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# Walden University

College of Social and Behavioral Sciences

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LaToya Alexander

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Walden University
2017

Abstract

The Effect of Secondary Teacher Personality on Educational Empowerment

by

LaToya Alexander

M.S., Florida Institute of Technology, 2008

B.S., University of Alabama in Huntsville, 2005

Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Philosophy Psychology

Walden University

March 2017

Abstract

Past research has shown a relationship between teachers' personalities and their ability to motivate students to perform, suggesting that teacher behaviors are the most important catalysts for student empowerment. This descriptive quantitative research bridged a knowledge gap by assessing the statistical significance of the relationship between secondary teacher personality types, as measured by the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) assessment, and their ability to academically empower their students, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama. A convenience sample of 334 secondary educators completed the MBTI assessment and reported EDUCATEAlabama empowerment scores. A comparison of Title 1 high school and non-Title 1 high school data, via *t* tests, was assessed against each dichotomous MBTI scale. These tests determined that the only significant difference between personality preferences of the two sets of teachers was on the Judging-Perceiving scale. The *t* tests also assessed that there were no significant differences in empowerment scores on each dichotomous continuum for each group of teachers. The results of the study positively affects social change by showing that it is possible to achieve equity in the distribution of teachers' personality types. This balance sets the foundation for quality education for all students, thereby increasing the number of successful students and decreasing student dropout rates.

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# Dedication

"Nothing will change unless I attempt to change it. I only fail if I don't try, but when I succeed; I will change the world." #thatblessedgirl

The completion of this dissertation is attributed first and foremost to my belief that with God, all things are possible! There is no greater place to be than under the shadow of the Almighty Father!

There have been countless people who have supported me throughout this educational, spiritual, and emotional journey. However, I must dedicate this dissertation to my brother, my rock, my friend, my Zan; a true reflection of the love that I know God has for me. Proverbs 17:17 says in the King James Version of The Bible that "a friend loveth at all times, and a brother is born for adversity." God gave me a twin brother who would hold me up when I couldn't even stand. He has celebrated with me, laughed with me, and cried with me and for me. He never ceases to lift me up in prayer, speak to my spirit, and nourish my soul. No matter how much distance has separated us, I always knew that if I could just get to my brother that I would always be safe and protected. Thank you, Darvin McDaniel, just for being you.

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Throughout this educational and emotional journey, I have received an overwhelming amount of support and encouragement from several individuals. Dr. Michelle Ross has been a mentor, colleague, and friend. Her guidance, love, patience, and understanding have made this an amazingly rewarding journey. I would like to offer special thanks to the other members of my dissertation committee: Dr. Jimmy Brown, Dr. Marlon Sukal, and Dr. Debra Davenport, for their support as I moved from a concept to a completed study.

In addition, Dr. Kristin Walker provided needed encouragement and insight, entertained my questions, and sent e-mail after e-mail to keep me motivated. Special thanks to Dr. Barbara Cooper, Dr. John Humphrey, and Dr. Ann Roy Moore who offered me their time and support. They truly exemplify the high quality of administration that the Huntsville City School system needs and its students deserve. Finally, I would like to thank the teachers who took part in this study for generously sharing their time and ideas.

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# Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

## Introduction

The main constant of today's society is change. Technology is always evolving and people must learn to do the same. This adaptation can be more difficult to accomplish without a high school diploma as Davis and Dupper (2004) reported that "only 15% of jobs today call for unskilled labor and even in those jobs, a high school graduate is preferred" (p. 180). Numerous Government programs have sought to improve the quality of education through the constant reorganization of school systems or the concept of training (and sometimes retraining) teachers (Drake, 2010; Metz, 1983; Willie, 2000). The student-teacher relationship is instrumental in getting a child to learn in the classroom and feel empowered in life to be able to move forward toward success (Drake, 2010; Metz, 1983; Willie, 2000). In this study, I attempted to identify some teacher characteristics that could contribute to the student-teacher relationship and ultimately to student success. I sought to assess the ability of secondary teachers to actually empower their students. The implications for positive social change as a result of this study include information that will aid in increasing the number of successful students, increasing student graduation exam scores, decreasing student dropout rates, and helping to improve the teacher hiring process.

In this chapter, I will offer further explanation of the research problem and its social and economic affects. Furthermore, in this chapter, I will outline the purpose of the study and questions to which it provided answers. Additionally, I will summarize the boundaries of this study and describe its theoretical foundation.

## Background of the Study

Nationally, 69% of high school dropouts reported that they did not feel encouraged by their teachers and lacked sources of motivation while in high school and these feelings contributed to their decisions to discontinue their education (Bridgeland, DiIulio, & Morison, 2006). Some researchers believe it is possible that the negative attitudes and behaviors of secondary students could be a result of internal distress and emotional instability resulting from depressive tendencies and poor peer relationships (Hilt, Cha, & Nolen-Hoeksema, 2008). Additionally, Mazzone et al. (2007) reported that levels of anxiety, as measured by the Multidimensional Anxiety Scale for Children, were negatively correlated to grades and those levels increased as students matriculated through school. The research supported the idea that the higher students' levels of anxiety, the lower their grades will be (Mazzone et al., 2007). Mazzone et al. concluded that high levels of childhood anxiety can cause decreased educational achievement.

While it is acknowledged that there can be many factors that contribute to a student's decision to drop out of school, in this study I explored solely the contribution of teacher personality to student empowerment. Rushton, Morgan, and Richards (2007) argued that the personality of a student's teacher is enough to predict that student's educational achievement. It was established in the study that there was a significant difference in personality types of teachers who were members of a group believed to be effective at empowering students (Rushton et al., 2007). However, these assessments were made with respect to student achievement and not based on actual evidence of the teachers' ability to empower (Rushton et al., 2007). Frymier et al. (1996) asserted that the role of a teacher is to nurture a culture of proficiency in students, thereby enabling students to feel as though they can have an impact on society. They further argued that teacher actions are the sole inspiration for student empowerment (Frymier, Shulman, & Houser, 1996). However, Frymier et al. did not explore how different personalities will empower.

Since many secondary students reported that they did not feel empowered to be academically successful, I conducted this study based on the high school dropouts who attributed their decision to a lack of feeling engaged in the classroom (Bridgeland et al., 2006). As research has proved that teachers empower and that certain personality types are more likely to be teachers, in this

study I sought to bridge the gap by showing which personality type of teachers are more likely to empower (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010; Davis, 2010; Davis & Dupper, 2004; Drake, 2010; Garcia, Kupczynski, & Holland, 2011). Frymier et al. (1996) asserted that teacher conduct was the sole catalyst for student empowerment. Even students with high levels of anxiety can be empowered by their teachers (Houser & Frymer, 2009).

Teacher communication styles may differ depending on Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) personality preferences on each of the continuums. McCroskey, Richmond, and Bennett (2006) argued that the communication styles of teachers can influence student motivation. Specifically, when material was plainly presented with matching verbal and nonverbal cues, students were more likely to engage in positive, academically ambitious behaviors (McCroskey et al., 2006). MBTI personality can be a key factor in predicting communication style as illustrated by MBTI reports which include communication preferences specific to the indicated type (Emanuel, 2013).

## Problem Statement

There is a problem within high schools' organizational leadership as it relates to the teacher-student relationship (Mayes, 2005). Despite the intent by secondary teachers to effectively engage students, there can be a mismatch between teacher-perceived and student-perceived instructional effectiveness

(Bridgeland et al., 2006; Mayes, 2005). This problem negatively impacts the student-teacher relationship because it affects the students' ability to meet teachers' expectations of performance and interaction and negatively affects the teachers' ability to meet the students' expectations of motivation and direction (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010; Davis & Dupper, 2004; Frymier et al., 1996; Houser & Frymier, 2009). Furthermore, the lack of ability of a secondary teacher to empower a student may lead that student to a decision to drop out of high school (Bridgeland et al., 2006). A possible cause of the inability of a secondary teacher to motivate students is that teachers with certain Myers-Briggs personality preferences may be more likely to effectively empower their students (Brightman, 2013; Rushton et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 2004).

In this study, I sought to pinpoint the characteristics of teachers who contributed to student empowerment by assessing the ability of a secondary teacher to actually empower students to succeed. When high school teachers fail to empower secondary students, students are more likely to make a decision to discontinue the pursuit of their education and drop out of school (Davis & Dupper, 2004; Frymier et al., 1996; Houser & Frymier, 2009). While much research has been conducted on teacher personality types, it has not been thoroughly examined as to how those types differ with regard to actual teacher performance in the area of empowerment.

## Purpose of the Study

Past research has shown that a lack of empowerment in high school dropouts may have been fueled by other correlated factors such as economic status, quality of education, and the presence or absence of religious beliefs in the home (Wright-Smith, 2005). There is also the chance that a lot of these drop out decisions are the results of behaviors that were formed by the process of observational learning that Locke and Newcomb (2004) discussed where learning can occur through simply studying behavior without verbal reinforcement, meaning that some students may not have been academically successful because they were mimicking other people's behaviors. Verona and Sachs-Ericsson (2005) reported how destructive behavior by parents can have detrimental effects on the children. Some students who developed this lack of empowerment did so because they were following the examples set forth by their parents (Verona & Sachs-Ericsson, 2005). These students were engaging in the same action (or lack thereof) that they saw their parents engage in for the students' entire lives (Verona & Sachs-Ericsson, 2005). Additionally, McHale, Whiteman, Kim, and Crouter (2007) suggested that negative relationships with siblings, even in a household where both parents are present and conduct productive lives, can cause negative behaviors and attitudes to become prevalent in some of the siblings.

While there can be many factors that contribute to a student's decision to drop out of school, the purpose of this descriptive quantitative research was to examine secondary teacher personality types as contributing factors to their ability to empower high school students. In the study, I assessed whether or not statistical significance exists within the constructs of the MBTI personality types of Alabama secondary teachers who teach at both Title 1 and non-Title 1 schools and whose EDUCATEAlabama assessments indicate an effective score on student empowerment objectives. Further analysis also helped determine (a) if there were differences between subjects of teacher MBTI personality types of those in Title 1 schools versus those in non-Title 1 schools and (b) if certain types were more likely to empower students.

## Research Questions and Hypotheses

I derived the following research questions and hypotheses from the review of existing literature in the area of high school graduation exam scores and dropout rates, secondary teacher personality, and student empowerment. There will be a more detailed discussion of the nature of the study in Chapter 3.

Research Question 1: Is there a significant difference between personality types, as measured by the MBTI assessment, of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools?

$H_o1$: There is no significant difference between personality types, as measured by the MBTI assessment, of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools.

$H_a1$: There is a significant difference between personality types, as measured by the MBTI assessment, of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools.

Research Question 2: Is there a significant relationship between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, and personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o2$: There is no significant relationship between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, and personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, as measured by the MBTI assessment.

$H_a2$: There is a significant relationship between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, and personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, as measured by the MBTI assessment.

Research Question 3: Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of extraverted and introverted secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o3$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of extraverted and introverted secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a3$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for extraverted secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for introverted secondary teachers.

Research Question 4: Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of sensing and intuitive secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o4$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of sensing and intuitive secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a4$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for sensing secondary teachers, as measured by the

MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for intuitive secondary teachers.

Research Question 5: Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of thinking and feeling secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o5$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of thinking and feeling secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a5$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for thinking secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for feeling secondary teachers.

Research Question 6: Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of judging and perceiving secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o6$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of judging and perceiving secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a6$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for judging secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for perceiving secondary teachers.

## Theoretical Base

There are many theories about personality and its effects on various aspects of human existence as well as a number of assessments used to measure personality (Bing, LeBreton, Davison, Migetz, & James, 2007). Michael (2003) explained how the evaluation of personality types can be utilized to predict how a leader will tend to act in his or her role. Michael's study examined how students respond to those leadership behaviors as exhibited by their high school teachers. Rodgers (2008) discussed the importance of finding and nurturing the source of motivation in the student population. Further, Garcia et al. (2011) found that there was a significant relationship between teacher personality styles and secondary student success.

It is evident that there are many factors that can contribute to the education and empowerment of an individual (e.g., emotional, psychological, and social issues). However, it is important that a person first understands his or her unique characteristics and assets. This self-understanding can promote the development and maintenance of human interaction that will facilitate necessary

social progression (Davis, 2010). Fairhurst and Fairhurst (1995) made the argument that teachers who understand the unique nature of their own personality also understand the unique nature of student personalities and how they translate into unique learning methods. Further, the argument can be made for relationships between teacher personality and caring, burnout, leadership, and response to change (Rushton et al., 2007; Teven, 2007). Personality combines a number of influences to direct how an individual will perceive and respond to the outside world (Davis, 2010). The theoretical framework of this research was rooted in Jung's 1921 personality type theory as measured by the MBTI assessment. The MBTI assessment was designed to explain and implement fundamental personality type theory (Myers et al., 1998). Jung proposed the realization of two pairs of cognitive functions: the *rational* (judging) functions of thinking and feeling and the *irrational* (perceiving) functions of sensing and intuition (Quenk, 2009). Based on the findings of completed research, Jung argued that these utilities exist in either an introverted or an extroverted style (Quenk, 2009). Myers and Briggs developed their own psychological type theory on which they based the MBTI assessment, adding the construct functions of judging and perceiving that would become the fourth letter in the MBTI type (Myers et al., 1998; Schneider, 2008). Key to this study was the idea that preferences in personality may affect a secondary teacher's ability to empower

his or her students. In Chapter 2, I will offer a more in-depth look at how secondary teacher personality affects student empowerment and learning.

