of experience. In essence, the Black students were disciplined at a higher rate than any other students; particularly Black boys (DeMatthews et al., 2017). Gregory et al. (2010) research aligned with this study because it showed that Black students and their families were viewed as problematic and were disproportionately punished as a direct consequence. DeMatthews et al. (2017) stated that school administrators are not solely responsible for racial injustices of school discipline; however, they heavily influenced the perpetuation of disproportionate discipline consequences for certain groups of students.

School Administrators and Student Attendance

Student absences have increased based on recent reports that showed approximately 15% of students were chronically absent each year which equated to them missing 10% or more instructional days in a school year (Jordan et al., 2018). *Every Student Succeeds Act (ESSA*) required 36 states to include attendance as one of their indicators of their school improvement plan (Jordan & Miller, 2017). According to Aucejo and Romano (2016), prior research studies have shown that student absenteeism is linked to lower academic achievement. Further studies showed that absenteeism was also linked to lower test scores, high school graduation and college enrollment (Liu et al., 2019). Black, Native American, and Pacific Islander students, as well as students with

disabilities had to highest rates of absences (Chronic Absenteeism in the Nation's Schools). Additional studies have shown that low-income students are more likely to have chronic absences (Buehler et al., 2012; Spradlin et al., 2012).

School administrators affected student attendance through communication and control over policies and programs (Rogers et al., 2017; Rogers & Feller, 2018). Childs and Grooms (2018) stated that school administrators impacted student attendance directly and indirectly in some of same ways they affected test scores such as: human capital management and instructional leadership. Parents of students that had high absence rates believed that their child's absence was average compared to their peers (Rogers et al., 2017). Frequent communication with parents about absences and missing assignments improved student absences according to Bergman (2015) and Kraft and Rogers (2015). Bartanen (2020) conducted a study to determine school administrators' effects on student attendance and found that school administrators have a substantial effect on student attendance. The study went on to further show that school administrators in urban schools or high poverty schools have a larger effect on student attendance (Bartanen, 2022). Although the Bartanen (2020) documented variations in school administrators' impact on student attendance, there were limitations in the study that were unable to identify an explicit pathway through which school administrators' gender and race impacted student attendance.

Summary

The leadership style of school administrators can affect student academic achievement directly and indirectly. There are three leadership styles that have been discussed in a variety of research studies: transformational leadership, instructional

leadership, and transactional leadership. Each leadership style impacted school environments in different ways depending on the race and gender of the school administrator. As previously stated, Eagly and Johnson (1990) found that men and women led using two distinguished leadership approaches: *task oriented* and *interpersonally oriented* style. Hetty van Emerick et al. (2008) determined that cultural background impacted leadership style.

In terms of school administrators and student discipline, it was determined in several studies that Black students and their families were often viewed as problematic and that resulted in higher suspension rates. When trying to determine the link between school administrators and student attendance, there was limited research that linked the two. This study aimed to investigate the ways in which school administrators impacted student discipline, attendance and academic achievement. The next chapter outlined the methodology used for the study.

Chapter Three: Research Method and Design

Purpose

This quantitative study's purpose was to determine if there was a difference between the gender and race of school administrators and student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. Quantitative research allowed the researcher to look at discipline, attendance, and Missouri Assessment Proficiency (MAP) data from 68 urban elementary schools in Missouri. The researcher viewed the data from each school and compared the data to determine if there was a difference between the gender and race of their school administrators and their students' discipline, attendance, and proficiency data. The researcher conducted ANOVA tests to determine the difference between the gender and race of school administrators and student discipline, attendance, and proficiency data and run *t*-tests to determine the potential effects of race and gender. The results of the data collection could contribute to the field of education in a variety of ways, such as in hiring processes, recruitment, equitable and relevant curricula, and the current research on diversity, equity, and inclusion. According to Kohlbecker (2022), educational officials must do the work to recognize bias and privilege in practices and policies, implement techniques to mitigate them, and use that training and knowledge in all aspects of the school system.

Similar studies conducted on this topic did not specifically address or determine if there was a difference between elementary school administrators' gender and race and annual state accountability student discipline, and proficiency data. The researcher aimed to address how gender and race play a role in leadership styles, human interaction, and communication, which could impact students directly or indirectly (Clifford et. al, 2012).

According to the research conducted by Edmonds (1979), Leithwood et al. (2004), and Marzano et al. (2005), school administrations impact student academic success. Through this examination, school districts will be able to look through a lens of diversity, equity, and inclusion to determine how to support schools in finding school administrators best suited for the students they serve to ensure students are provided with an equitable quality educational environment and experience.

Study Sites

The researcher used data from 68 urban elementary schools in the State of Missouri. The data focus was discipline, attendance, and proficiency. The data sets for each category were collected from the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2022), using discipline and attendance data, and Missouri Assessment Proficiency (MAP) scores in reading and math for all 68 urban elementary schools for the 2016 through 2017 school year. The schools were found on the National Center for Education Statistics database (NCES, 2023, Home Page).

Data Analysis

The researcher used ANOVA tests to determine differences between school administrators' gender and race as categorized as Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female and annual Missouri state student accountability data in the discipline, attendance, and proficiency areas for the 2016 through 2017 school year. The researcher also used *t*-tests to compare school administrators' race and gender variables individually to investigate differences in student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement, as well. All statistical analyses utilized school data from 20 schools where Black Females served as the administrators for two years, 20 schools where 20 White

Females served as the administrators for two years, 20 schools where 20 White Male Administrators served for two years, and eight schools where eight Black males served for two years in urban elementary schools in the State of Missouri. The data collected included secondary data from the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2022), focusing on discipline, attendance, and proficiency data for all 68 schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1: There is a significant difference between annual state discipline, attendance and proficiency data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 1.A

There is no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 1.B

There is no significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 1.C

There is no significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Hypothesis 2

Hypothesis 2: There is a significant difference between annual state discipline, attendance, and proficiency data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 2.A

There is no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 2.B

There is no significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 2.C

There is no significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3: There is a significant difference between annual state discipline, attendance, and proficiency data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 3.A

There is no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 3.B

There is no significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 3.C

There is no significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Limitations

The researcher only used data from urban elementary schools in the State of Missouri. The data categories were based on the gender and race of the school administrators to determine the difference between student discipline, attendance, and proficiency data. The researcher wanted to find 80 schools that had 20 Black Male administrators, 20 White Male administrators, 20 Black Female Administrators, and 20 White Female Administrators that served in their roles for two consecutive years at their building. The researcher used the National Center for Education Statistics database (NCES, 2023, Home Page) to find 80 urban elementary schools to meet the category requirements for the research. The researcher found 20 urban elementary schools that had Black Female and White Female Administrators. The researcher found 20 urban elementary schools that had White Male administrators; however, one school had to be

eliminated from the part of the study that evaluated attendance, because there were no attendance data during the 2016 through 2017 school year. Additionally, there were only eight urban elementary schools with Black Male administrators. Another limitation in the research was the researcher only found eight urban elementary school with Black Male administrators. An additional limitation was the researcher only used data from urban elementary schools in Missouri during the 2016 through 2017 school year, because this was the only year that had complete data prior to COVID. The researcher did not use data from rural or suburban schools, due to limited diversity among school administrators. Finally, the researcher did not include other races in the study, because there were not many urban elementary schools in the database that had school administrators of different races.

The researcher used ANOVA tests to compare the difference between the gender and race of school administrators and student proficiency, the gender and race of school administrators and student behavior data, and the gender and race of school administrators and the student attendance data. The researcher also conducted *t*-tests to compare differences between the gender of school administrators and the disciple, attendance, and academic achievement of students. The researcher did separate *t*-tests to evaluate differences between the race of school administrators and discipline data, attendance data, and proficiency data from the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Summary

The researcher used the results from the ANOVA tests and both *t*-tests to determine the difference and effects that race, and gender of school administrators had on student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. This data was collected from

the school report card for the 2016 through 2017 school year, for all 68 urban elementary schools using secondary data from the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2022) site. In Chapter Four, the researcher explained the results of the quantitative research study.

Chapter Four: Results

Overview

The analysis results described in Chapter Four compare gender, race, and combinations of race and gender variables and students' annual state assessment and report data. The results were analyzed utilizing statistical testing with ANOVA and Independent *t*-Tests for Means. The combination of variables tested included Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female categories for Hypothesis One, gender of male and female categories for Hypothesis Two, and the Black and White race categories for Hypothesis Three. Each Hypothesis analysis compared the annual Missouri-reported discipline data, attendance data, and the Missouri Assessment Proficiency (MAP) data for the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Hypothesis 1 Results

Hypothesis 1 suggested that there was a difference between annual state discipline, attendance, and proficiency data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 1.A

H_O.1.A. There is no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

The analysis of results for Annual State Discipline data included four different combinations of urban, Midwest school administrators by race and gender. The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools, based on the categorical groups of Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female Administrators.

Hypothesis H1.A descriptive data results are illustrated in Table 1 and the hypothesis analysis is in Table 2.

Table 1.

H1.A: Discipline Descriptive Data

Groups	Count	Sum	Mean	Variance
Black Male Admin	8	6.60	0.83	2.38
White Male Admin	20	0.00	0.00	0.00
Black Female Admin	20	11.60	0.58	1.70
White Female Admin	20	14.70	0.74	1.85

I conducted an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine if annual state discipline data for Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school years were the same. The analysis revealed $p = .158$.

Table 2.

H_O1.A: ANOVA Table Comparing 2016-27 State Discipline Data

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	7.06	3	2.35	1.79	.158	2.75
Within Groups	84.13	64	1.31			
Total	7.06	3				

I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded there was no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 1.B

H_O1.B. There is no significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

The analysis of results for Annual State Attendance data included four different combinations of urban, Midwest school administrators by race and gender. The population included a convenience sample size of 67 schools based on the categorical groups of Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female Administrators. Hypothesis H1.B descriptive results are illustrated in Table 3 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 4.

Table 3.

H1.B: Attendance Descriptive Results

Groups	Count	Sum	Mean	Variance
Black Male Admin	8	672.80	84.10	89.33
White Male Admin	19	1750.60	92.14	15.78
Black Female Admin	20	1763.50	88.18	65.84
White Female Admin	20	1724.50	86.23	73.92

I conducted an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine if annual state discipline data for urban Missouri elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year were the same. The analysis revealed $p = .038$.

Table 4.

H_O1.B: ANOVA Table Comparing 2016-2017 State Attendance Data

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	506.92	3	168.97	2.99	.038	2.75
Within Groups	3564.90	63	56.59			
Total	506.92	3				

I rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis H_A1.B. There is a significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' race and gender categories of Black male, White Male, Black Female, and White female in Missouri urban elementary schools' state attendance data for the 2016

through 2017 school year. A Fisher's Least Significant Difference Test (LSD) Post-Hoc analysis revealed a significant difference for attendance, noting a higher attendance mean score for White Male administrators (M=92.14) when compared to Black Male administrators (M=84.10) and White Female Administrators (M=86.23).

Null Hypothesis 1.C

H_O1.C. There is no significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' race and gender in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

$H_0$1.C included four categorical data areas of state annual proficiency testing results separated by Missouri State Below Basic Proficiency Data, Basic Proficiency, Proficient Proficiency Data, and Advanced Proficiency Data. The Results for each category are displayed in Tables 5, 8, 10, and 12.

$H_0$1.C: Below Basic Proficiency Data

The analysis of results for annual, state Below Basic proficiency data included four different combinations of urban, Midwest school administrators by race and gender. The population included a convenience sample size of 66 schools based on the categorical groups of Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female Administrators. Hypothesis $H_0$1.C Below Basic proficiency data descriptive results are illustrated in Table 5 and hypothesis results in Table 6.

Table 5.

H1.C: Below Basic Proficiency Data Descriptive Results

Groups	Count	Sum	Mean	Variance
Black Male Admin	8	347.51	43.44	322.29
White Male Admin	19	496.29	26.12	204.55
Black Female Admin	19	900.02	47.37	136.43
White Female Admin	20	790.32	39.52	162.68

I conducted an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine if annual state proficiency data for Below Basic for urban Missouri elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year were the same.

Table 6.

H_O1.C: ANOVA Table Comparing 2016-2017 State Proficiency Below Basic Data

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	4621.51	3	1540.50	8.32	.0001	2.75
Within Groups	11484.62	62	185.24			
Total	16106.13	65				

The analysis revealed $p < .001$; I rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative hypothesis H_A1.C: There is a significant difference between annual state proficiency Below Basic proficiency data, as determined by principals' race and gender in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. Overall, the White Male administrator population scored significantly lower in the Below Basic proficiency data category than the other three population samples during the 2016 through 2017 school year as indicated in Table 7.

Table 7.

H_O1.C: Scheffé Test Comparing 2016-2017 State Below Basic Proficiency Data

	F_s	F_{crit}	Sig?
Black Male vs. White Male	9.11	8.26	*Yes*
Black Male vs. Black Female	0.47	8.26	No
Black Male vs. White Female	0.47	8.26	No
White Male vs. Black Female	23.16	8.26	*Yes*
White Male vs. White Female	9.44	8.26	*Yes*
Black Female vs. White Female	3.24	8.26	No

A post-hoc Sheffe *r* analysis revealed $F_{crit} = 8.26$ and found a significant difference between the Black Male and White Male, White Male and Black Female, and White Male and White Female. I rejected the null hypothesis and accepted the alternative H_A 1.C: The analysis determined there was a significant difference between annual state Below Basic Proficiency data, as determined by principals' race and gender in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

$H_0$1.C: Basic Proficiency Data

The analysis of results for the annual state Basic Proficiency data included four different combinations of urban, midwest school administrators by race and gender. The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools based on the categorical groups of Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female Administrators. Hypothesis H1.C Basic Proficiency descriptive data are illustrated in Table 8 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 8.

Table 8.

H1.C: Basic Proficiency Data Descriptive Results Compared by Race and Gender

Groups	Count	Sum	Mean	Variance
Black Male Admin	8	255.08	31.89	181.35
White Male Admin	20	571.20	28.56	138.80
Black Female Admin	20	672.86	33.64	83.23
White Female Admin	20	727.29	36.36	26.24

I conducted an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine if annual state discipline data for urban Missouri elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year were the same.

Table 9.

H_O1.C: ANOVA Table Comparing 2016-2017 State Basic Proficiency Data

Source of Variation	SS	Df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	475.37	3	158.46	2.50	.068	2.75
Within Groups	3936.56	62	63.49			
Total	475.37	3				

The analysis revealed $p = .068$. The analysis determined there was no significant difference between the means of the four groups of Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female for state Basic Proficiency. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that the data were the same for all four race and gender categories for state proficiency Basic data.