## Definition of Terms

*EDUCATEAlabama:* EDUCATEAlabama uses a "portfolio-style evaluation process" that includes teacher self-assessments, teacher and principal observations, principal mentoring and coaching, and principal evaluations (A. Moore, personal communication, July 1, 2012; EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013, EDUCATEAlabama At A Glance section, para. 1). At the beginning of each school year, teachers and their principals agree on proposed objectives as a means to meet standards for the school year. Teachers document these objectives in their "Professional Development Plan" that will be maintained for the school year (A. Moore, personal communication, July 1, 2012; J. Humphrey, personal communication, July 1, 2012; EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013). Through the course of the school year, teachers also document their preyear principal conferences, their own classroom observations and notes, and their postyear principal conferences (EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013). Principals use EDUCATEAlabama rubrics to award scores based on the documented teacher activities and assessments (Alabama State Department of Education, 2011; EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013). EDUCATEAlabama scores are maintained by

each teacher and later reported to the state board of education to be included in sate report released for public viewing (EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013).

First launched during the 2009–2010 school year, EDUCATEAlabama is "a formative system designed to provide information about an educator's current level of practice within the Alabama Continuum for Teacher Development, which is based on the Alabama Quality Teaching Standards (AQTS), *Alabama Administrative Code* §290-3-3-.04" (EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013, EDUCAREAlabama At A Glance section, para. 1). For the purposes of this study, empowerment data were collected from a subset of AQTS which are maintained and measured in the EDUCATEAlabama database (EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013). In the study, I focused on "Standard 2: Using Instructional Strategies to Engage Learners." The substandards are as follows:

2.1: Develops challenging, standards-based academic goals for each learner using knowledge of cognitive, social, and emotional development

2.2: Engages learners in developing and monitoring goals for their own learning and behavior

2.3: Designs coherent lessons that integrate a variety of appropriate and effective instructional strategies

2.4: Creates learning activities that optimize each individual's growth and achievement within a supportive environment.

(EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013, The Standards and Indicators of the Continuum section, para. 2)

The Alabama State Department of Education (2011) provides specific definitions for the scores awarded according to the EDUCATEAlabama rubric:

1. At the *Emerging* level of practice, teachers draw upon ongoing assistance and support from a mentor and other experienced colleagues to expand and enrich their knowledge and skills. These teachers utilize teaching theories and episodic classroom experiences to adjust and modify instruction. Emerging teachers become increasingly self-directed and independent in their professional practice, which is focused on their classrooms and each student therein (p. 8).
2. At the *Applying* level of practice, career teachers operate at high levels of autonomy, internalizing and applying what they have learned about effective teaching. Utilizing their heightened awareness of students' academic and behavioral patterns, career teachers anticipate students' learning needs and responsively contextualize classroom experiences, both in the moment and in instructional planning. Career teachers

systematically collect and use data to demonstrate the impact of their teaching on student achievement. They build upon varied professional learning opportunities to enhance personal practice while working collaboratively with colleagues to advance student learning (p. 8).

3. At the *Integrating* level of practice, accomplished teachers cultivate the classroom as a community of learners in which students are engaged and motivated. They skillfully adjust practice in response to various contexts. Their highly developed skills and self-efficacy enable them to integrate complex elements of curriculum, instruction, and assessment to maximize student engagement and learning. Their students consistently demonstrate increases in learning and achievement. Teachers at the Integrating level are also leaders among peers; they collaborate reflectively in learning communities to move classroom and schoolwide practices forward through aligned professional learning. Teachers at this level of practice guide apprentice and intern teachers, mentor beginning teachers, coach peers, assume leadership roles, and otherwise work to guide and develop colleagues (p. 8).
4. At the *Innovating* level of practice, teacher leaders are consistently creating in all areas of teaching and learning. They facilitate the complex integration of teaching and learning among teachers at all

> levels of practice and continue to innovate in their own teaching to support increases in student learning and achievement. Innovating teachers initiate and provide leadership for collaborative learning communities that are engaged in such activities as enhancing curriculum, developing innovative instructional delivery techniques, and fostering positive learning cultures in a variety of educational settings. Leaders in the school, district, and local community, teachers at the Innovating level often lead professional learning and classroom-based research activities, write for professional print-based and electronic journals, or otherwise contribute to the broader education community (p. 9).

*Empowerment:* The ability to develop effective success strategies from a feeling that personal viewpoints are of value (Wright, Perez, & Johnson, 2010). Further, the Empowerment Pastor defines empowerment as "receiving the enlightenment through knowledge that no situation or circumstance is as permanent as one may believe" (D. Moss, personal communication, July 3, 2012). For the purpose of this study, empowerment data were collected from a subset of Alabama Quality Teaching Standards (AQTS) which are maintained and measured in the EDUCATEAlabama database. Student empowerment is specifically teachers "using instructional strategies to engage learners"

(EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013, The Standards and Indicators of the Continuum section, para. 2).

*Highly qualified teachers:* The state of Alabama defines a highly qualified secondary teacher as one who "holds a Class A or Class AA Professional Educator Certificate, has passed the appropriate Praxis II test, and has an undergraduate and graduate degree in the subject area" (Alabama State Department of Education, 2012, Background Information section, para. 1). From the research, highly qualified teachers are those who are factual, sensible, methodical, and seek finite solutions to complex problems (Fairhurst & Fairhurst, 1995; Gordon, 2000; Kroeger et al., 2002; Myers et al., 1998; Myers & Myers, 1995).

*Non-Title 1 schools:* These schools receive no additional federal funding and are assessed to already have highly qualified teachers in their classrooms (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a).

*Title 1 schools:* Per Title 1, Part A of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, "Improving the Academic Achievement of the Disadvantaged" supports programs and resources for disadvantaged students. Title 1 A funding is designed to aid districts in closing the achievement gap by placing highly qualified teachers in classrooms" (U.S. Department of Education, 2011, Program Description section, para. 1). Federal grants are given to these schools in an attempt to allow for equal hiring opportunities for qualified teachers at all

schools and quality learning opportunities for all students (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). Grants are distributed to institutions in which at least 40% of enrolled students are from geographical areas in the district which are determined to have the lowest "per capita income" based on census assessments (U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

## Assumptions

In this study, I assumed that the willingness of the participants to complete the questionnaires did not bias the study. It was also assumed that the teachers who participated in the study completed the questionnaires truthfully and to the best of their ability. Further, I assumed that a secondary teacher would possess the education and knowledge relevant to understanding the study and the assessment. After a review of the literature and the standards of education in the state of Alabama, it was also assumed that the previously stated EDUCATEAlabama standards were appropriate measures for empowerment or the ability of teachers to motivate students to completion of a high school degree. Student empowerment was presented as one of the key factors in decreasing high school dropout rates (Frymier et al., 1996).

Secondary teachers were identified as the primary catalysts for student success (Rushton et al., 2007). In the study, I focused on teachers in a district where Title 1 schools are openly and readily identified via the district's website

(Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). Much research has been conducted to support the need for highly qualified teachers in all classrooms especially since the mandate of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). In this study, I proposed statistical differences between personality types between teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools in order to make assertions about the possibly to achieve equity, at least in the distribution of teachers' personality types, across a school district.

## Scope and Delimitations

I presumed that the MBTI assessment would be the most appropriate means for measuring the designated variables in this study. Although many psychologists in academia are critics of the MBTI assessment in investigative research, supporters of the inventory use qualitative evidence of individual's behavior to argue that the personality type indicator's reliability values often converge with those of other psychological measures (Myers et al., 1998; Pittenger, 2005). Rollins (1990) also used the MBTI assessment to analyze learning styles in a classroom setting. I will provide further discussion of the consistency, validity, and reliability of the MBTI assessment in Chapter 3.

The generalizability of the study was limited to the accessible population. Though the sampling was random, the study may not be representative of all teachers in all districts. The participants in the study were a sample of high

school teachers from the Huntsville City School system in Huntsville, Alabama. These teachers covered a vast range of ethnic backgrounds, ages, and education levels; but were not necessarily representative of teachers across the nation (Alabama State Department of Education, 2010). Another delimitation was that the research could only draw conclusions about personality on the four dichotomous scales referencing extraverts, sensors, feelers, and judgers versus introverts, thinkers, sensors, and perceivers respectively. I performed a power analysis using effect sizes from related studies and found that the study would require at least 100 participants per sample (Bhardwaj et al., 2010; Bissonnette, 2011; Burkholder, n.d.; Judge et al., 2002). To draw conclusions about the relationship between the 16 four-letter MBTI personality types, there would have to be at least 100 participants for each four-letter personality type. This may be an opportunity for future research.

## Limitations

There were additional limitations to this research study. First, the research could only make assertions about the relationships between variables. The research could not make definite conclusions about causality (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Ou, 2008). Second, if participants in this study had previously taken the MBTI assessment, testing becomes a threat to internal validity. Previous exposure to the MBTI assessment could affect responses on a second

MBTI assessment. Certain participants may become more or less sensitive to the assessment based on whether or not they have been previously exposed to the assessment (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007; Kenny, 1987). The demographic questionnaire asked the teachers whether or not they have previously taken the assessment. The data analysis only included teachers who had not previously taken the assessment. In order to reduce the effects of recall error, teachers were asked to focus specifically on the 2013–2014 school year and their experiences during that particular time. Scores for the EDUCATEAlabama standards were reported by the teachers from their databases that are maintained throughout their school-teaching careers.

The idea of construct validity involves whether or not a particular test measures its intended concept (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007). In this study, the MBTI assessment could only measure the preferences of the teachers on each independent scale and not necessarily the collective differences in type. Further, the statistical analysis could only investigate significant differences and could not indicate that one preference is necessarily better than another (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007; Kenny, 1987; Myers et al., 1998).

## Significance of the Study

Brown, Rocha, and Sharkey (2005) previously summed up the importance of quality education:

> We must ensure that all American children – regardless of race, ethnicity, income, native language, or geographic location – are afforded access to high-quality schools that will enable them to participate in the promised opportunity of the American dream. Failure to do so will only lead to greater division in the country between the "have" and the "have-nots", which history tells us can have disastrous consequences. (p. iii)

This research will contribute to the success of the Alabama economy, since the Southern Education Foundation (2008) "links the problems of high school dropouts directly to Alabama's lagging economy during the last three decades" (n.p.). If an argument can be made that teacher personality contributes to student motivation, human resource departments can incorporate personality assessments into the teacher hiring process and determine which of the candidates' behavioral preferences can be nurtured in order to contribute to student success short-term and enrich the state's economy long-term. The implications for positive social change include knowledge that will aid in increasing the number of successful students, increasing student graduation exam scores, decreasing student dropout rates, and helping to improve the teacher hiring process. In Chapter 2, I will further discuss the link of education to student empowerment and the economic impact of higher rates of high school dropouts in the state of Alabama.

## Summary and Transition

Student empowerment is one of the key factors in decreasing high school dropout rates (Rushton et al., 2007). Further, secondary teachers are the primary catalysts for student success (Frymier et al., 1996). Much research has been conducted to support the need for highly qualified teachers in all classrooms especially since the mandate of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). Usually, the research reports the characteristics and behaviors of effective teachers and how they map to personality types (Bhardwaj et al., 2010; Bissonnette, 2011; Burkholder, n.d.; Judge et al., 2002). In this study, I sought to identify the specific MBTI personality preferences of secondary teachers and explore their contribution to student success based on the fact that they have already scored high on an empowerment scale. In Chapter 2, I will summarize a review of relevant literature that supports the need for this research. Chapter 3 will follow and there I will describe the research design, the sample population, data collection, and analysis. In Chapter 4, I will discuss specific results of the study. Finally, in Chapter 5, I will explain applications and conclusions relating to the study.

# Chapter 2: Literature Review

## Introduction

In this literature review, I will establish the need for continued research concerning the factors that may contribute to high school students' empowerment as personified by their decision to either pursue and achieve a high school diploma or make a decision to drop out of school. The theoretical framework of this dissertation was rooted in Jung's 1921 personality type theory as measured by the MBTI assessment. Key to this theory is the idea that preferences in personality will affect a secondary teacher's ability to empower his or her students.

Research to support this dissertation appears both in newer peer-reviewed journals as well as in established journals and reference books. I conducted a search of literature digitally across approximately 24 months (from June 2011 through July 2013) via Walden University Library's electronic psychology and educational databases such as PsycINFO, PsycARTICLES, ERIC, and Education Research Complete as well as through the Google Scholar search engine. The list of search terms I used to conduct the literature search included: *personality type theory, MBTI, high school dropout rates, secondary teacher personality, highly qualified teachers, effective leadership behaviors,* and *student empowerment*.

In this chapter, I will provide a review of Jung's personality trait theory and its evolution into the MBTI assessment as well as a discussion of the characteristics of highly qualified teachers. In addition, in this chapter I will address the research on the process of empowerment and how it combats high school dropout rates and their impact on both national and state economy. At the conclusion of this chapter, I will summarize secondary (high school) teacher personality as it relates to the concept of student empowerment.

## Personality Trait Theory

Moore and Fine (1968) presented psychoanalysis as a set of ideas rooted in the study of human function and behavior. Over the years, psychoanalysis has had three main applications. It has sought to investigate the mind, create beliefs about human behavior, and treat psychological or emotional disorders (Richards & Lynch, 2008). Freud was the originator of the school of thought that is known as psychoanalysis (Richards & Lynch, 2008). There were many that came after Freud, but one clinician of note is Jung. According to Davis and Mattoon (2006), Jung emphasized the importance of balance and harmony in the human psyche. Jung believed in the importance of recognizing the collective unconscious (Davis & Mattoon, 2006). Jung was once a student of Freud, but Jung's analytical psychology theory opposed much of Freud's work (Davis & Mattoon, (2006). Jung's theory became the basis for the modern-day MBTI assessment (Myers et

al., 1998). Psychoanalytical studies have evolved from primitive research to personality types and measures (Myers et al., 1998).

In 1921, Jung published a book called *Psychological Types* (Quenk, 2009). The book explained Jung's typological theories and would become the basis for the MBTI assessment (Saltzman, 2008). The MBTI assessment was designed to explain and implement fundamental personality type theory, which is the theory of psychological type as originally developed by Jung (Myers et al., 1998).