$H_0$1.C: Proficient Proficiency Data

The analysis of results for annual state Proficiency data included four different combinations of urban, Midwest school administrators by race and gender. The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools based on the categorical groups of Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female Administrators. Hypothesis H1.C Proficient Proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 10 and hypothesis results in Table 11.

Table 10.

H1.C: Proficient Proficiency Data Descriptive Results Compared by Race and Gender

Groups	Count	Sum	Mean	Variance
Black Male Admin	8	221.08	27.63	36.48
White Male Admin	20	648.78	32.44	64.73
Black Female Admin	20	467.66	23.38	227.47
White Female Admin	20	516.43	25.82	105.87

I conducted an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine if annual state Proficient Proficiency data for urban Missouri elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year were the same.

Table 11.

H_O1.C: ANOVA Table Comparing 2016-2017 State Proficient Proficiency Data

Source of Variation	*SS*	*df*	*MS*	*F*	*P-value*	*F crit*
Between Groups	700.74	3	233.58	2.03	.118	2.75
Within Groups	7243.10	63	114.97			
Total	700.74	3				

The analysis revealed $p = .118$. The analysis determined there was no significant difference between the means of the four groups of Black Male, White Male, Black

Female, and White Female. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that the data were the no differences among the four groups.

H_0.C Advanced Proficiency Data

The analysis of results for annual state Proficiency Data included four different combinations of urban, Midwest school administrators by race and gender. The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools based on the categorical groups of Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female Administrators. Hypothesis H_0.C Advanced Proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 12 and hypothesis results in Table 13.

Table 12.

H1.C: Advanced Proficiency Descriptive Results Compared by Race and Gender

Groups	Count	Sum	Mean	Variance
Black Male Admin	8	83.38	10.42	647.69
White Male Admin	20	370.48	18.52	181.30
Black Female Admin	20	161.06	8.05	215.56
White Female Admin	20	174.66	8.73	69.25

I conducted an Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) to determine if annual state discipline data for urban Missouri elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year were the same.

Table 13.

H_O1.C: ANOVA Table Comparing 2016-2017 State Proficiency Advanced Data

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	P-value	F crit
Between Groups	1191.68	3	397.23	1.841	.149	2.76
Within Groups	13161.02	61	215.75			
Total	1191.66	3				

The analysis revealed $p = .149$. The analysis determined there was no significant difference between the means of the four groups of Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that the data were the same for all four race and gender categories for state proficiency Advanced data.

Hypothesis 1 Summary of Results

The ANOVA analyses determined there were no significant differences between the means of the four groups.

Table 14.

Summary Hypotheses 1 Analysis Indicating a Significant Difference

Sample State Data 2016 – 2017	Black Male Admin	White Male Admin	Black Female Admin	White Female Admin
		H_O1.A Discipline		
H1.A Discipline	*	*	*	*
		H_O1.B Attendance		
H1.B Attendance	*	Significantly *Higher* than Black Male; White Female	*	*
		H_O1.C Proficiency		
H1.C Below Basic Proficiency	Significantly *Higher* than White Male	*	Significantly *Higher* than White male	Significantly *Higher* than White male
H1.C Basic Proficiency	*	*	*	*
H1.C Proficient Proficiency	*	*	*	*
H1.C Advanced Proficiency	*	*	*	*

Note: * indicates there was not a significant difference; I failed to reject the Null Hypothesis.

Comparisons were between Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female for annual state attendance data, discipline data, and by Missouri State Below Basic Proficiency Data, Basic Proficiency, Proficient Proficiency Data, and Advanced Proficiency Data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. However, there was a significant difference in data when comparing Below Basic Proficiency Data between the Black Male and White Male, White Male and Black Female, and White Male and White Female categories.

The Hypothesis 1 analyses determined that there was a significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' race and gender in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year, for the population sample of the White Male administrator. The analysis indicated the White Male administrator had a significantly higher attendance rate (M=92.14) compared to Black Male (M=84.10) and White Female Administrators (M=86.23). The White Male administrator population also confirmed a significantly lower mean of 26% students whose proficiency scored Below Basic when compared to all other gender and race categories of Black Male, Black Female, and White Female during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Hypothesis 2 Results

Hypothesis 2 suggested that there was a difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' gender in Missouri Urban Elementary Schools during the 2016-2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 2.A

H_O2.A: There is no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

The analysis of results for annual state discipline data analysis compared urban, Midwest school administrators by gender of Male or Female gender. The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools categorized as Male or Female Administrators with a sample size of n= 28 Male Administrators and n=40 Female Administrators. Hypothesis H2.A descriptive results are illustrated in Table 15 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 16.

Table 15.

H2.A: Discipline Descriptive Data Compared by Gender Results.

	Discipline Male Admin	Discipline Female Admin
Mean	0.0024	0.0066
Standard Error	0.0016	0.0021
Standard Deviation	0.0087	0.0132
Sample Variance	0.0001	0.0002
Kurtosis	12.1786	2.5370
Skewness	3.6145	1.8734
Sum	0.0660	0.2630
Count	28.0000	40.0000
Confidence Level (95.0%)	0.0034	0.0042

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there was a difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were not equal.

Table 16.

H_O2.A: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances comparing State Discipline Data

	Discipline Male Principal	Discipline Female Principal
Mean	0.24	0.66
Variance	0.76	1.74
Observations	28	40
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Df	66	
t Stat	-1.59	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.059	
t Critical one-tail	1.668	

The analysis revealed that discipline data for male school principals (M = 0.24, SD = 0.01 were not significantly higher than those of female school principals (M = 0.66, SD = 0.01); $t(66) = -1.59$, $p = 0.059$. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there was no difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by gender of the schools' principals for the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 2.B

H_O.2.B: There is no significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 – 2017 school year.

The analysis of results for annual state attendance data analysis compared urban, Midwest school administrators by gender of male or female gender. The population included a convenience sample size of 67 schools categorized as male or Female Administrators with a sample size of n=27 Male Administrators and n=40 Female Administrators. Hypothesis H2.B descriptive results are illustrated in Table 17 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 18.

Table 17.

H2.B: Attendance Descriptive Data Compared by Gender

	Male Admin	Female Admin
Mean	89.76	87.20
Standard Error	1.35	1.31
Standard Deviation	7.00	8.31
Sample Variance	48.96	69.07
Kurtosis	2.10	1.29
Skewness	-1.45	-1.27
Sum	2423.40	3488.00
Count	27.00	40.00
Confidence Level (95.0%)	2.77	2.66

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there is a difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were not equal.

Table 18.

H_O2.B: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances Comparing Attendance by Principal Gender

	Attendance Male Principal	Attendance Female Principal
Mean	89.76	87.20
Variance	48.96	69.07
Observations	27	40
Pooled Variance	61.02	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	65	
t Stat	1.31	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.097	
t Critical one-tail	1.669	

The analysis revealed that attendance data for male school principals (M = 89.76, SD =7.00) were not significantly higher than those of female school principals (M = 87.20, SD = 8.31); $t(65) = 1.31$, $p = 0.097$. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and

concluded that there was no difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by gender of the schools' principals for the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 2.C

H_O2.C. There is no significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 School year.

Hypothesis 2.C compared four categorical data areas of state annual proficiency testing results separated by Missouri State Below Basic Proficiency Data, Basic Proficiency, Proficient Proficiency Data, and Advanced Proficiency Data. The analysis of results for annual state proficiency data analysis compared urban, Midwest school administrators by gender of male or female gender and are displayed in Tables 5, 8, 10, and 12.