Many researchers argued that Jung's personality trait theory was the result of an evolution of Freud's theory (Cancelmo, 2009). Freud developed a theory of how the human psyche interprets the world and described how the human mind internally operates (Cancelmo, 2009). Freud's theory also strived to explain how the mind adapts and responds to its psychological environment (Cancelmo, 2009). As result of this research, Freud was led to favor certain clinical techniques for attempting to help cure psychopathology (Cancelmo, 2009). Freud theorized that human development primarily occurs during childhood and remains relatively unchanged through adulthood (Cancelmo, 2009). According to Frank (2000), the goal of Freud's therapy—known as psychoanalysis--was to bring into conscious awareness previously repressed subconscious thoughts and feelings. The goal of the therapy was to relieve

suffering of the patient caused by perverse recollections of these thoughts and feelings (Frank, 2000).

Based on the principles of Darwin, Freud represented the personality as the sum of parts (types) and not as a greater whole (Frank, 2000). Bornstein (2006) reported that psychoanalysis had become the primary basis for the diagnosis and treatment of personality disorders (PDs). In line with Freud's theory, PDs could typically be traced back to an unresolved, unconscious conflict (Bornstein, 2006). The problems that Freud identified evolved into other present-day problems and disorders such as dependencies (Bornstein, 2006). Freud's theory served as the basis for the development of tests that measure the strength of human defense mechanisms (Bornstein, 2006). These mechanisms are what define human social behavior and social preferences (Langan, 2008). More modern research on the treatment of PDs described the emphasis of genetics as the basis for diagnosis and treatment (Clarkin, Cain, & Livesley, 2015).

Although Jung's research was based on Freud's teachings, Jung developed a distinctive approach to the study of the human psyche (Coan, 1987). Spending early years in a Swiss hospital working with schizophrenic patients and working with Freud, Jung took an intricate look at the very depths of the human unconscious (Coan, 1987). Jung was fascinated by what was discovered and was further encouraged by the experiences and uncertainties of personal life

experiences (Coan, 1987). Jung then began dedicating time to the exploration of the psychological unconscious (Noll, 1997). The difference between Jung and other modern psychologists was that Jung did not believe in experiments using natural science as a means of understanding the human mind (McGuire, 1995).

Freud's model divided the personality into traits that can be measured as psychological constructs (Davis & Mattoon, 2006). Like Freud, Jung (1921) argued that trait theory defined personality as a sum of certain types (Davis & Mattoon, 2006). Davis and Mattoon (2006) argued that psychoanalytical tests such as the Gray-Wheelwright Jungian Type Survey have been developed to measure the personality traits of individuals. Results of these tests can be instrumental in the diagnosis and treatment of PDs (Davis & Mattoon, 2006). Although these measures have proven to be reliable and valid over time, the results vary across cultures (Davis & Mattoon, 2006).

The ultimate goal of what would become known as Jungian psychology is the reconciliation of the harmony of the individual with the surrounding world (Maaske, 2002). The source of this harmony is the individual's encounter with the unconscious (Maaske, 2002). Jung believed that humans experience the unconscious through symbols encountered in all aspects of life; whether by dreams, art, religion, or the symbolic acts created in relationships and other human-to-human interactions (Maaske, 2002). Essential to the encounter with

the unconscious and the reconciliation of the harmony of the individual's consciousness with this greater world is learning the meaning behind the dramatic symbolism (Richards, 2008). Harmony can only be achieved through vigilance and willingness to actively seek out the harmony with the surrounding world (Richards 2008).

Rice (1990) explained that Jung's primary disagreement with Freud stemmed from their differing concepts of the unconscious. Jung saw Freud's theory of the unconscious as incomplete and unnecessarily negative (Rice, 1990). According to Jung (though not according to Freud), Freud conceived the unconscious solely as a repository of repressed emotions and desires (Rice, 1990). Jung agreed with Freud's model of the unconscious (what Jung called the personal unconscious) but Jung also proposed the existence of a second unconscious, underlying far deeper than the personal one (Rice, 1990). Jung called this the collective unconscious, where the basic building blocks of the human psyche resided (Rice, 1990). Freud believed that there were collective levels of psychological functions, but these levels only severed as secondary processes to the rest of the human psyche—an appendix of sorts (Brown & Donderi, 1986). Jung argued that the collective unconscious comprised beliefs of the human psyche shared by all human beings, and this idea become the basis of his personality theory (Jung, 1921, 1947).

**Jung and Education**

According to Mayes (2005), Jung developed theories about teacher-student relationships as they related to education. Jung believed that the teacher-student relationship was one that was fundamental in nature (Mayes, 2005). The educator can help the student uncover basic information needed to be a fully-functioning human being (Mayes, 2005). Education is necessary for mere existence and each person must be involved in the process (Mayes, 2005).

Jung also believed that an educational system should not be created simply to serve the social group (Mayes, 2005). In other words, education should strive to nurture the child at each stage of development (Mayes, 2005). Education should grow the human psyche, increase the knowledge base, and develop the students' personal beliefs (Mayes, 2005). Education should go beyond the simple concept of supply and demand and seek to produce a complex individual by teaching students to question simple reason (Mayes, 2005).

Jung asserted that failure presents opportunities for teaching moments to nurture the students and provide them with strategies to eliminate academic and personal barriers (Mayes, 2005). In that way, education is a curative task set up to aid students while making the psychological and social evolution from youth to young adulthood (Mayes, 2005). This transition can happen smoothly only

when the student understands not only the technical facts but also the care-giving nature of the educator (Mayes, 2005).

**Highly Qualified Teachers**

Rushton et al. (2007) argued that the personality of a student's teacher is enough to predict that student's educational achievement. Furthermore, the researchers reported that it takes only one ineffective teacher in a student's educational career to adversely influence his or her ability to learn. Bhardwaj et al. (2010) agreed that people's personalities are defined by the differences in the way they perceive their environment. Because these disparities affect the way people learn, they should also affect the way people teach (Bhardwaj et al., 2010). Using the MBTI form M (a 93-item inventory), the researchers investigated patterns of personality types among those who would eventually become educators (Bhardwaj et al., 2010). The researchers discovered that the largest percent of future teachers preferred type Extraversion Sensing Thinking Judging (ESTJ): E = 62.8%, S = 59.8%, T = 56.6%, and J = 73.2% (Bhardwaj et al., 2010). In addition, the majority of future teachers had preferences that defined either an Extraversion Sensing Thinking Judging (ESTJ) or Introversion Sensing Thinking Judging (ISTJ) personality type with the least preferred types being Introversion Intuition Feeling Perceiving (INFP) and Introversion Sensing Feeling Perceiving (ISFP; Bhardwaj et al., 2010).

Rushton et al. (2007) stated that the majority of teachers were of type Extraversion Sensing Feeling Judging (ESFJ) and the three least preferred types were Extraversion Sensing Thinking Perceiving (ESTP) at 0.87%, Introversion Intuition Thinking Perceiving (INTP) at 1.49%, and Extraversion Intuition Thinking Perceiving (ENTP) at 1.49%. The studied teachers possessed national certification and were members of a group believed to be effective at empowering students (Rushton et al., 2007). Of the sample of teachers, 30.35% had a preference for either Introversion Sensing Feeling Judging (ISFJ) or Extraversion Sensing Feeling Judging (ESFJ; Rushton et al., 2007). These assessments were made with respect to student achievement and not based on evidence of the teachers' ability to empower (Rushton et al., 2007).

From the research, highly qualified teachers were typically those who were factual, sensible, methodical, and seek finite solutions to complex problems although any teacher could be successful or "highly qualified" in a teaching career (Fairhurst & Fairhurst, 1995; Gordon, 2000; Kroeger et al., 2002; Myers et al., 1998; Myers & Myers, 1995). Thompson et al. (2004) identified the traits that they believed were typical of highly qualified teachers:

- Highly qualified teachers uphold an unprejudiced view. They do not have favorite students, but seek to nurture the strengths in each student in a unique way. The highly qualified teacher knows how to

foster healthy classroom competition without singling out a particular student's shortcomings. If unequal treatment of students does occur in the classroom at the hand of a teacher, students are able to vividly recall the actions even after much time has passed.

- Highly qualified teachers maintain an optimistic outlook. Teachers who can empower students will believe in their success. Teachers will also believe that they have the skills necessary to encourage and empower.
- Highly qualified teachers plan and organize. Teachers are prepared to answer questions and offer personal attention to students when necessary. Prepared teachers have fewer problems with student conduct and are able to actively address problems as they arise.
- Highly qualified teachers form meaningful bonds with their students. Teachers know their students' names, are often cheerful, and consider their students' points of view. Teachers illustrate lessons using personal experiences and show interest in their students' experiences. It can be simply stated that "teachers who show interest in their students have interested students" (p. 5).

- Highly qualified teachers are humorous. Teachers use comedic stories or anecdotes to keep students' attention. Teachers with quick wit are more likely to leave a lasting impression on a student.
- Highly qualified teachers are imaginative. Teachers continuously find inventive ways to keep students inspired. Teachers must keep students engaged so they can be empowered.
- Highly qualified teachers understand their own boundaries. Teachers admit their own imperfections. Teachers personify humility when they will acknowledge shortcomings thereby teaching students how to overcome their own.
- Highly qualified teachers are sympathetic. Teachers are eager to pardon students for displays of immaturity and misconduct. Teachers do no keep record of past indiscretions, but start each day anew.
- Highly qualified teachers have a high regard for their students. Teachers establish and maintain mutual respect for their students. Teachers do not belittle or seek to otherwise single out a particular student in a negative way. Teachers know that students are sensitive to being humiliated.
- Highly qualified teachers create extreme but realistic expectations. Teachers empower students by constantly daring them to break their

own boundaries. Teachers recognize the difference sources of motivation in each student and are able to foster those sources into academic achievement.

- Highly qualified teachers help students feel like they fit in. Teachers strive to meet students' needs on social, academic, and psychological levels. Teachers make students feel secure and protected. Students in stable environments learn better, learn faster, and retain more.

There are some researchers who believe that there are many environmental factors that may impact the measure of personality as a forecast for effective leadership (Judge, Bono, Ilies, & Gerhardt, 2002). The effectiveness of introversion versus extraversion is harder to measure because more times than not extraverts are "perceived as leaderlike" (Judge et al., 2002, p. 768). The construct of extraversion remains the most prevalent result of educators and leaders from other research (Bhardwaj et al., 2010; Chen & Miao, 2007; Davis, 2010; Davis & Dupper, 2004; Garcia et al., 2011; Judge et al., 2002; Mayes, 2005; Rushton et al., 2007).

## MBTI Assessment

The MBTI Assessment is a result of the evolution of the psychological type theory originally developed and introduced by Jung (Chen & Miao, 2007; Myers, McCaulley, Quenk, & Hammer, 1998). The MBTI assessment is intended to

gauge individual's perception and reactions to the world (Hagey, 2009; Parker & Hook, 2008). The personality inventory was originally developed by Briggs Myers (Hagey, 2009; Parker & Hook, 2008). The pair sought to gain a better understanding of women's character traits during and after World War II (Hagey, 2009; Parker & Hook, 2008). They believed that this data would aid in the transition of the female population into their new trades (Hagey, 2009; Parker & Hook, 2008). It became a continuing effort to recognize roles in which women could be most useful during the time of war (Hagey, 2009; Parker & Hook, 2008). The initial personality questionnaire grew into the MBTI assessment (Richards, 2008). The MBTI assessment was first published in 1962 (Richards, 2008). The MBTI assessment was effective only for what would be considered a normal population and it stressed the valued of naturally occurring personality differences (Richards, 2008).

The purpose of the MBTI assessment is to identify 16 personality types that are based upon a person's behavior preferences (Chen & Miao, 2007). The 16 MBTI® personality types are presented within the context of four opposing inclinations: Introversion (I) versus Extraversion (E), Sensing (S) versus Intuition (N), Thinking (T) versus Feeling (F), and Judging (J) versus Perceiving (P; Chen & Miao, 2007). The evolution of the MBTI assessment started with The Briggs-Myers Type Indicator in 1942, maintained in the *Briggs Myers Type Indicator*

*Handbook* published in 1944 (McCrae & Costa, 1989). The indicator became the *MBTI* in 1956 (McCrae & Costa, 1989). Consulting Psychologists Press (CPP) took over the publication of the MBTI in 1975 and formed the Center for Applications of Psychological Type in order to facilitate further data collection (Myers et al., 1998). McCaulley updated the MBTI Manual in May 1980 and CPP published the second edition of the manual in 1985 (Myers et al., 1998). The third edition was released in 1998 and is the last official published edition of the manual (Myers et al., 1998; Quenk, 2009). The MBTI assessment remains the most commonly used psychological type test (Myers et al., 1998; Pearman & Albritton, 1997).

Myers et al. (1998) reported internal consistency reliability measures for the MBTI assessment based on coefficient alpha. The measures were .91, .92, .91, and .92 for the E-I, S-N, T-F, and J-P scales respectively (Myers et al., 1998). Additionally, test-retest reliability measures were established from continuous analysis of data collected four weeks at a time (Myers et al., 1998). The coefficients were .95, .97, .94, and .95 for the E-I, S-N, T-F, and J-P scales respectively (Myers et al., 1998). The test-retest reliability measures remain consistent even though participants do not always report the same four-letter type at the end of four weeks (Capraro & Capraro, 2002; Myers et al., 1998; Quenk, 2009). The MBTI Form M remains the recommended version of the MBTI

assessment to use in both educational and research settings (Myers et al, 1998; Quenk, 2009).

**ISTJ Type**

The ISTJ is the ultimate realist (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They have a strong tendency towards conscientiousness and immediate needs (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Once a job is started, it must be finished and finished on time (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). The job will be thorough and no stone will be left unturned (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ISTJs focus on the tangible facts and will come to conclusions based on previous occurrences and with the application of rational thought (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). In organizational settings, "ISTJs are intensely committed to people and to the organizations of which they are a part; they take their work seriously and believe others should do so as well" (Martin, 2013, n.p.).

**ISTP Type**

The ISTP must comprehend the reality of how the humankind operates (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They marvel at the opportunity to solve problems and brainstorm on how else to apply the solution (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ISTPs like to silently scrutinize their surroundings (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They try to logically piece together all of the outside stimuli that they take in and attempt to apply reason to each part of their cognitive

puzzle (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). The ISTP prefers concrete encounters, but needs a broad range of events full of exhilaration (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ISTPs may appear simplistic at first, but they have and impulsive, lighthearted nature about them as well (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**ESTP Type**

Like ISTPs, ESTPs prefer concrete encounters, but they openly display their need for a broad range of events full of exhilaration (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). The ESTP enjoys the idea of solving new problems and is constantly looking for challenges to be conquered (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ESTPs tend to be full of life, yet pliable pragmatists (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ESTPs are more likely to just acknowledge their surroundings without them having to be critiqued or systematized (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Critical to the ESTP personality preference is that they tend to be logical and analytical in their approach to life, and they have an acute sense of how objects, events, and people in the world work" (Martin, 2013, n.p.).

**ESTJ Type**

ESTJs have a strong desire to examine, probe, and organize their external stimulus including actions, individuals, and possessions (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ESTJs prefer to any stimulus they must interact with to be orderly (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They do not mind putting forth the effort to

ensure jobs are finished in a timely manner, because there is always more work to be done (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ESTJ personality preferences are marked by the fact that "sensing orients their thinking to current facts and realities, and thus gives their thinking a pragmatic quality" (Martin, 2013, n.p.). ESTJs maintain accountability for their actions and will hold others accountable to the same standard (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**ISFJ Type**

The ISFJ values enduring esteem and an awareness of individual accountability for the tasks that take priority at the present moment (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They maintain accountability for their actions and will hold others accountable to the same standard (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). It is significant that ISFJs be able to offer sensible support to those around them (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ISFJs are realistic, value order, and maintain a "take charge" attitude (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Because they are able to focus on the concrete facts, they excel at completing complex jobs (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ISFJs have a spirit of affection, kindness, love, and reliability in all aspects of their lives (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**ISFP Type**

ISFPs feel a profound connection to nature which manifests itself in an undisclosed daring style of attacking the world (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

ISFPs prefer meaningful acts to seemingly senseless words (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Though their expressions are typically inward, they project an aura of kindness and sincerity (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Others would describe ISFPs as having controlled flexibility, but sometimes having impulsive compliance (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**ESFP Type**

ESFPs maintain an excited passion for outside stimuli, especially those gleamed from concrete interaction (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ESFPs need to feel like they are continuously a part of the latest procedures and need the motivation given by human interaction (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ESFPs constantly put their concern for others into action. However, they prefer unplanned actions and remain flexible in their responses (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Life is to be lived and not to be analyzed (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**ESFJ Type**

ESFJs maintain a deep concern for humankind and a yearning to eliminate conflict from all human interaction (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). It is the nature of ESFJs to lend a hand to others with genuine concern and kindness (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ESFJs have a strong desire to order and analyze, fulfilling a need to see tasks from beginning to completion (Martin,

2013; Myers et al., 1998). ESFJs are drawn to concrete realities and sensible conclusions (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Their desire to succeed is to be taken sincerely by all involved in the journey (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**INFJ Type**

INFJs spend much of their time paying attention to the inner details (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They believe there is a limitless realm of potential, thoughts, signs, and wonders (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INFJs rely heavily on their intuition to gleam facts (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They have a sincere interest in the well-being of others and their human interaction (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INFJs are passionately concerned with innovative demonstrations and the forward movement of humankind (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INFJs spend a lot of energy working things out inwardly (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Outwardly, they show their need for completion of tasks and the need for inward thoughts to apply to outward ideals (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**INFP Type**

INFPs are passionate about human relationships and have optimism about all humankind (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They are generally optimistic about all of their interactions (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They value their personal associations, but also value their thoughts, tasks, or any

significant active participation (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INFPs are usually accomplished conversationalists, and are inherently attracted to imaginings that will work to improve the greater human good (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INFPs have a strong set of inward principles and standards that are often overshadowed by their strong desire to be flexible and consider all sides of every situation (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**ENFP Type**

ENFPs have a strong desire to constantly examine their external stimuli including actions, individuals, and possessions (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENFPs maintain an excited passion for outside stimuli, especially those gleamed from concrete interaction (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENFPs need to feel like they are continuously a part of the latest procedures and need the motivation given by human interaction (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENFPs have a constant concern for others, but focus on what *can* be instead of on action (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They prefer unplanned actions and remain flexible in their responses (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENFPs are often passionate and animated, remaining flexible and accommodating in their responses to the outside world (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**ENFJ Type**

ENFJs maintain a deep concern for humankind and a yearning to eliminate conflict from all human interaction (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENFJs are candidly communicative and compassionate individuals who bring an air of sincerity to every situation (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENFJs are acutely in tune to what *can* be, making them excited to execute ideas that word to improve the greater human good (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENFJs have the ability to see promise in others, and are willing to work to help develop it (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). It is the nature of ENFJs to lend a hand to others with genuine concern and kindness (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENFJs have a strong desire to order and analyze, fulfilling a need to see tasks from beginning to completion (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**INTJ Type**

INTJs turn inward to examine all of life's potential, thoughts, signs, and wonders (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INTJs reason methodically; the world is meant to be investigated one ideal at a time (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Thoughts are at the breadth and depth of INTJs (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). There is a strong desire to realize, recognize, and comprehend in all fields where attention is paid (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INTJs value their hunches versus concrete facts (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They remained focused

on their mission until it is complete (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INTJs have a strong desire to turn foresight into actuality (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**INTP Type**

INTPs can only give attention to the matter at hand, although they can easily lose focus of what is a priority (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INTPs believe the world is one big conceptual model to be uniquely analyzed (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They rely on innovation and new ideals to organize their world (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INTPs are rational, methodical, and can appear aloof when dealing with outside stimuli (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INTPs are prone to inquire about others' views in their insatiable quest for knowledge (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). INTPs do not have an expressed desire to be in charge (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Since they do not require organization in thought or deed, INTPs can appear very adaptable and accommodating in their responses to the outside world (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**ENTP Type**

ENTPs are excited about the potential in anything they see or encounter (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They desire constant stimulus whether it is cognitive, active, or passive (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They believe that everything in the world can be categorized and defined (Martin, 2013; Myers et

al., 1998). There if often a deeper meaning to be uncovered and a hidden truth to be unearthed (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENTPs are often passionate and animated, remaining flexible and accommodating in their responses to the outside world (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**ENTJ Type**

ENTJs have a strong desire to scrutinize and subsequently organize all outside stimuli (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENTJs tend to have the innate ability to lead by establishing practical prototypes for any logical course of engagement (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They can be theoretical in their cognition in that they may seem to understand a problem before it actually occurs (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). ENTJs set high targets but are willing to reach them and help others do the same (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Above all else, they typically require an environment that is prearranged and controlled (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

**MBTI Constructs**

Evaluating responses to a series of objective questions creates a personality assessment that creates an individualized report of personality that maps to one of the 16 MBTI types (Chen & Miao, 2007). Table 1 illustrates the dichotomous relationships between the MBTI constructs that will be used to support this research (Kroeger, Thuesen, & Rutledge, 2002; Myers et al., 1998;

Myers & Myers, 1995). The MBTI assessment can be applied in many organizational settings, but identifying and understanding the differences in personality types of educators can aid in catering to students' learning styles and contributing to overall student success (Davis, 2010; Fairhurst & Fairhurst, 1995; Rushton et al., 2007).

Table 1

*MBTI Construct Relationship Descriptions*

| Scale | Descriptions | |
|---|---|---|
| Extravert/Introvert - Energy Function | Extravert (E) – Gets energy from outside world interaction | Introvert (I) – Gets energy from inside world reflection |
| Sensor/Intuitive - Data Gathering Function | Sensor (S) – Favors instant, useful facts gained through the five senses | Intuitive (N) – Favors likelihoods and possibilities gleamed from a sixth sense |
| Thinker/Feeler - Decision-Making Function | Thinker (T) – Makes decisions on a less personal level seeking justice above mercy | Feeler (F) – Makes decisions on an emotional level seeking mercy above justice |
| Judger/Perceiver - World Orientation Function | Judger (J) – Prefers an external world of order, planning, and finite decisions | Perceiver (P) – Prefers an external world of flexibility, spontaneity, and adaptation |

## The Process of Empowerment

Empowerment has become one of the key catalysts in promoting positive social change (Cowen, 1991). The extensive application of the notion of

empowerment has led to its universal application in the frameworks of research, training, and community engagement in psychology and other related disciplines (Cowen, 1991). To empower an individual is to literally increase his or her power thereby increasing his or her societal influence (Cattanoe & Chapman, 2010). It gives the individual the upper hand at all levels of social communications (Cattanoe & Chapman, 2010).

Empowerment has become an important construct for the progression of the human existence (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). There is a need to emphasize empowerment as a means to psychological and educational wellness (Cowen, 1991; Houser & Frymier, 2009). Empowerment highlights educational, political, and social inequalities in society; reiterates the strength of character both individually and collectively; and augments the innate tendency to endeavor for construtive change (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). The first step to empowerment is the recognition of the characteristics of the environment that inhibits one's strive for excellence (Cowen, 1991). Empowerment is a continuous cycle by which an individual who feels powerless outlines a personal triumph defined by the desire to gain power, moves toward that triumph, and ponders the results of the triumph that can eventually be achieved (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010).

**Empowerment is the Realization and Accomplishment of Goals**

Empowerment is a means to gain individual dominion (Cattanoe & Chapman, 2010). That is, to achieve personal power over their environment. Empowerment grants people, groups, and society the means to gain and maintain control over all matters (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). Empowerment is a realization of the connection between ambition and accomplishment (Cattanoe & Chapman, 2010). It is an emphasis of personal values and must encompass both the desire to move toward positive change and the admission of the ability to do so (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). House and Frymier (2009) asserted that students should remained focused on specifics goals in order to succeed.

**Empowerment is Contribution**

Empowerment encourages social interaction (Cattanoe & Chapman, 2010). The individual must commit a to mutually beneficial relationship with the social environment in order to gleam first right of entry to and then have power over common reserves (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). In the classroom, it is the job of the teacher to create healthy competition among students while still fostering an environment of learning (Frymier et al., 1996; Houser & Frymier, 2009). Houser and Frymier (2007) explained that "empowered learners are more motivated to perform classroom tasks and feel more competent in the classroom" (p. 47).

**Empowerment is Social Change**

As a catalyst for the social good, empowerment is a course of action through which people, groups, and society who are without power come into awareness about the interworkings of their environment, gain the ability to shape those dynamics, utilize the newfound control without harming others, and sustain the empowerment of other members of the community (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). The role of a teacher is to nurture a culture of proficiency in students, thereby enabliing them to feel as though they can have an impact on society (Frymier et al., 1996). Frymier et al. (1996) argued that teacher actions are the sole inspiration for student empowerment.

**Empowerment and Education**

Cowen (1991) asserted that education embodies a strong catalyst for the development and progression of empowerment as a means of positive change for the individual as well as his or her community. Drake (2010) agreed that students will thrive in a setting where they are not only fond of their teacher, but also when they recognize the concern and esteem with which they are treated. Effective teachers foster academic empowerment as well as personal empowerment (Drake, 2010; Smyth, 2006).

Even though Drake (2010) believed that there were some students that will be successful no matter their teacher-student relationship, Garcia et al. (2011)

found that there is a significant relationship between teacher personality styles and secondary student empowerment. Students will succeed only when they feel as though they have been equipped with the power to do so (Garcia et al., 2011). For the purpose of this research, student empowerment was illustrated by secondary teachers' assessed ability to actually empower their students.

**Personality, Empowerment, and Communication**

An individual's life approach is defined by the unique makeup of that person's inclination toward certain characteristics (Brightman, 2013). Life approaches include methods of teaching, learning, and communication (Martin, 2013; McCroskey, Richmond, & Bennett, 2006). The conducted research design could only investigate significant personality differences on the four dichotomous scales and could not indicate that one preference was necessarily better than another (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007; Kenny, 1987). However, student learning preferences and teacher communication styles may differ depending on personality preferences on each of the four continuums. McCroskey et al. (2006) argued that the communication styles of teachers can influence student motivation. Specifically, when material was plainly presented with matching verbal and non-verbal cues, students are more likely to engage in positive, academically ambitious behaviors (McCroskey et al., 2006). MBTI personality can be a key factor in predicting communication style as illustrated by MBTI

reports which include communication preferences specific to the indicated type (Emanuel, 2013).

### Extraversion (E) and Introversion (I)

Extravert types exhibit preference for outside stimuli (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Their primary concern is interaction with other people and other objects (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013). Extravert types rely on verbal communications and draw strength from external actions (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Extravert types show preference for interaction merely for the purpose of human relationship (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They are attracted to the allure of human contact and communication (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

Conversely, introvert types gain excitement from their self-interaction (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They focus on their own thoughts, feelings, and emotions (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They acquire stimulation from calm, personal instants, and are more likely to find solace in written communication (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Verbal expression only comes after intense contemplation and essential reasoning (Brightman, 2013). Introvert types are not necessarily nervous or reluctant; they just prefer not to entertain repetitive exchanges and instead prefer profound truths and careful expressions (Brightman, 2013; Martin,

2013). As a result of the differences between the two groups, extravert types tend to be more easily recognizable and easier to draw attention (Bhardwaj, Joshi, & Bhardwaj, 2010; Judge et al., 2002; Thompson, Greer, & Greer, 2004).