$H_0$2.C: Below Basic Proficiency

The population included a convenience sample size of 66 schools categorized as male or Female Administrators with a sample size of n=27 Male Administrators and n=39 Female Administrators. Hypothesis H2.C Below Basic proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 19 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 20.

Table 19.

H2.C: Below Basic Proficiency Descriptive Data Compared by Gender

	Male Admin Below Basic	Female Admin Below Basic
Mean	31.06	43.24
Standard Error	3.27	2.05
Standard Deviation	17.01	12.80
Sample Variance	289.40	163.80
Kurtosis	-1.44	-0.41
Skewness	-0.12	-0.18
Sum	838.51	1686.30
Count	27.00	39.00
Confidence Level (95.0%)	6.73	4.15

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there was a difference between annual state proficiency Below Basic data, as determined by principals' gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were equal.

Table 20.

H_O2.C: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Male Below Basic Proficiency	Female Below Basic Proficiency
Mean	31.06	43.24
Variance	289.40	163.80
Observations	27	39
Pooled Variance	214.82	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Df	64	
t Stat	-3.32	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.001	
t Critical one-tail	1.67	

The analysis revealed that Below Basic proficiency data for female school principals (M = 43.24, SD = 12.80) were significantly higher than those of male school principals (M = 31.06, SD =17.01); $t(64) = -3.32$, $p = 0.001$. I rejected the null

hypothesis and concluded that the there was a significant difference between annual state Below Basic proficiency data, as determined by gender of schools' principals with Male Administrators as having a significantly lower Below Basic Proficiency category than the Female Administrators population samples during the 2016 through 2017 school year as indicated in Table 19.

$H_0$2.C: Basic Proficiency

The population included a convenience sample size of 66 schools categorized as male or Female Administrators with a sample size of n=27 Male Administrators and n=39 Female Administrators. Hypothesis H2.C Basic Proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 21 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 22.

Table 21.

H2.C: Basic Proficiency Descriptive Data Compared by Race and Gender

	Female Basic Proficiency	Male Basic Proficiency
Mean	35.90	30.60
Standard Error	0.78	2.09
Standard Deviation	4.86	10.86
Sample Variance	23.62	117.95
Kurtosis	0.28	1.40
Skewness	-0.34	-0.83
Sum	1400.15	826.28
Count	39	27
Confidence Level (95.0%)	1.58	4.30

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there was a difference between annual state proficiency Basic data, as determined by principals' gender in Missouri Urban Elementary Schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were not equal.

Table 22.

H_O2.C: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Male Basic Proficiency	Female Basic Proficiency
Mean	30.60	35.90
Variance	117.95	23.62
Observations	27	39
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	33	
t Stat	-2.38	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.012	
t Critical one-tail	1.692	

The analysis revealed that Basic proficiency data for female school principals (M = 35.90, SD = 4.86) were significantly higher than those of male school principals (M = 30.60, SD = 10.86); $t(33) = -2.38$, $p = 0.012$. I rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that there was a significant difference between annual state Basic proficiency data, as determined by gender of schools' principals. Male Administrators had a significantly lower mean of students who scored Basic Proficiency than Female Administrators.

$H_0$2.C: Proficient Proficiency

The population included a convenience sample size of 67 schools categorized as male or Female Administrators with a sample size of n=28 Male Administrators and n=39 Female Administrators. Hypothesis H2.C Proficient Proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 23 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 24.

Table 23.

H2.C: Proficient Proficiency Descriptive Data Compared by Race and Gender

	Male Proficient Proficiency	Female Proficient Proficiency
Mean	31.07	25.23
Standard Error	1.46	1.97
Standard Deviation	7.74	12.32
Sample Variance	59.9	151.89
Kurtosis	4.88	0.47
Skewness	-1.85	-0.89
Sum	869.86	984.08
Count	28	39
Confidence Level (95.0%)	3	4

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there was a difference between annual state Proficient Proficiency data, as determined by principals' gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were not equal.

Table 24.

H_O2.C: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Male Proficient Proficiency	Female Proficient Proficiency
Mean	31.07	25.23
Variance	59.90	151.89
Observations	28	39
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	64	
t Stat	2.38	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.010	
t Critical one-tail	1.669	

The analysis revealed that the proficiency proficient data for male school principals (M = 31.07, SD = 7.74) were significantly higher than those of female school principals (M = 25.23, SD = 12.32); $t(64) = 2.38$, $p = 0.010$. I rejected the null hypothesis

and concluded that there was a significant difference between annual state Proficient proficiency data, as determined by gender of the schools' principals.

H2.C Advanced Proficiency

The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools categorized as male or Female Administrators with a sample size of n=28 Male Administrators and n=40 Female Administrators. Hypothesis H2.C advanced proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 25 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 26.

Table 25.

H2.C: Advanced Proficiency Descriptive Data Compared by Race and Gender

	Male Advanced Proficiency	Feale Advanced Proficiency
Mean	16.21	8.39
Standard Error	3.32	1.86
Standard Deviation	17.59	11.78
Sample Variance	309.39	138.87
Kurtosis	2.42	11.10
Skewness	1.34	2.75
Sum	453.85	335.71
Count	28	40
Confidence Level (95.0%)	6.82	3.77

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there was a difference between annual state Advanced proficiency data, as determined by principals' gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were not equal.

Table 26.

H_O2.C: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Male Principal Advanced	Female Principal Advanced
Mean	16.21	8.39
Variance	309.39	138.87
Observations	28	40
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
Df	44	
t Stat	2.05	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.023	
t Critical one-tail	1.68	

The analysis revealed that the proficiency advanced data for male school principals (M = 16.21, SD = 17.59) were significantly higher than those of female school principals (M = 8.39, SD = 11.78); $t(44) = 2.05$, $p = 0.023$. I rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that there was a significant difference between annual state Advanced proficiency data, as determined by gender of the schools' principals.

Hypothesis 2 Summary of Results

The Independent *t*-test analyses determined there were no significant differences between the means of the two groups of Male and Female Administrators for annual state attendance data, discipline data, proficiency Basic, Proficient, and Advanced data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. However, there was a significant difference in data when comparing proficiency Below Basic data between the Black Male and White Male, White Male and Black Female, and White Male and White Female categories.

Table 27.

Summary Hypotheses 2 Analysis Indicating a Significant Difference

Sample State Data 2016 – 2017	Male Admin	Female Admin
H2.A Discipline	*	*
H2.B Attendance	*	*
H2.C Below Basic Proficiency	Significantly *Lower*	Significantly *Higher*
H2.C Basic Proficiency	Significantly *Lower*	Significantly *Higher*
H2.C Proficient Proficiency	Significantly *Higher*	Significantly *Lower*
H2.C Advanced Proficiency	Significantly *Higher*	Significantly *Lower*

Note: * indicates there was not a significant difference; I failed to reject the Null Hypothesis.