As students, extravert types are more likely to cry out in the classroom when the teacher asks a question (Bhardwaj et al., 2010; Davis, 2010). They usually do not have the entire answer until the moment they begin talking (Brightman, 2013). Reasoning their response happens in concurrence with delivering the answer (Brightman, 2013). They may raise a hand as instructed, but often cannot stand the wait of being recognized by the teacher (Bhardwaj et al., 2010; Brightman, 2013; Davis, 2010). Extravert types usually need to communicate to reason, and then they will ponder their already delivered response (Davis, 2010). Introvert types frequently botch participation opportunities due to the tendency to over-analyze responses before announcing them (Brightman, 2013). Introvert types need to ponder responses, and then deliver them (Brightman, 2013; Garcia et al., 2011; Rushton et al., 2007).

The most empowering teachers can offer a mixture of learning options in the classroom (Brightman, 2013; Davis, 2010). ESFJ was the most preferred type of teachers who possessed national certification and were members of a group believed to be effective at empowering students (Rushton et al., 2007). However, these assessments were made with respect to student achievement and not based

on evidence of the teachers' ability to empower (Rushton et al., 2007). Those teachers who could effectively empower were typically those who were factual, sensible, methodical, and seek finite solutions to complex problems although any teacher could be successful or "highly qualified" in a teaching career (Fairhurst & Fairhurst, 1995; Gordon, 2000; Kroeger et al., 2002; Myers et al., 1998; Myers & Myers, 1995).

Empowered introversion preferring students learn better from working individually whether on assigned computers or in settings where they are given an unlimited amount of time to submit written communication (Brightman, 2013; Davis, 2010). Empowered extraversion preferring students require a certain amount of peer-to-peer interaction (Brightman, 2013; Davis, 2010). They must satisfy their desire for constant communication (Brightman, 2013; Davis, 2010). Offering a mixture of teaching methods in the classroom levels the playing field for all learners (Brightman, 2013; Rushton et al., 2007; Thompson, 2004).

Extraversion preferring teachers will communicate better orally (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013). Their natural energy will help illustrate step-by-step instructions and encourage group interaction (Berney, 2010; National Institutes of Health, 2014). Extraversion preferring teachers will have to put forth special efforts to pause while relaying information verbally in order to give introversion preferring students time to process material (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013). In

contrast, introversion preferring teachers will communicate more effectively in writing (Berney, 2010). They will offer students more one-on-one instruction, taking a special interest in each student's response (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014). Introversion preferring teachers will have to endeavor to communicate with passion and energy to encourage student motivation (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007).

### Sensing (S) and Intuition (N)

Sensing and Intuition are perceiving functions (Myers et al., 1998). They describe how people extrapolate and analyze external information (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Sensing preferenced individuals take in information through their five senses: vision, smell, hearing, touch, and taste (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). This function is defined by left-brain activities and relies on rational thought and mental records of past occurrences to gain stability (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Intuition preferenced individuals have an alternative view of their outside world, using a sixth sense to take in and interpret facts (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). The intuitive makes decisions while relying on what "feels" right (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). To the intuitives, the world is full of endless possibilities and open-ended questions (Brightman, 2013; Myers et

al., 1998). On the contrary, sensors need concrete, real truth (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Intuitives have the ability to imagine the overall vision, valuing the goal rather than the path (Brightman, 2013). Sensors place more emphasis on the pragmatic, concentrating on the path to the goal (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

Traditional classroom settings teach theory first and application second, appealing to both the sensing and intuitive student (Brightman, 2013). An explanation of theory involves students in both a big picture of the facts and explanation of their individual pieces (Brightman, 2013; Davis, 2010). Traditional written exams are more attractive to intuitives who can analyze the overall meaning of the question and then offering and formal step-by-step answer (Brightman, 2013). Empowering sensing teaching methods involve hands-on data collection, experiments, and encounters through the five senses (Brightman, 2013; Rushton et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 2004).

Sensing teachers concisely communicate the questions that need to be answered (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013). They present all the evidence that applies to a problem without ambiguity (Berney, 2010). Sensing teachers provide a realistic approach to problem-solving by describing definitive learning procedures (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007). Conversely, intuitive teachers communicate the overall

problem first, then the procedures (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013). Intuitives allow for varied approaches to resolving academic puzzles (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014). Intuitive teachers encourage students to use their resourcefulness to come up with alternative solutions (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007).

### Thinking (T) and Feeling (F)

The rational processes of thinking and feeling describe how individuals compartmentalize or rationalize stimulus taken in from the outside world (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). These rational thoughts can then be translated to inferences and opinions specific to the given stimuli (Brightman, 2013). Thinkers make judgments independent of emotion and devoid of consideration of the impression of others (Myers et al., 1998). Feelers better understand others' moral standards and will consider them when offering judgment and opinion (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998; Rushton et al., 2007).

The difference between thinking students and feeling students comes down to favoring investigation, reason, and standards or favoring feelings and emotions (Brightman, 2013). Thinking students exhibit a preference for equality (Brightman, 2013; Drake, 2010; Rushton et al., 2007). Their attempt to make objective decisions means they will accentuate the concrete facts even at the

expense of humane mercies (Brightman, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Feeling students exhibit a preference for human balance (Brightman, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They must draw conclusions with input from moral standards (Brightman, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They will be able to more easily influence others and convince them to see their point of view (Brightman, 2013). They are able to better manage conflict and facilitate change among small or large groups (Davis, 2010; Rushton et al., 2007).

Brightman (2013) conducted research through the current MBTI software and reported that approximately 64% of males were assessed to be thinkers, while only approximately 34% of females were assessed as thinkers. Myers et al. (1998) reported that the main drivers for gender differences are the cultural expectations that have remained over time. Socially, men are expected to be natural thinkers while women are expected to be natural nurturers (feelers) (Myers et al., 1998). Bhardwaj et al. (2010) found that 56.6% of prospective teachers were thinkers while 43.4% of prospective teachers were feelers.

Thinking students are empowered by teachers who are able to clearly communicate expected learning outcomes (Rushton et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 2004). The learning objectives must use action words to describe what the students a required to do in order to be successful in the course (Davis, 2010).

Using abstract terms will cause confusion and disinterest on the part of the thinking student (Brightman, 2013).

Feeling students value melodious human interaction, often preferring group activities and brainstorming sessions (Brightman, 2013; Rushton et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 2004). They promote harmony in their groups and will often exhibit collaborative behaviors (Brightman, 2013; Rushton et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 2004). They value group morale and will work to reduce and (where possible) eliminate conflict (Myers et al., 1998). They define personal success by the overall success of the group (Brightman, 2013; Drake, 2010).

Thinking teachers foster debates among students by encouraging brainstorming sessions and group interaction (Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014). They typically do not have visibly emotional reactions to student views or comments, but rather offer unbiased responses (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007). Thinking teachers are more likely to offer a rational, methodical explanation of a problem (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014). On the contrary, feeling teachers are concerned with how their views will affect their students (Rushton et al., 2007). As a result, they are careful to entertain varied opinions about how to reach a solution (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007).

Feeling teachers may have emotional reactions to students' opinions, partially because they consider how choosing sides can affect each student (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014).

### Judging (J) and Perceiving (P)

The judging and perceiving functions represent how people respond to the outside world (Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Judgers exhibit a strong inclination to order and arranged methods (Myers et al., 1998). Judgers are more likely to be self-motivated, to have a need for organization, and to be able to come to finite resolutions (Rushton et al., 2007; Sprague, 1997). Judgers are self-disciplined, methodical, and usually have little issue with making a decision (Myers et al., 1998). It is important to judgers that tasks are completed using only the necessary facts. Closing dates are hallowed. Things must get done (Brightman, 2013).

Perceivers tend to be more accommodating and compliant to last minute changes (Brightman, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They are master procrastinators and tasks will either be done at the last possible moment or not done at all (Myers et al., 1998). Perceivers value fact collection and explore every possible outcome before making a decision (Rushton et al., 2007; Sprague, 1997). They can appear spontaneous and aloof (Rushton et al., 2007; Sprague, 1997). Perceivers are inquisitive, often impulsive, and can have a hard time making

definitive decisions (Brightman, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Many projects will get started, but almost none will be finished (Brightman, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They value the fact-finding rather than actually applying the information (Brightman, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Deadlines are of a relative nature and are not considered concrete. Perceivers can spend so much time seeing every side of things that they often cannot choose one point of view over the others (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998).

Judging students use learning methods such as speed reading and writing in short hand (Brightman, 2013). They may use shorthand to record class notes and may even re-state the notes so they make more sense (Brightman, 2013). They will often employ unique organizational techniques such as summarizing class notes or color-coding notes or notebooks (Brightman, 2013). Judgers are methodical in how they response to essay questions (Davis, 2010; Thompson et al., 2004). Even though they have decided on an answer, they will recall important details to help them explain their answer (Brightman, 2013). Judgers often prefer essay questions on tests because they find it easier to be able to formulate a direct answer by first re-stating the question and then listing supporting facts (Brightman, 2013). When forced to take objective tests, judgers will often still address the questions as essays and then choose the essay closest to their train of thought (Brightman, 2013; Thompson et al., 2004). Judgers do not

handle tests well when asked to choose the "best" answer (Brightman, 2013; Thompson et al., 2004). To the judging student, there should be only one correct answer and it should be an obvious choice (Brightman, 2013; Thompson et al., 2004).

Even though perceivers can seem like indolent students, their lack of performance is due to their endless search for knowledge—the journey is more important than the destination (Brightman, 2013; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Perceivers are often empowered by continuous oversight and sometimes micromanagement in order to complete tasks (Brightman, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). They often need to break larger jobs into short, manageable task with definitive deadlines (Davis, 2010; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Looking at the project piece by piece will keep the perceiver from getting off track (Davis, 2010; Martin, 2013; Myers et al., 1998). Perceiving students are empowered by constant comments and responses from their teachers (Brightman, 2013). Given the opportunity, perceivers can improve both their verbal and written communication skills from positive criticism given by their teacher (Brightman, 2013; Drake, 2010). At first encounter, perceiving students can seem needy, but with the proper attention can perform as needed or necessary (Drake, 2010; Thompson et al., 2004). Perceiving students are still effective learners, thriving on collecting the facts rather than applying them (Brightman, 2013).

Judging teachers enforce hard assignment deadlines and are less likely to accept excuses for late homework (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007). They are clear on assignment expectations and will rarely entertain the idea of reconsidering what they already know to be true (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; Rushton et al., 2007). Judging teachers are more likely to have impeccable lesson plans from which they will not deviate (Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007). Judging teachers tend to be less prepared for unforeseen variations in schedules (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014). On the other side of the spectrum, perceiving teachers are more likely to accept late assignments and offer opportunities for partial credit or extra credit (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007). Perceiving teachers are more likely to give assignments that have multiple approaches or answers (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007). They tend to have less detailed lesson plans that allow flexibility in schedules (Brightman, 2013).

The main concept of the research concerning teacher personality types and empowerment was that any teacher possesses the ability to empower any student (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; Rushton et al., 2007). When conflicts arise, what became most important was the understanding of differences in

personality and learning styles (Rushton et al., 2007; Myers et al., 1998). Personality traits, as measured by the MBTI assessment, can only measure the preferences of teachers on each independent scale and not necessarily the collective differences in type (Myers et al., 1998). Further, statistical analysis can only investigate significant differences and could not indicate that one preference is necessarily better than another (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007; Kenny, 1987; Myers et al., 1998). No one personality preference was any better than any other and though an individual has a default preference for one type; that individual can access any of the other 15 preferences when necessary (Myers et al., 1998).

## High School Dropout Rates

In the state of Alabama, approximately four out of every 10 high school students will end up dropping out (Southern Education Foundation, 2008). Alabama's state ranking in national graduation rates puts them between 42 and 47 as a result of analyses conducted in 2008 (Coe et al., 2010). Elevated high school dropout rates will create threats to state and national economies both short-term and long-term (Southern Education Foundation, 2008; Stock, 2008).

Stillwell (2010) defined a dropout as "a student who was enrolled at any time during the previous school year who is not enrolled at the beginning of the current school year and who has not successfully completed school" (p. 1). A high school student's decision to drop out of school can be one of the most

detrimental blows to individual and societal costs contributing to such phenomena as lowered personal income, increased probability of unemployment and health issues, lowered tax proceeds, increased public assistance expenditures, and increased law-breaking behaviors (Tyler & Lofstrom, 2009).

The Office of the Press Secretary (2010) described the urgency of addressing the high school dropout crisis:

> Every school day, about 7,000 students decide to drop out of school – a total of 1.2 million students each year – and only about 70% of entering high school freshman graduate every year. Without a high school diploma, young people are less likely to succeed in the workforce. Each year, our nation loses $319 billion in potential earnings associated with the dropout crisis. (n.p.)

Of Alabama's 4,642 dropouts in the 2007—2008 school year, 57% were female compared to the 43% who were male; 1% were American Indian/Alaska Native; 1% were Asian/Pacific Islander; 2% were Hispanic; 38% were Black; and 58% were White (Stillwell, 2010). High school dropouts come in many different packages, but often will have one thing in common: the decision to discontinue their high school education was not hasty although some interpreted it as such (Tyler & Lofstrom, 2009). 25,000 Alabama high school dropouts cost the state $245 million in health care and missed out on earnings of approximately $6.5

billion (Coe et al., 2010; Tyler & Lofstrom, 2009). Unfortunately, the economic impact only increased as time passed. The Southern Education Foundation (2008) reported that in 1956 for every one dollar earned by a college graduate, a high school dropout could only hope to make $.51. Progressively, in 2002, for every one dollar made by a college graduate, a high school dropout would make no more than $.29 (Southern Education Foundation, 2008).

Only 1% of American high school dropouts went on to take and master the General Education Development (GED) test (McKeon, 2006). Of all American high school graduates, only 12% passed the GED test in order to obtain a diploma equivalent (Winter, 2013). Even though the GED was thought to be an alternative to a high school education, much economic research has proven that such was not the case (Cameron & Heckman, 1993; Heckman & LaFontaine, 2006; Ou, 2008). The economic impact of high school dropouts was equivalent in industry as well as in financial outlook (Cameron & Heckman, 1993; Heckman & LaFontaine, 2006). Ou (2008) expected these results since the processes and conditions to completion differ between getting a high school diploma and passing the GED test.

## Summary

In this literature review, I established the need for continued research concerning the contribution of secondary teachers to high school students'

empowerment as measured by teacher performance. The theoretical framework of this dissertation was rooted in Jung's personality type theory as it evolved into and is measured by the MBTI assessment. Key to this theory is the idea that preferences in personality will affect a secondary teacher's ability to empower his or her students. I conducted a search of literature to connect the concepts of personality type theory, high school dropout rates, secondary teacher personality, highly qualified teachers, and student empowerment.

In this chapter, I presented studies that examined the research on the process of empowerment and how it combats high school dropout rates and their impact on both national and state economy. Although some research has been conducted on secondary (high school) teacher personality as it relates to student success and the concept of student empowerment, the results of the literature review revealed that the need for further research existed. This review provided the base for the design of this study that will be discussed in Chapter 3.

# Chapter 3: Research Method

## Introduction

In this chapter, I will describe the study's design and approach, explain my methodology, and conclude with a discussion of ethical considerations. In this chapter, I will also review the purpose of the study, the variables of interest, and the research questions. The population and sample will be presented and characterized. I will also discuss the collection and analysis of data as well.

## Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine Alabama secondary teacher personality types as contributing factors to high school students' academic achievement. I designed the research study to show whether or not statistical significance existed within personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 Alabama high schools and those from non-Title 1 Alabama high schools. Further analysis examined EDUCATEAlabama scores on identified student empowerment objectives. Further examination also helped determine if there were differences between teacher personality types of those in Title 1 schools versus those in non-Title 1 schools.

## Research Design and Approach

In this study, I sought to understand the success of high school teachers to empower their students. I used a series of *t* tests to examine the differences in

personality type on each MBTI continuum. Analysis via t-tests was appropriate because each individual MBTI preference scale is dichotomous (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007; Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Kenny, 1987; Myers et al., 1998). Of particular interest to me was the possible difference between personality types of teachers from Title 1 high schools and teachers from non-Title 1 high schools. The Huntsville City high schools were divided into the two groups on the district website (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). Title 1, Part A of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, "Improving the Academic Achievement of the Disadvantaged", supports programs and resources for disadvantaged students (U.S. Department of Education, 2011, n.p.). Title 1 school funding is designed to aid districts in closing the achievement gap by placing highly qualified teachers in classrooms (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a; U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Federal grants were given to these schools in an attempt to allow for equal hiring opportunities for qualified teachers at all schools and quality learning opportunities for all students (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). Grants were distributed to institutions in which at least 40% of enrolled students were from geographical areas in the district which are determined to have the lowest per capita income based on census assessments (U.S. Department of Education, 2011).

Additionally, while much research had been conducted on teacher personality types, researchers had not thoroughly examined how those types differ with regard to actual teacher performance. Bhardwaj et al. (2010) believed that the disparities in people's personalities defined by the differences in the way they perceive their environment affect the way people learn, and therefore, should also affect the way people teach. Using the MBTI assessment, those researchers investigated patterns of personality types among those who would eventually become educators. Thompson et al. (2004) identified the traits that they believed were typical of highly effective teachers but did not conduct any research to quantify their findings. Further, Garcia et al. (2011) stressed the value of future research that would investigate differences in teacher personality types between "low performing schools and high performing schools" (p. 7).

## Methodology

### Population

The participants in the study were a sample of high school teachers from the Huntsville City School system in Huntsville, Alabama. These teachers covered a vast range of ethnic backgrounds, ages, and education levels (Alabama State Department of Education, 2010). The Huntsville City Schools Office of Assessment and Accountability had to be contacted for permission to conduct the study with the teachers. Approval to conduct research is documented in

Appendix A. Once approval was received, I contacted teachers via their school e-mail addresses. Two samples were collected: one from the Title 1 high schools and one from the non-Title 1 high schools. With the new push for technology in the Huntsville City School system, it was believed that teachers would be able to easily access the assessment either at work or at home (Huntsville City Schools, 2013b).

**Sampling and Procedures**

I performed a power analysis using effect sizes from related studies to determine the minimum number of participants needed. I found that for *t* tests at $p < .05$, with two independent samples at $\alpha = .05$, to detect an effect size of .40, with a power of at least .80, this study would require at least 100 participants per sample (Bhardwaj et al., 2010; Bissonnette, 2011; Burkholder, n.d.; Judge et al., 2002). Two independent samples were required, each containing at least 100 participants.

I sent an invitation to participate (see Appendix B) along with a description of the study and a copy of the informed consent (see Appendix C) to each teacher via their school e-mail address. All teacher e-mail addresses were maintained on the Huntsville City Schools public website (Huntsville City Schools, 2013b). The study's informed consent included brief information about the study, the study procedures for participants, a discussion of the voluntary

nature of the study, and ethical considerations including confidentiality. The consent included a link to the survey which, upon completion, would link to the online MBTI Assessment. Walden University's approval number for this study was 05-06-15-0142314.

The survey documented the subject the participants taught, highest degree held, years in education, age range, school where teaching, gender, and EDUCATEAlabama scores at the end of the 2013–2014 school year. A copy of the questionnaire is provided in Appendix C. All demographic information, raw data, and statistical analysis data were maintained in a Microsoft Excel Workbook (a series of spreadsheets). The workbook was encrypted on an external hard drive and access-controlled via password with access granted only to me.

**Instrumentation**

**Demographic questionnaire.** A demographic questionnaire collected information concerning the subject the participants taught, highest degree held, years in education, age range, school where teaching, gender, and EDUCATEAlabama scores at the end of the 2013–2014 school year. EDUCATEAlabama scores are maintained by each teacher and later reported to the state board of education to be included in state report released for public

viewing (EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013). A copy of the questionnaire is provided in Appendix C.

**EDUCATEAlabama.** Each EDUCATEAlabama indicator (substandard) was assessed on a continuum that measures the level of application of the indicator (Alabama State Department of Education, 2011). The teacher was given a score that can progress from "Emerging" to "Applying" to "Integrating" to "Innovating" (EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013; Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). The scores are both self-assessed by the teacher and maintained as part of a public report for the state (EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013; Huntsville City Schools, 2013a).

**MBTI Assessment.** The MBTI assessment was designed to explain and implement fundamental personality type theory (Myers et al., 1998). Michael (2003) explained how the evaluation of personality types can be utilized to predict how a leader will tend to act in his or her role. In this study, I examined how students respond to those leadership behaviors as found in their high school teachers. I gained permission to administer and score the MBTI assessment through certification from CPP, Inc. A copy of my certification is presented as Appendix D.

As previously stated, many psychologists in academia are critics of the MBTI assessment in investigative research, arguing the data resulting from the

administration of the assessments cannot be validated (Pittenger, 2005). However, supporters of the inventory use observations and third-party accounts of individual's behavior to assert that the personality type indicator's reliability values often converge with those of other psychological measures (Myers et al., 1998). McCrae and Costa (1989) claimed that 75–90% of adults get the same results from the MBTI assessment when it is administered more than once. These results were the same even if the time between tests was varied (McCrae & Costa, 1989). Pearman and Albritton (1997) and Capraro and Capraro (2002) also found strong evidence for the existence of internal consistency, construct validity, and test–retest reliability for the MBTI assessment for all psychological constructs.

Myers et al. (1998) reported internal consistency reliability measures for the MBTI assessment based on coefficient alpha. The measures were .91, .92, .91, and .92 for the E-I, S-N, T-F, and J-P scales respectively (Myers et al., 1998). Additionally, test–retest reliability measures were established from continuous analysis of data collected 4 weeks at a time (Myers et al., 1998). The coefficients were .95, .97, .94, and .95 for the E-I, S-N, T-F, and J-P scales respectively (Myers et al., 1998). The test–retest reliability measures remain consistent even though participants do not always report the same four-letter type at the end of 4 weeks (Capraro & Capraro, 2002; Myers et al., 1998; Quenk, 2009).

**Operationalization of MBTI Constructs**

Table 2 illustrates the dichotomous MBTI constructs and how many items in MBTI Form M are dedicated to measuring each scale (Myers et al., 1998).

Table 2

*MBTI Assessment Items per Dichotomous Scale*

| Scale | Items per Scale |
|---|---|
| E-I | 21 |
| S-N | 26 |
| T-F | 24 |
| J-P | 22 |
| Total | 93 |

I quantified each dichotomous scale of the MBTI assessment in order to construct finite scale ranges for the purposes of analysis and interpretation. Raw scores from each participant's MBTI assessment responses were interpreted as a scale of -21 to 21 for the E-I scale, -26 to 26 for the S-N scale, -24 to 24 for the T-F scale, and -22 to 22 for the J-P scale. A negative raw score value is indicative of a preference for the first construct, while a positive raw score is indicative of a preference for the opposite construct. For example, an E-I score of -14 illustrates an inclination toward extroversion, while a score of 14 illustrates an inclination towards introversion.

**Operationalization of Empowerment Scores**

The measures of empowerment I used in this study were the EDUCATEAlabama scores for each teacher for the indicators described

previously. EDUCATEAlabama scores were maintained by each teacher and later reported to the state board of education to be included in a state report released for public viewing (EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013). The full report is a matter of public record and shows the different assessment levels for each standard by which teachers are gauged (i.e., "Emerging," "Applying," "Integrating," or "Innovating;" EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013). As a part of the questionnaire, teachers were asked to report their scores on the specified empowerment standards (2b.1 through 2b.4). Each qualitative score was assigned a number in order to obtain quantitative empowerment data (i.e., Emerging = 1, Applying = 2, Integrating = 3, Innovating = 4).

**Research Questions and Hypotheses**

I analyzed the data collected using a series of *t* tests. The research questions and hypotheses were best addressed using these types of analyses. The research questions and hypotheses are restated for further discussion:

Research Question 1: Is there a significant difference between personality types, as measured by the MBTI assessment, of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools?

$H_o1$: There is no significant difference between personality types, as measured by the MBTI assessment, of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools.

$H_a1$: There is a significant difference between personality types, as measured by the MBTI assessment, of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools.

Research Question 2: Is there a significant relationship between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, and personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o2$: There is no significant relationship between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, and personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, as measured by the MBTI assessment.

$H_a2$: There is a significant relationship between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, and personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, as measured by the MBTI assessment.

Research Question 3: Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of extraverted and introverted secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o3$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of extraverted

and introverted secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a3$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for extraverted secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for introverted secondary teachers.

Research Question 4: Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of sensing and intuitive secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o4$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of sensing and intuitive secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a4$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for sensing secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for intuitive secondary teachers.

Research Question 5: Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of thinking and feeling secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o5$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of thinking and feeling secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a5$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for thinking secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for feeling secondary teachers.

Research Question 6: Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of judging and perceiving secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o6$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of judging and perceiving secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a6$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for judging secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for perceiving secondary teachers.

I used the CPP Software System to keep track of online MBTI assessment responses and scores. The system was access-controlled via password. The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS), Version 21 was used for data analysis. I ran *t* tests for each dichotomous MBTI scale between data from the Title-1 high schools and the non-Title 1 high schools. The tests determined if there were significant differences between personality preferences of the two sets of teachers. *T* tests also assessed whether or not differences existed in empowerment scores on each dichotomous continuum for each group of teachers. Descriptive statistics of participants' demographic information were also calculated.

**Threats to Validity**

External validity is endangered when the setting of the research design limits the generalizability of the results (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Ou, 2008). The generalizability of this study was limited to the accessible population. Though the sampling was random, this study may not be representative of all teachers in all districts (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Ou, 2008). The participants in the study were a sample of high school teachers from the Huntsville City School system in Huntsville, Alabama. These teachers covered a vast range of ethnic backgrounds, ages, and education levels but may not necessarily be a

representative of teachers across the nation (Alabama State Department of Education, 2010).

Internal validity is endangered when the possibility exists that there are un-controlled peripheral variables that may actually account for the results of the study (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Ou, 2008). As a result, the research could only make assertions about the relationships between variables (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Ou, 2008). The research could not make definite conclusions about causality (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Ou, 2008). If participants in this study had previously taken the MBTI assessment, testing becomes a threat to internal validity. Previous exposure to the MBTI assessment could affect responses on a second MBTI assessment. Certain participants may become more or less sensitive to the assessment based on whether or not they have been previously exposed to the assessment (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007; Kenny, 1987). The demographic questionnaire asked the teachers whether or not they have previously taken the assessment. The data analysis only included teachers who had not previously taken the assessment. In order to reduce the effects of recall error, teachers were asked to focus specifically on the 2013–2014 school year and their experiences during that particular time. Scores for the EDUCATEAlabama standards were reported by the teachers from their databases that are maintained throughout their school-teaching careers.

Test–retest reliability measures were established for the MBTI assessment from continuous analysis of data collected 4 weeks at a time (Myers et al., 1998). The coefficients were .95, .97, .94, and .95 for the E-I, S-N, T-F, and J-P scales respectively (Myers et al., 1998). Due to the high measures of reliability, it is the assertion that the data collected for the study lead to confident conclusions about the sample population (Kimberlin & Winterstein, 2008).

The idea of construct validity involves whether or not a particular test measures its intended concept. In this study, the MBTI assessment could only measure the preferences of the teachers on each independent scale and not necessarily the collective differences in type. Further, the statistical analysis could only investigate significant differences and could not indicate that one preference is necessarily better than another (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2007; Kenny, 1987; Myers et al., 1998).

## Ethical Considerations

Due to the sensitive nature of the study, meticulous thought was given to the possible effects on the participants and those who may receive results of the overall study. The study's informed consent was sent to all potential participants and included brief information about the study, the study procedures for participants, a discussion of the voluntary nature of the study, and ethical considerations including confidentiality. Participants had the opportunity to ask

all necessary questions before agreeing to participate in the study. As stated in the informed consent, all records in this study were kept confidential and were access-controlled via password.