The Hypothesis 2 analysis determined that there was a significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year, for the population sample of the Male Administrator. The Male Administrator population confirmed a significantly lower mean of 31% of students whose proficiency scored Below Basic, and a significantly lower mean of approximately 32% of students whose proficiency scored Basic. Conversely, the Male Administrator population significantly higher mean of 31% of students whose proficiency scored pro and a significantly higher mean of approximately 16% of students whose proficiency scored Advanced Proficiency when compared to Female Administrators during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Hypothesis 3 Results

Hypothesis 3 suggested there was a difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in Missouri Urban Elementary Schools during the 2016-2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 3.A

H_O3.A: There is no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

The analysis of results for annual state discipline data analysis compared urban, Midwest school administrators by race as Black or White. The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools categorized as Black or White administrators with a sample size of n= 28 Black administrators and n=40 White administrators. Hypothesis H3. Descriptive results are illustrated in Table 28 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 29.

Table 28.

H3.A: Discipline Descriptive Compared by Black or White Race

	Black Admin	White Admin
Mean	0.65	0.3675
Standard Error	0.26	0.16
Median	0	0
Mode	0	0
Standard Deviation	1.35	1.02
Sample Variance	1.83	1.04
Kurtosis	3.05	6.21
Skewness	1.98	2.69
Sum	18.2	14.7
Count	28	40
Confidence Level (95.0%)	0.52	0.33

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there is a difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race of Black or White in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were equal.

Table 29.

H_O3.A: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Black Admin	*White Admin*
Mean	0.65	0.37
Variance	1.83	1.04
Observations	28	40
Pooled Variance	1.36	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	66	
t Stat	0.98	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.165	
t Critical one-tail	1.67	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.329	
t Critical two-tail	2.00	

The analysis revealed that discipline data for Black school principals (M = 0.65, SD =1.35 were not significantly higher than those of female school principals (M = 0.37, SD = 1.02); $t(66) = 0.98$, $p = 1.67$. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there was no difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by race of Black and White school's principals for the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 3.B

H_O.3.B: There is no significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 – 2017 school year.

The analysis of results for annual state attendance data analysis compared urban, Midwest school administrators by race of Black or White. The population included a convenience sample size of 67 schools categorized as male or Female Administrators with a sample size of n=28 Black administrators and n=39 White administrators. Hypothesis H3.B descriptive results are illustrated in Table 30 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 31.

Table 30.

H3.B: Attendance Descriptive Compared by Black or White Race

	Black	*White*
Mean	87.01	89.11
Standard Error	1.61	1.17
Median	89.85	91.9
Mode	89.8	96.6
Standard Deviation	8.54	7.31
Sample Variance	73.01	53.40
Kurtosis	2.11	0.66
Skewness	-1.42	-1.23
Sum	2436.30	3475.10
Count	28	39
Confidence Level (95.0%)	3.313	2.369

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there is a difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' race of Black or White in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were equal.

Table 31.

H_O3.B t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Black	White
Mean	87.01	89.11
Variance	73.01	53.40
Observations	28	39
Pooled Variance	61.54	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	65	
t Stat	-1.08	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.143	
t Critical one-tail	1.67	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.285	
t Critical two-tail	2.00	

The analysis revealed that attendance data for Black school principals (M = 87.01, SD =8.54 were not significantly higher than those of female school principals (M = 89.11, SD = 7.31; $t(65) = -1.07$, $p = 0.143$. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there was no difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by race of Black and White school's principals for the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 3.C

H_O3.C: There is no significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in urban Missouri schools during the 2016 through 2017 School year.

Hypothesis 3.C compared four categorical data areas of state annual proficiency testing results separated by Missouri State Below Basic Proficiency Data, Basic Proficiency, Proficient Proficiency Data, and Advanced Proficiency Data.

The analysis of results for annual state proficiency data analysis compared urban, Midwest school administrators by race of Black and White administrators and are displayed in Tables 32, 33, 34, and 35.

$H_0$3.C: Below Basic Proficiency

The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools categorized as Black or White administrators with a sample size of n=28 Black administrators and n=40 White administrators. Hypothesis H3.C Below Basic proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 32 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 33.

Table 32.

H3.C: Below Basic Proficiency Descriptive Data Compared by Black or White Race

	Black Admin	White Admin
Mean	44.37	32.06
Standard Error	3.02	2.48
Median	49.21	33.78
Mode	0	#N/A
Standard Deviation	15.98	15.66
Sample Variance	255.41	245.36
Kurtosis	2.75	-0.87
Skewness	-1.51	-0.04
Sum	1242.24	1282.57
Count	28	40
Confidence Level (95.0%)	6.20	5.01

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there was a difference between annual state proficiency Below Basic data, as determined by principals' race of Black and White in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were equal.

Table 33.

H_O3.C: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Black Admin	*White Admin*
Mean	44.37	32.06
Variance	255.41	245.36
Observations	28	40
Pooled Variance	249.47	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	66	
t Stat	3.16	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.001	
t Critical one-tail	1.67	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.002	
t Critical two-tail	1.997	

The analysis revealed that Below Basic proficiency data for Black school principals (M = 44.37, SD = 15.98) were significantly higher than those of White school principals (M = 32.06, SD =15.66); $t(66) = 3.16$, $p = 0.001$. I rejected the null hypothesis and concluded that the there was a significant difference between annual state Below Basic proficiency data, as determined by race of Black and White school principals with White administrators as having a significantly lower Below Basic Proficiency category than the Black administrator population samples during the 2016 through 2017 school year as indicated in Table 33.

H*o*3.C: The ***Basic Proficiency*** population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools categorized as Black or White administrators with a sample size of n= 28 Black administrators and n=40 White administrators. Hypothesis H3.C Basic Proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 34 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 35.

Table 34.

H3.C: Basic Proficiency Descriptive Data Compared by Race

	Black Admin	White Admin
Mean	33.14	32.46
Standard Error	1.95	1.55
Median	35.44	33.12
Mode	0	#N/A
Standard Deviation	10.31	9.80
Sample Variance	106.24	96.02
Kurtosis	6.68	2.25
Skewness	-2.55	-1.08
Range	42.37	50.18
Minimum	0	0
Maximum	42.37	50.18
Sum	927.94	1298.48
Count	28	40
Confidence Level (95.0%)	4.00	3.13

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there was a difference between annual state proficiency Basic data, as determined by principals' gender in Missouri Urban Elementary Schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were equal.

Table 35.

H_O3.C: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Equal Variances

	Black Admin	White Admin
Mean	33.14	32.46
Variance	106.24	96.02
Observations	28	40
Pooled Variance	100.202	
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	66	
t Stat	0.28	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.392	
t Critical one-tail	1.67	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.784	
t Critical two-tail	2.00	

The analysis revealed that Basic proficiency data for Black school principals (M = 33.14, SD = 10.31) were not significantly different than those of White school principals (M = 32.46 SD = 9.80); $t(66) = 0.28$, $p = 0.392$. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there was not a significant difference between annual state Basic proficiency data, as determined by race of Black and White schools' principals.

$H_0$3.C: Proficient Proficiency

The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools categorized as Black or White administrators with a sample size of n=28 Black administrators and n=40 White administrators. Hypothesis H3.C Proficient Proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 36 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 37.

Table 36.

H3.C: Proficient Proficiency Descriptive Data Compared by Race

	Black	White
Mean	24.60	29.13
Standard Error	2.49	1.54
Median	28.95	31.94
Mode	0	0
Standard Deviation	13.17	9.71
Sample Variance	173.35	94.34
Kurtosis	0.03	3.38
Skewness	-0.69	-1.78
Sum	688.73	1165.21
Count	28	40
Confidence Level (95.0%)	5.11	3.11

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there was a difference between annual state Proficiency Proficient data, as determined by principals' race of Black and White in Missouri Urban Elementary Schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were not equal.