Participants were informed that there was no obligation to participate in the study, nor would their employment be affect by choosing not to participate. There was not the potential for any physical harm or enhancement as a result of participation in this study. Additionally, the study should have caused no emotional upset or disturbance. As previously stated, the CPP Software System was used to keep track of on–line MBTI responses and scores. The system was access-controlled via password. All demographic information, raw data, and statistical analysis data were maintained in a Microsoft Excel Workbook (a series of spreadsheets). The workbook was encrypted on an external hard drive and access-controlled via password with access granted only to me.

Just as teachers are catalysts for student change, psychologists can be the most important catalysts to change for any person or situation. Principle A of the *Ethical Principles of Psychologists and Code of Conduct* states that "Psychologists strive to benefit those with whom they work and take care to do no harm" (American Psychological Association [APA], 2003, General Principles section, para. 2). Ethical decision making is a continuous process that does not always have obvious answers. In order to promote the best interest of participants,

researchers must constantly balance their own values, beliefs, and life experiences with the APA professional code of ethics as they make decisions about how to effectively implement social change (Cobia & Boes, 2000). Consequently, researchers must combine their understanding of ethical codes with sound judgments to serve to do no harm to their participants and others whom they serve (Plaut, 2008).

## Summary

The conducted study gathered data about secondary teacher empowerment and their MBTI personalities. SPSS was used to analyze collected data. *T* tests were run for each dichotomous MBTI scale between secondary teacher data from the Title-1 high schools and the non-Title 1 high schools. It was the hope that the tests would show that there were significant differences between personality preferences of the two sets of teachers. It was also the hope that *t* tests would show that significant differences exist in empowerment scores on each dichotomous continuum for each group of teachers. Descriptive statistics of participants' demographic information were also reported.

It was the intent that this study would provide insight into the differences among teachers who have influence over the academic success of their students. It was the hope that the research would support the idea that there are certain personality characteristics that are more likely to empower students.

Empowered students become empowered learners become empowered leaders. These leaders can then go on to empower others. The research should add to the existing body of knowledge on teacher effectiveness while examining how teachers actually perform rather than how students perform on standardized tests. In Chapter 4, I will discuss the specific details of the results of the study and describe what the data show.

# Chapter 4: Results

## Introduction

The purpose of this descriptive quantitative research was to examine secondary teacher personality types as contributing factors to their ability to empower high school students. In the study, I assessed whether or not statistical significance existed within the constructs of the MBTI personality types of Alabama secondary teachers who teach at both Title 1 and non-Title 1 schools and whose EDUCATEAlabama assessments indicate an effective score on student empowerment objectives. Further analysis also helped me determine (a) if there were differences between subjects of teacher MBTI® personality types of those in Title 1 schools versus those in non-Title 1 schools and (b) if certain types were more likely to empower students. In this chapter, I will provide a description of the participants sampled in this study, summarize the results of these analyses, and address each research question individually.

## Data Collection

Over a period of 5 months, starting the spring of 2015, I distributed 436 invitations to participate in the study via e-mail to teachers. Of the 436, 334 surveys came back completed, 100 teachers (29.9%) were from Title 1 schools and 234 teachers (70.1%) were from non-Title 1 schools. The participants in the study were a sample of high school teachers from the Huntsville City School system in

Huntsville, Alabama. The sample, much like the target population, covered a vast range of ethnic backgrounds, ages, and education levels; although it was not necessarily representative of teachers across the nation (Alabama State Department of Education, 2010). Of those who responded, 304 (91%) were females and 30 (9%) were males. Table 3 summarizes the demographic characteristics of the study sample.

Table 3

*Demographic Characteristics of Study Sample (N = 334)*

| | *N* | % |
|---|---|---|
| Gender | | |
| Female | 304 | 91.0 |
| Male | 30 | 9.0 |
| Age Range | | |
| 18–30 | 1 | 0.3 |
| 31–40 | 180 | 53.9 |
| 41–50 | 111 | 33.2 |
| 51–60 | 2 | 0.6 |
| 61–70 | 40 | 12.0 |
| Educational Background | | |
| Undergraduate Degree | 11 | 3.3 |
| Master's Degree | 323 | 96.7 |
| Subject Taught | | |
| Biology | 6 | 1.8 |
| English | 82 | 24.0 |
| Foreign Language | 17 | 5.1 |
| Math | 92 | 27.5 |
| Reading | 48 | 14.4 |
| Social Studies | 56 | 16.8 |
| Other | 33 | 10.2 |
| Years in Education | | |
| 1–5 | 6 | 1.8 |
| 6–10 | 137 | 41.0 |
| 11–15 | 171 | 51.2 |
| 20+ | 20 | 6.0 |

All study participants were considered by Huntsville City Schools to be highly qualified teachers and reported that they had not previously taken the MBTI assessment. Approximately one half (51.2%) of the study participants had

spent 11–15 years in education. A majority of the study participants (96.7%) possessed an advanced degree and all participants had completed at least an undergraduate degree.

## Results

Table 4 shows the distribution of four-letter MBTI personality types among each independent sample (*n*) and across the entire sample population (*N*). The results indicated that a majority of the study sample had preferences for ISTJ (28.1%). The least preferred four-letter types were ENFP and INFP (0.3% each).

Table 4

*Distribution of MBTI Personality Profiles*

| | Title 1 Schools (*n* = 100) | | Non-Title 1 Schools (*n* = 234) | | All Cases (*N* = 334) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | % | *N* | % | *n* | % |
| ENFJ | 4 | 4.0 | 2 | 0.9 | 6 | 1.8 |
| ENFP | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 0.4 | 1 | 0.3 |
| ENTJ | 3 | 3.0 | 10 | 4.3 | 13 | 3.9 |
| ENTP | 15 | 15.0 | 17 | 7.3 | 17 | 5.1 |
| ESFJ | 13 | 13.0 | 17 | 7.3 | 30 | 9.0 |
| ESFP | 5 | 5.0 | 13 | 5.6 | 13 | 3.9 |
| ESTJ | 15 | 15.0 | 30 | 12.8 | 45 | 13.5 |
| ESTP | 2 | 2.0 | 23 | 9.8 | 25 | 7.5 |
| INFJ | 5 | 5.0 | 7 | 3.0 | 12 | 3.6 |
| INFP | 1 | 1.0 | 0 | 0.0 | 1 | 0.3 |
| INTJ | 4 | 4.0 | 12 | 5.1 | 16 | 4.8 |
| INTP | 3 | 3.0 | 1 | 0.4 | 4 | 1.2 |
| ISFJ | 11 | 11.0 | 24 | 10.3 | 35 | 10.5 |
| ISFP | 5 | 5.0 | 5 | 2.1 | 10 | 3.0 |
| ISTJ | 30 | 30.0 | 64 | 27.4 | 94 | 28.1 |
| ISTP | 4 | 4.0 | 8 | 3.4 | 12 | 3.6 |

Since I assessed relationships based on the MBTI dichotomous scales, Table 5 shows the distribution of personality preferences broken down into the four scales: E-I, S-N, T-F, and J-P. Of particular note is the Title 1 schools' distribution of preferences for J versus P. Both represented 50.0% of the sample. This result was in contrast to non-Title 1 schools where 70.9% preferred J and the remaining 29.1% preferred P.

Table 5

*Distribution of Personality Preferences on Dichotomous Scales*

| | Title 1 Schools (*n* = 100) | | Non-Title 1 Schools (*n* = 234) | | All Cases (*N* = 334) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | *n* | % | *n* | % | *N* | % |
| E | 57 | 57.0 | 113 | 48.3 | 150 | 44.9 |
| I | 43 | 43.0 | 121 | 51.7 | 184 | 55.1 |
| S | 75 | 75.0 | 184 | 78.6 | 264 | 79.0 |
| N | 25 | 25.0 | 50 | 21.4 | 70 | 21.0 |
| T | 69 | 31.0 | 165 | 70.5 | 226 | 67.7 |
| F | 31 | 69.0 | 69 | 29.5 | 108 | 32.3 |
| J | 50 | 50.0 | 166 | 70.9 | 251 | 75.1 |
| P | 50 | 50.0 | 68 | 29.1 | 83 | 24.9 |

The research questions and hypotheses are restated for further discussion of the results. I addressed each research question and its associated hypotheses individually.

**Research Question #1**

Is there a significant difference between personality types, as measured by the MBTI assessment, of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools?

$H_o1$: There is no significant difference between personality types, as measured by the MBTI assessment, of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools.

$H_a1$: There is a significant difference between personality types, as measured by the MBTI assessment, of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools.

I conducted independent-samples *t* tests to compare personality types on each MBTI dichotomous scale of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools. Table 6 summarizes the results of the *t* tests conducted to determine the existence of statistical significance in personality types on each scale.

Table 6

*T tests Comparing Dichotomous Personality Preferences of Title 1 and Non-Title 1 Teachers*

| Scale | $M_1$ ($n$ = 100) | $M_2$ ($n$ = 234) | $SD_1$ | $SD_2$ | $t$ | Significance (2-tailed) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| E-I | 2.76 | 1.46 | 6.20 | 7.03 | 1.60 | 0.11 |
| S-N | -9.98 | -9.63 | 8.46 | 8.46 | -0.34 | 0.73 |
| T-F | -5.90 | -6.18 | 8.61 | 7.78 | 0.29 | 0.77 |
| J-P | -8.72 | -5.86 | 8.01 | 10.46 | -2.71* | 0.01 |

*Note.* * = $p < 0.05$.

There was no significant difference in personality types on the E-I scale for Title 1 school teachers ($M$ = 2.76, $SD$ = 6.20) and non-Title 1 school teachers ($M$ = 1.46, $SD$ = 6.20); $t(332) = 1.60$, $p = 0.11$. Also, there was no significant difference in personality types on the S-N scale for Title 1 school teachers ($M$ = -9.98, $SD$ = 8.46) and non-Title 1 school teachers ($M$ = -9.63, $SD$ = 8.46); $t(332) = -0.34$, $p = 0.73$. Additionally, there was no significant difference in personality types on the

T-F scale for Title 1 school teachers ($M$ = -5.90, $SD$ = 8.61) and non-Title 1 school teachers ($M$ = -6.18, $SD$ = 7.78); $t(332) = 0.77$, $p = 0.09$. These results suggested that any differences in personality between teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools on these three MBTI scales were likely due to chance.

However, there was a significant difference in personality types on the J-P scale for Title 1 school teachers ($M$ = -8.72, $SD$ = 8.01) and non-Title 1 school teachers ($M$ = -5.86, $SD$ = 10.46); $t(241.28) = -2.71$, $p = 0.01$. These results could only suggest that secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools were more likely to have variations in personality preferences on the J-P scale than secondary teachers from Title 1 schools. Hence, I partially rejected $H_a1$.

**Research Question #2**

Is there a significant relationship between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, and personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o2$: There is no significant relationship between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, and personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, as measured by the MBTI assessment.

$H_a2$: There is a significant relationship between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, and personality types of secondary teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, as measured by the MBTI assessment.

I conducted independent-samples *t* tests to compare teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on each MBTI dichotomous scale of secondary teachers from both Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools. There was no significant difference in teacher empowerment scores for Title 1 school teachers who preferred E ($M$ = 5.49, $SD$ = 1.26) and those who preferred I ($M$ = 5.68, $SD$ = 1.32); $t(98) = -0.73$, $p = 0.47$. Also, there was no significant difference in teacher empowerment scores for Title 1 school teachers who preferred S ($M$ = 5.68, $SD$ = 1.32) and those who preferred N ($M$ = 5.35, $SD$ = 1.18); $t(98) = 1.01$, $p = 0.32$. Additionally, there was no significant difference in teacher empowerment scores for Title 1 school teachers who preferred T ($M$ = 5.61, $SD$ = 1.27) and those who preferred F ($M$ = 5.62, $SD$ = 1.35); $t(98) = -0.03$, $p = 0.97$. Lastly, there was no significant difference in teacher empowerment scores for Title 1 school teachers who preferred J ($M$ = 5.58, $SD$ = 1.29) and those who preferred P ($M$ = 5.80, $SD$ = 1.37); $t(98) = -0.62$, $p = 0.54$.

Additional independent-samples *t* tests were conducted to compare teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on each MBTI

dichotomous scale of secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools. There was no significant difference in teacher empowerment scores for non-Title 1 school teachers who preferred E ($M$ = 5.35, $SD$ = 1.21) and those who preferred I ($M$ = 5.45, $SD$ = 1.26); $t(232) = -0.68$, $p = 0.50$. Also, there was no significant difference in teacher empowerment scores for non-Title 1 school teachers who preferred S ($M$ = 5.31, $SD$ = 1.14) and those who preferred N ($M$ = 5.74, $SD$ = 1.50); $t(65.22) = -1.89$, $p = 0.06$. Additionally, there was no significant difference in teacher empowerment scores for non-Title 1 school teachers who preferred T ($M$ = 5.41, $SD$ = 1.25) and those who preferred F ($M$ = 5.38, $SD$ = 1.19); $t(232) = 0.20$, $p = 0.84$. Lastly, there was no significant difference in teacher empowerment scores for non-Title 1 school teachers who preferred J ($M$ = 5.44, $SD$ = 1.26) and those who preferred P ($M$ = 5.31, $SD$ = 1.18); $t(232) = 0.74$, $p = 0.46$. These results suggested that any differences in teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types in teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools were likely due to chance. Hence, I rejected $H_a2$.

**Research Question #3**

Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of extraverted and introverted secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o3$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of extraverted and introverted secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a3$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for extraverted secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for introverted secondary teachers.

I conducted an independent-samples *t* test to compare secondary teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on the E-I MBTI dichotomous scale. There was no significant difference in secondary teacher empowerment scores for those who preferred E ($M$ = 5.38, $SD$ = 1.22) and those who preferred I ($M$ = 5.53, $SD$ = 1.28); $t(332) = -1.11$, $p = 0.27$. These results suggested that any differences in teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on the E-I MBTI scale were likely due to chance. Hence, I rejected $H_a3$.