Table 37.

H_O3.C: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Black	White
Mean	24.60	29.13
Variance	173.35	94.34
Observations	28	40
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0	
df	47	
t Stat	-1.55	
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.064	
t Critical one-tail	1.68	
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.128	
t Critical two-tail	2.01	

The analysis revealed that Proficient Proficiency data for Black school principals (M = 24.60, SD = 13.17) were not significantly different than those of White school

principals (M = 29.13, SD = 9.71); $t(47) = -1.55$, $p = 0.064$. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there was not a significant difference between annual state Proficiency Proficient data, as determined by race of Black and White school principals.

$H_0$3.C: Advanced Proficiency

The population included a convenience sample size of 68 schools categorized as Black or White administrators with a sample size of n= 28 Black administrators and n 40 White administrators. Hypothesis H3.C Advanced Proficiency descriptive results are illustrated in Table 38 and hypothesis results are displayed in Table 39.

Table 38.

H3.C: Advanced Proficiency Descriptive Data Compared by Race

	Black Male Admin- Advanced	White Male Admin- Advanced
Mean	8.73	13.63
Standard Error	3.38	1.91
Median	0	10.81
Mode	0	0
Standard Deviation	17.91	12.11
Sample Variance	320.80	146.64
Kurtosis	8.16	-0.38
Skewness	2.87	0.63
Range	72.73	44.66
Minimum	0	0
Maximum	72.73	44.66
Sum	244.44	545.13
Count	28	40
Confidence Level (95.0%)	6.95	3.87

I conducted a *t*-test of two independent means to see if there was a difference between annual state Proficiency Advanced data, as determined by principals' race of Black and White in Missouri Urban Elementary Schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. A preliminary test of variances revealed that the variances were not equal.

Table 39.

Ho3.C: t-Test: Two-Sample Assuming Unequal Variances

	Black Male Admin-Advanced
Mean	8.730
Variance	320.797
Observations	28
Hypothesized Mean Difference	0
df	44
t Stat	-1.26
P(T<=t) one-tail	0.107
t Critical one-tail	1.68
P(T<=t) two-tail	0.21
t Critical two-tail	2.02

The analysis revealed that Proficient Proficiency data for Black school principals (M = 8.73, SD =17.91) were not significantly different than those of White school principals (M = 13.63, SD = 12.11); $t(47) = -1.55$, $p = 0.107$. I failed to reject the null hypothesis and concluded that there was not a significant difference between annual state Proficiency Advanced data, as determined by race of Black and White school principals.

Hypothesis 3 Summary of Results

The Independent *t*-test analyses determined there were no significant differences between the means of the two groups of Black and White administrators for annual state attendance data, discipline data, Basic proficiency data, Proficient proficiency data, and Advanced proficiency data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. However, there was a significant difference in data when comparing Below Basic proficiency data between the Black administrators and White administrators determining White administrators as having a significantly lower Below Basic proficiency mean score and White

Administrators having a significantly higher mean score when compared to Black Administrators.

Table 40.

Summary Hypotheses 3 Analysis Indicating a Significant Difference

Sample State Data 2016 – 2017	Black Admin	White Admin
H1.A Discipline	*	*
H1.B Attendance	*	*
H1.C Below Basic Proficiency	Significantly *Higher*	Significantly *Lower*
H1.C Basic Proficiency	*	*
H1.C Proficient Proficiency	*	*
H1.C Advanced Proficiency	*	*

Note: * indicates there was not a significant difference; I failed to reject the Null Hypothesis.

Conclusion

The overall analysis concluded that the race and gender of school administrators did not make a significant difference in terms of student discipline, attendance and academic achievement. The researcher used the data from 20 schools with Black Female, eight Black Male, 20 White Female and 20 White Male school administrators for the 2016 through 2017 school year. The researcher conducted ANOVA tests and the results determined that there was no difference in discipline between the four variables. The attendance results revealed that White Males that a slightly higher attendance rate in comparison to the other three variables. The White Male administrator population also

confirmed a significantly lower mean of 26% students whose proficiency scored Below Basic when compared to all other gender and race categories during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

The researcher then looked at the gender of school administrators: Male and Female. The results of the *t*-tests determined that there were no significant differences between the means of the two groups of Male and Female Administrators for annual state attendance data, discipline data, proficiency Basic, Proficient, and Advanced data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. However, Male administrators had a significantly lower percentage of students scoring in the Below Basic range and higher percentage of students scoring in the Advanced and Proficient range in comparison to Female Administrators.

Finally, the researcher looked at the race of the school administrators: Black and White. The results of the *t*-test determined there were no significant differences between the means of the two groups of Black and White administrators for annual state attendance data, discipline data, Basic proficiency data, Proficient proficiency data, and Advanced proficiency data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. However, White administrators had a significantly lower Below Basic proficiency mean score than Black Administrators.

Chapter Five: Discussion

The purpose of this quantitative study was to examine the difference between the gender and race of school administrators and student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. The researcher used secondary data from the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2022) for 68 urban elementary schools in the State of Missouri, analyzing discipline, attendance, and proficiency data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. In Chapter Four, the researcher discussed the results of the three hypotheses in detail. Chapter Five will summarize the findings, state the implications found within the study, and provide recommendations for future research.

The researcher compared gender, race and combinations of race and gender variables and their students' annual state assessment and report data. The results were analyzed utilizing statistical testing of ANOVAs and Independent *t*-tests for difference in means. The combination of variables tested included Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female categories for Hypothesis One; gender of male and female categories for Hypothesis Two, and the Black and White race categories for Hypothesis Three. Each Hypothesis analysis compared the annual Missouri reported discipline data, attendance data and the Missouri Assessment Proficiency (MAP) data for the 2016 through 2017 school year.

The ANOVA analyses determined there were no significant differences between the means of the four groups of Black Male, White Male, Black Female, and White Female for annual state attendance data, discipline data, and by Missouri State Below Basic Proficiency Data, Basic Proficiency, Proficient Proficiency Data, and Advanced Proficiency Data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. However, there was a

significant difference in data when comparing Below Basic Proficiency Data between the Black Male and White Male, White Male and Black Female, and White Male and White Female categories.

The Independent *t*-test analyses determined there were no significant differences between the means of the two groups of Male and Female Administrators for annual state attendance data, discipline data, and proficiency in Basic, Proficient, and Advanced data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. However, there was a significant difference in data when comparing proficiency Below Basic data between the Black Male and White Male, White Male and Black Female, and White Male and White Female categories.

The Independent *t*-test analyses determined there were no significant differences between the means of the two groups of Black and White administrators for annual state attendance data, discipline data, Basic proficiency data, Proficient proficiency data, and Advanced proficiency data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. However, there was a significant difference in data when comparing Below Basic proficiency data between the Black Administrators and White Administrators, determining White Administrators as having a significantly lower Below Basic proficiency mean score and Black Administrators having a significantly higher mean score when compared to Black Administrators.

Summary of Findings and Implications

Null Hypothesis 1.A

There is no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race and gender in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 2.A

There is no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 3.A

There is no significant difference between annual state discipline data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Although the results from the ANOVA test showed that there was no difference in the discipline data, as determined by the school administrators' race and gender in urban elementary schools in Missouri, the findings from Chapter Two provided conflicting information based on numerous studies. It was documented by several researchers that Black students are less likely to engage in misconduct; however, they have received harsher discipline consequences than White or Asian students (Children's Defense Fund, 1-75; Fenning & Rose, 2007; Gregory et al., 2010; Gregory & Weinstein, 2008; Losen, 2011). Black students were suspended at a higher rate than any other race and particularly Black boys (DeMatthews et al., 2017). A case study that interviewed 10 school administrators of different races provided different perspectives on their view of discipline, their thoughts towards students and families and how they handled discipline in their schools. This information was alarming and insightful. The researcher found that some of the research findings did not support the results from the ANOVA test. Additionally, the data from DESE (Department of Elementary and Secondary Education) only showed discipline data in the urban elementary schools led by Black Males and

Black Females. There were no data for discipline in the White Male and White Female schools. While this sample was taken from 68 urban elementary schools in Missouri, future investigations into suburban, rural, and middle and high schools may provide more indicative results of disproportionate discipline rates and how the race and gender of the school administrator impact student discipline. The researcher was disappointed that the results did not align with the research to prove the disproportionate discipline rates.

Null Hypothesis 1.B

There is no significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 2.B

There is no significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 3.B

There is no significant difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

The research from Chapter Two provided insight on the link between student absenteeism and school administrators. Childs and Grooms (2018) stated that school administrators impacted student attendance directly and indirectly. Other researchers stated that school administrators affected student attendance through communication and control over policies and programs (Rogers et al., 2017; Rogers & Feller, 2018). The

research did show that student absenteeism was linked to lower test scores and high school dropout rates, specifically affecting students with disabilities and Black students and more than any other category (Liu et al., 2019; U.S. Department of Education, 2016). It was determined that school administrators affected student attendance in urban schools or high poverty schools (Bartanen, 2022). Although various research studies showed that student attendance was influenced by school administrators, there were limitations in the study that did not explicitly identify a pathway through which school administrators' gender and race impacted student attendance.

The results from the ANOVA and *t*-tests showed that there was no difference between the gender and race of school and administrators and student attendance. The population sample used to test each null hypothesis used attendance data from 68 urban elementary schools in Missouri. The Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) determined that the annual state attendance data for urban Missouri elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year were the same. The analysis revealed $p = .038$. I conducted *t*-tests of two independent means to see if there is a difference between annual state attendance data, as determined by principals' gender and race (Black and White) in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year. In terms of gender, the analysis revealed that attendance data for male school principals (M = 89.76, SD =7.00) were not significantly higher than those of female school principals (M = 87.20, SD = 8.31); $t(65) = 1.31$, $p = 0.097$. In terms of race, the analysis revealed that attendance data for Black school principals (M = 87.01, SD =8.54) were not significantly higher than those of female school principals (M = 89.11, SD = 7.31; $t(65) = -1.07$, $p = 0.143$. The results derived from testing these null hypotheses indicated that student

absenteeism was not impacted by the race and gender of school administrators. The researcher suggests further investigation of student absenteeism in urban schools including middle and high schools in comparison to those in rural and suburban schools statewide to determine if rural and suburban schools experience similar issues. If they are not experiencing these issues, then more investigation should be conducted to determine how urban schools can adopt and implement new practices to help address student absenteeism.

Null Hypothesis 1.C

There is no significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 2.C

There is no significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' gender as male or female in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

Null Hypothesis 3.C

There is no significant difference between annual state proficiency data, as determined by principals' race as Black or White in Missouri urban elementary schools during the 2016 through 2017 school year.

The research in Chapter Two, on the race and gender of school administrators was limited in terms of how those variables influenced student academic achievement (Fraser, 1979). However, it was determined that school administrators impacted students directly and indirectly (Marzano et al., 2005). The direct impact was centered around school

conditions, teacher quality and school environment (Boyd et al., 2010). The indirect impact was centered around policies, practices, and systems that were established by the school administrator (Behrstock-Sherratt & Fetters, 2012). Since the research was limited in its findings, the researcher looked at the results from the data to determine if there was a difference between the race and gender of school administrators and student academic achievement.

The results from the *t*-test analyses determined there were no significant differences between the means of the two groups of Black and White administrators for annual state Basic proficiency data, Proficient proficiency data, and Advanced proficiency data for the 2016 through 2017 school year. However, there was a significant difference in data when comparing Below Basic proficiency data between the Black Administrators and White Administrators determining White Administrators as having a significantly lower Below Basic proficiency mean score and Black Administrators having a significantly higher mean score when compared to Black Administrators.

The results from the *t*-tests were limited to a small sample population of 68 urban elementary schools in Missouri. The data had limitations that may have impacted the results. One limitation was there were only eight Missouri urban elementary schools that had Black Male school administrators. Previous research has shown that Black students score significantly lower than White or Asian students on reading and math assessments (Hardy, 2015). The inequity in this data was not surprising to the researcher. There is historical data that proves that Black students have underperformed in reading and math in comparison to their White or Asian peers. Black students, but specifically Black boys benefited from seeing Black Males in educational leadership positions (Gershenson et al.,

2017). The researcher believes the scarcity of Black Male educators is one of the issues that has impacted student academic achievement, specifically students of color.

This research has prompted a response to this epidemic. Several Black owned organizations have developed a possible solution to hiring, retaining, and training Black educators to be effective in the classroom. For example, in Kansas City, MO, *Brothers Liberating Our Communities* (BLOC) was founded in 2016, by Cornell Ellis, a retired educator. His vision was to increase Black Male educators into the education ecosystem. In St. Louis, MO, Dr. Howard Fields III, and Dr. Darryl Diggs partnered to birth the *State of Black Educators Symposium* in February 2020. Fields and Diggs (2020) stated that inclusive, diverse, equitable, anti-bias, and anti-racist practices must be intentionally embedded in learning to make sustainable positive change in education for all students. Their annual symposium aimed to address diversity, equity, and inclusion deficiencies in education, as well as how to recruit and retain black educators. This symposium is sponsored by multiple school districts in Missouri, such as: University City School District, Maplewood Richmond Heights School District, Columbia Public Schools, and Kansas City Missouri Public School District. It is also supported and sponsored by the University of Missouri St. Louis.

Dr. Trinity Davis (2021) developed her organization, *Teachers Like Me*, in Kansas City, MO, to increase Black educators by removing barriers that impacted students of color. Davis (2022) stated that only 2% of educators in public education in the United States are Black Males. In 2022, *BLOC* and *Teachers Like Me* partnered to shed light on the scarcity of Black educators in their *State and Solutions of Black Education Summit 2022.* The Missouri NAACP supported this event. These are just a few

educational organizations that were established with the task of understanding the inequities in education and trying to develop solutions to address them.

The researcher suggests further investigation into the percentage of Black educators and specifically Black male educators in rural and suburban schools, including middle and high schools in comparison to the percentage of Black students. The researcher also suggests further investigation into statewide proficiency data for urban, rural, and suburban elementary through high schools to determine if students of color are scoring significantly lower. The percentage of Black educators in comparison to student demographic and proficiency data should push the schools to revise their recruitment and retention practices, as well as address their instructional practices to make learning more culturally responsive, which could improve student outcomes.

Recommendations

The researcher has several recommendations for future research and studies. After viewing the results of the data from the sample population, the researcher believes that a larger sample size that included middle and high schools, as well as rural and suburban schools would have provided more data that closely aligned with the research findings. This may have increased the validity of the study and determined if the race and gender of school administrators impacted student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. The sample population of 68 urban elementary schools provided limited data to substantiate the claim. The researcher wanted to determine differences between the gender and race of school administrators and discipline, attendance, and student proficiency rates. The results did not show a significant number of differences, which has led to the researcher's recommendations.

The researcher viewed three student variables throughout the study: student discipline, attendance, and academic achievement. The researcher believes that future researchers should focus on one of topics in their research study, which could provide a closer look into how each variable has impacted students. In terms of student discipline, the researcher suggests that future research is conducted on student discipline data in Missouri pre-COVID and post-COVID. This research should include middle and high schools, as well as rural and suburban schools in Missouri. The data should be disaggregated by each district. It should be broken down into student subgroups based on race. It should also include the top three code of conduct violations and the race and gender of the school administrator.

The researcher believes the results of this data will align with the research findings. On the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2022) website, the discipline data is counted by the number of 10-day suspensions given to students. That data is hiding the raw discipline data by districts in Missouri. This research will be invasive; however, it will show the inequities in discipline rates in Missouri schools, which should force districts to dismantle inequitable policies and practices that target certain student subgroups. Furthermore, create actionable steps for staff to receive ongoing training on effective, inclusive discipline practices, revise the Student Code of Conduct and focus on restorative practices versus punitive practices. This could also have a positive influence on student attendance.

The researcher believes that all three variables are connected. Students can not perform to their highest potential if they are constantly fighting against a system designed for them to fail. The Department of Elementary and Secondary Education (2021)

explained that student attendance is tied to school funding in Missouri. It is important for students to be in school every day to increase their learning experiences and assist districts with securing funds for resources to provide that equitable educational experience.

The researcher suggests a future study that includes middle and high school, as well as rural and suburban schools. This future research should compare student absenteeism in urban schools to those in rural and suburban schools statewide to determine if all schools are experiencing student absenteeism. If they are experiencing similar trends, the future researcher should find other states that are thriving in student attendance and recommend that Missouri adopts those practices. Staff should be provided with ongoing training to ensure the practices are implemented with fidelity. If certain schools in Missouri are thriving, the researcher recommends that the same actions be taken to address student absenteeism. Student attendance and discipline can impact student academic achievement.

The researcher's final suggestion is centered around providing equitable educational experiences for students of color. The researcher suggests that a future nationwide study is conducted on the number of Black male educators in comparison with the percentage of Black students in the educational system in the United States. The data from that study should be compared to nationwide student proficiency data for Back students. This information will further reveal the inequities and flaws in the educational system that continue to significantly impact students of color. Future researchers should investigate and research effective recruitment and retention practices of thriving district

and recommend that districts in Missouri adopt those practices to retain Black male teachers that will become future Black school administrators.

Conclusion

The purpose of this study was to determine the difference between the race and gender of school administrators and student discipline, attendance and academic achievement. The researcher used student discipline, attendance and proficiency data from the Department of Elementary and Secondary Education for 68 urban elementary schools from the 2016 through 2017 school year. The researcher identified the race and gender of each school administrator to determine if those variables impacted student discipline, attendance and academic achievement. The research determined that school administrators had an impact on all three student variables. The results from the ANOVAs and *t*-tests provided data that showed minimal differences in terms of the race and gender of school administrators and student discipline, attendance and academic achievement.

This quantitative methods study was conducted to determine what variables strongly impacted students. The researcher was surprised that the data from the test did not align with the research. The researcher realized that a larger sample population and future recommendations could provide more data that closely aligns to the research findings. The researcher determined that inequities in education are one of the barriers that needs to be addressed based on the trends in the research. Black students were highly impacted by the inequities in the educational system. The researcher recommended that future research is conducted to identify the inequities that impact students of color and hinder them from having an equitable educational experience.

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Vitae

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Coursework: Content Literacy for Diverse Learners, Child Development and Psychology, English Teaching Methods, and Teacher Certification

Jan. 2016- Dec. 2018
LINDENWOOD UNIVERSITY- School of Evening and Graduate Degrees **ST. CHARLES, MO**
Bachelor of Science Criminal Justice
Coursework: Criminology, Policing, Constitutional Law, Criminal Law, Homeland Security, Juvenile Justice, Restorative Justice, Ethics and Leadership and Correction

PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE

Oct. 2022- Current HOPE LEADERSHIP ACADEMY KANSAS CITY, MO
Director of Academics and Assessments

- Supported and encouraged innovative instructional programs.
- Established and maintained rapport with staff, students, and parents.
- Raise the standard of academic rigor for students through frequent observation of teachers' use of instructional practices
- Leverage Resources/Strategic Collaboration: Work closely with district leaders and community partners to encourage
- Analyze and communicate teacher/student data in making intervention recommendations based on the analysis of data.

- Conduct evaluations and provide feedback for teachers to improve instruction

July 2018- Sept. 2022 KANSAS CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS KANSAS CITY, MO

Middle School and Elementary Vice Principal

- Conduct classroom observations to improve student outcomes and teacher growth
- Schedule observation feedback meetings to develop academic plans
- Ensure that teachers are teaching rigorous grade level content aligned to standards
- Facilitate data team meetings and professional development sessions
- Collect, analyze and disaggregate data and work with staff to develop interventions and implement best practices
- Assist teachers with reaching personal and professional goals
- Coordinates and oversees district wide testing

July 2017- May 2018 UNIVERSITY ACADEMY CHARTER SCHOOL KANSAS CITY, MO

8th Grade ELA Teacher/MS Theater Teacher/Head High School Volleyball Coach

- Highest MAP scores for 8th grade ELA
- Implemented aggressive monitoring strategies to ensure student mastery of skills and concepts
- Co-organized and built curriculum to improve student achievement on benchmark and state assessments
- Directed major play productions and school wide performances
- Provided training direction, encouragement, and motivation to prepare athletes for games, competitive events, and/or tournaments.
- Direct supervisor to two assistant coaches

July 2016- May 2017 SOUTHEAST MIDDLE SCHOOL ST. LOUIS, MO

8th Grade Reading Interventionist

- Implemented rigorous supplemental curriculum for struggling readers resulting in 70 students increasing Scholastic Reading Inventory scores.
- Implement reading strategies to assist students with developing reading stamina, fluency, accuracy and comprehension.

Aug. 2012- June 2016 WESTVIEW MIDDLE SCHOOL ST. LOUIS, MO

8th Grade ELA Teacher/GIRL Talk Liaison

- Led 156 students to 80% mastery of ELA standards on district benchmark assessments to gain Provisional Accreditation for the district
- Co-organized and developed curriculum for grades 6-8 targeted at subject development
- Imparted subject-specific instruction intended to bring student progress to present educational goals
- Collaborated with staff and parents to improve the quality of student outcomes and achieve objectives
- Enhanced students' understanding of ELA through the integration of technology

- Actively participated in a Professional Learning Community to collaborate with staff and administrators to enhance the student learning environment
- Implemented and organized *GIRLS Talk* program to reduce, prevent and deescalate problems and issues among female students school wide

LEADERSHIP

June 2018- Aug. 2019 PLUS- PATHWAY TO LEADERSHIP IN URBAN SCHOOLS KANSAS CITY, MO

Leadership Development and Principal Preparation

- Part of a selective Residency for promising future school leaders. Residency consists of a five-week summer institute focused on instructional leadership and management, orchestrating a culture of learning, data driven leadership, and leadership, equity and diversity.
- Received on-going coaching during the Residency year from PLUS coaches and mentor principals while participating in monthly all-cohort training days and bi-weekly critical friends group meetings.