**Research Question #4**

Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of sensing and intuitive secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o4$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of sensing and intuitive secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a4$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for sensing secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for intuitive secondary teachers.

I conducted an independent-samples *t* test to compare secondary teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on the S-N MBTI dichotomous scale. There was no significant difference in secondary teacher empowerment scores for those who preferred S ($M$ = 5.42, $SD$ = 1.21) and those who preferred N ($M$ = 5.63, $SD$ = 1.42); $t(97.14) = -1.13$, $p = 0.26$. These results suggested that any differences in teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on the S-N MBTI scale were likely due to chance. Hence, I rejected $H_a4$.

**Research Question #5**

Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of thinking and feeling secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o5$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of thinking and feeling secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_a5$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for thinking secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for feeling secondary teachers.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to compare secondary teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on the T-F MBTI dichotomous scale. There was no significant difference in secondary teacher empowerment scores for those who preferred T ($M = 5.46$, $SD = 1.26$) and those who preferred F ($M = 5.46$, $SD = 1.25$); $t(332) = 0.01$, $p = 0.99$. These results suggested that any differences in teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on the T-F MBTI scale were likely due to chance. Hence, I rejected $H_a5$.

**Research Question #6**

Is there a significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of judging and perceiving secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment?

$H_o6$: There is no significant difference between student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, of judging and perceiving secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment.

$H_a6$: Student empowerment, as measured by EDUCATEAlabama, will be higher for judging secondary teachers, as measured by the MBTI assessment, than student empowerment for perceiving secondary teachers.

An independent-samples *t* test was conducted to compare secondary teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on the J-P MBTI dichotomous scale. There was no significant difference in secondary teacher empowerment scores for those who preferred J ($M = 5.49$, $SD = 1.27$) and those who preferred P ($M = 5.40$, $SD = 1.22$); $t(332) = 0.56$, $p = 0.58$. These results suggested that any differences in teachers' empowerment scores with respect to personality types on the J-P MBTI scale were likely due to chance. Hence, I rejected $H_a6$.

Table 7 summarizes the results of all *t* tests conducted to determine the existence of statistically significant differences in teachers' student empowerment scores.

Table 7

*T-tests Comparing Empowerment Scores of Title 1 and Non-Title 1 Teachers with respect to Personality Preferences*

| | Title 1 Schools ($n$ = 100) | | | | | Non-Title 1 Schools ($n$ = 234) | | | | | All Cases ($n$ = 334) | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | $n$ | $M$ | $SD$ | $t$ value | Significance (2-tailed) | $n$ | $M$ | $SD$ | $t$ value | Significance (2-tailed) | $n$ | $M$ | $SD$ | $t$ value | Significance (2-tailed) |
| E | 37 | 5.49 | 1.26 | -0.73 | 0.47 | 113 | 5.35 | 1.21 | -0.68 | 0.50 | 150 | 5.38 | 1.22 | -1.11 | 0.27 |
| I | 63 | 5.68 | 1.32 | | | 121 | 5.45 | 1.26 | | | 184 | 5.53 | 1.28 | | |
| S | 80 | 5.68 | 1.32 | 1.01 | 0.32 | 184 | 5.31 | 1.14 | -1.89 | 0.06 | 264 | 5.42 | 1.21 | -1.13 | 0.26 |
| N | 20 | 5.35 | 1.18 | | | 50 | 5.74 | 1.50 | | | 70 | 5.63 | 1.42 | | |
| T | 61 | 5.61 | 1.27 | -0.03 | 0.97 | 165 | 5.41 | 1.25 | 0.20 | 0.84 | 226 | 5.46 | 1.26 | 0.01 | 0.99 |
| F | 39 | 5.62 | 1.35 | | | 69 | 5.38 | 1.19 | | | 108 | 5.46 | 1.25 | | |
| J | 85 | 5.58 | 1.29 | -0.62 | 0.54 | 166 | 5.44 | 1.26 | 0.74 | 0.46 | 251 | 5.49 | 1.27 | 0.56 | 0.58 |
| P | 15 | 5.80 | 1.37 | | | 68 | 5.31 | 1.18 | | | 83 | 5.40 | 1.22 | | |

## Summary

The statistical analyses of the research data resulted in the rejection of all alternate hypotheses with a partial rejection of $H_a1$. Specifically, the only significant difference between the personality types of teachers in Title 1 schools versus teachers in non-Title 1 schools was on the J-P scale. Additionally, there was no significant relationship between teachers' empowerment scores and their personality preferences. Similarly, it was also discovered that there was no significant difference in teachers' empowerment scores on any of the four dichotomous MBTI scales.

In Chapter 5, I will summarize the research study and present conclusions about the results. Additionally, I will disclose the limitations of this research, and recommendations for continued research in this area in the future. I will also discuss implications of this study for social change.

# Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

## Introduction

The purpose of this research study was to examine the relationship of secondary teacher personality types to their ability to empower high school students. In the study, I assessed statistical significance within the constructs of the MBTI personality types of Alabama secondary teachers who teach at both Title 1 and non-Title 1 schools and whose EDUCATEAlabama assessments scores were based on student empowerment objectives. I also conducted further analysis to determine if there were differences between subjects of teacher MBTI personality types of those in Title 1 schools versus those in non-Title 1 schools and if certain personality types were more likely to empower students.

My statistical analyses of the research data revealed that the only significant difference between the personality types of teachers in Title 1 schools versus teachers in non-Title 1 schools was on the J-P MBTI scale and that there was no significant relationship between teachers' empowerment scores and their personality preferences. Additionally, I discovered that there was no significant difference in teachers' empowerment scores on any of the four dichotomous MBTI scales. In this chapter, I will offer conclusions about the results as they related to what has been previously discovered in the related discipline.

Additionally, I will present the implications of this study for social change, limitations of this research, and recommendations for future research in this area.

## Interpretation of the Findings

### Personality Types and Teachers

Bhardwaj et al. (2010) agreed that people's personalities are defined by the differences in the way they perceive their environment. Using the MBTI Form M (a 93-item inventory), the researchers investigated patterns of personality types among those who would eventually become educators. The researchers discovered that the largest percent of future teachers tested to be type ESTJ: E = 62.8%, S = 59.8%, T = 56.6%, and J = 73.2% (Bhardwaj et al., 2010). In addition, the majority of future teachers had preferences that defined either an ESTJ or ISTJ personality type with the least preferred types being INFP and ISFP (Bhardwaj et al., 2010). The results of this research study were partially in line with the study conducted by Bhardwaj et al.. The findings of this research study indicated that a majority of the study sample had preferences for ISTJ (31.0%). The least preferred four-letter type in this study was ENFP (0.5%).

Rushton et al. (2007) stated that the majority of teachers are of type ESFJ and the three least preferred types were ESTP (0.87%), INTP (1.49%), and ENTP (1.49%). In Rushton et al.'s study, the teachers possessed national certification and were members of a group believed to be effective at empowering students.

Of the sample of teachers, 30.35% had a preference for either ISFJ or ESFJ (Rushton et al., 2007).

The most empowering teachers can offer a mixture of learning options in the classroom (Brightman, 2013; Davis, 2010). Extraversion preferring teachers will communicate better orally (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013). Their natural energy will help illustrate step-by-step instructions and encourage group interaction (Berney, 2010; National Institutes of Health, 2014). Extraversion preferring teachers will have to put forth special efforts to pause while relaying information verbally in order to give introversion preferring students time to process material (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013). In contrast, introversion preferring teachers will communicate more effectively in writing (Berney, 2010). They will offer students more one-on-one instruction, taking a special interest in each student's response (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014). Introversion preferring teachers will have to endeavor to communicate with passion and energy to encourage student motivation (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007).

Traditional classroom settings teach theory first and application second, appealing to both the sensing and intuitive student (Brightman, 2013). Empowering sensing teaching methods involve hands-on data collection, experiments, and encounters through the five senses (Brightman, 2013; Rushton

et al., 2007; Thompson et al., 2004). Sensing teachers provide a realistic approach to problem-solving by describing definitive learning procedures (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007).

Thinking teachers foster debates among students by encouraging brainstorming sessions and group interaction (Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014). Feeling teachers are concerned with how their views will affect their students (Rushton et al., 2007). As a result, they are careful to entertain varied opinions about how to reach a solution (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007).

Judging teachers enforce hard assignment deadlines and are less likely to accept excuses for late homework (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007). They are clear on assignment expectations and will rarely entertain the idea of reconsidering what they already know to be true (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; Rushton et al., 2007). Perceiving teachers are more likely to accept late assignments and offer opportunities for partial credit or extra credit (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007). Perceiving teachers are more likely to give assignments that have multiple approaches or answers (Berney, 2010; Brightman, 2013; National Institutes of Health, 2014; Rushton et al., 2007). The common thread among research with teachers and prospective teachers was the idea that

offering a mixture of teaching methods in the classroom levels the playing field for all learners (Brightman, 2013; Rushton et al., 2007; Thompson, 2004).

There was a significant difference in personality types on the J-P scale for Title 1 school teachers and non-Title 1 school teachers. These results could only suggest that secondary teachers from non-Title 1 schools were more likely to have variations in personality preferences on the J-P scale than secondary teachers from Title 1 schools. The significance in differences on the J-P scale could be contributed to the ability of teachers in non-Title 1 schools to be more flexible in accepting late assignments or offering extra credit. Future research could examine if differences exist on the J-P scale between subjects taught. Classroom observations could verify assignment strategies and policies.

**Personality Types and Empowerment**

There are many theories about personality and its effects of various aspects of human existence as well as a number of assessments used to measure personality (Bing et al., 2007). The theoretical framework of this research was rooted in Jung's 1921 personality type theory and the concept of personality preferences measured by the MBTI assessment. Key to this study was the idea that preferences in personality may affect a secondary teacher's ability to empower his or her students. Michael (2003) explained how the evaluation of personality types can be utilized to predict how a leader will tend to act in his or

her role. In this study, I examined how students respond to those leadership behaviors as exhibited by their high school (secondary) teachers.

The MBTI assessment is a result of the evolution of the psychological type theory originally developed and introduced by Jung (Chen & Miao, 2007; Myers et al., 1998). The MBTI assessment is intended to gauge individual's perceptions and reactions to the world (Hagey, 2009; Parker & Hook, 2008). Evaluating responses to a series of objective questions creates a personality assessment that creates an individualized report of personality that maps to one of the 16 MBTI types (Chen & Miao, 2007). The most important concept behind the MBTI assessment is that no one personality preference is any better than any other and though an individual has a default preference for one type, that individual can access any of the other 15 preferences when necessary (Myers et al., 1998). The assessment can make suggestions about best-fit careers and typical behaviors but does not define an individual's behavior 100% of the time (Myers et al., 1998).

In this study, all of the participants were considered by the Huntsville City Schools system to be a Highly Qualified Teacher. In addition, each participant reported at least "Applying" as their level of accomplished student empowerment based on observations and self-assessment. Even though none of the proposed study hypotheses were fully supported, the results did support a

basic idea of personality trait theory: Any individual with any personality preference could thrive in a particular career (Myers et al., 1998).

## Limitations and Recommendations

I identified the following limitations to the conducted research study. First, the research could only make assertions about the relationships between variables as the research could not make definite conclusions about causality (Johnson & Christensen, 2008; Ou, 2008). If there had been statistically significant relationships between variables, there would have had to have been additional research to assert that any particular MBTI personality type actually caused a difference in student empowerment. Future qualitative research may examine each type and observe their interactions with students. Emanuel (2013) reported communication preferences specific to the each MBTI personality type. Future research could seek to further predict communication styles specific to indicated personality types and observe behaviors that would ultimately empower students (Emanuel, 2013).

Second, the generalizability of the study was limited to the accessible population. Though the sampling was random, the study may not be representative of all teachers in all districts. The participants in the study were a sample of high school teachers from the Huntsville City School system in Huntsville, Alabama. Even though these teachers covered a vast range of ethnic

backgrounds, ages, and education levels, they may not necessarily have been a thorough or accurate representation of teachers across the nation (Alabama State Department of Education, 2010). Since EDUCATEAlabama is a state-wide system, future research could increase generalizability by recruiting participants from across the entire state (EDUCATE/LEADAlabama, 2013). The research would offer both a more diverse group of participants and the opportunity to verify whether or not the application of EDUCATEAlabama is consistent throughout all school districts.

Lastly, in this study I could only draw conclusions about personality on the four dichotomous scales referencing extraverts, sensors, feelers, and judgers versus introverts, thinkers, sensors, and perceivers respectively. I performed a power analysis using effect sizes from related studies and found that the study would require at least 100 participants per sample (Bhardwaj et al., 2010; Bissonnette, 2011; Burkholder, n.d.; Judge et al., 2002). To draw conclusions about the relationship between the 16 four-letter MBTI personality types, future researchers would have to collect data from at least 100 participants for each four-letter personality type.

Brightman (2013) conducted research through the current MBTI software and reported that approximately 64% of males were assessed to be thinkers, while only approximately 34% of females were assessed as thinkers. Bhardwaj et

al. (2010) found that 56.6% of prospective teachers were thinkers, while 43.4% of prospective teachers were feelers. Future research could explore gender differences in personality preferences and examine teaching strategies specific to those differences.

## Implications for Positive Social Change

Title 1 funding was established to "improve educational outcomes for all children, close achievement gaps, increase equity, and improve the quality of instruction" (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). Title 1, Part A of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, "Improving the Academic Achievement of the Disadvantaged", supports programs and resources for disadvantaged students (U.S. Department of Education, 2011, n.p.). Title 1 school funding is designed to aid districts in closing the achievement gap by placing highly qualified teachers in classrooms (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a; U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Federal grants were given to these schools in an attempt to allow for equal hiring opportunities for qualified teachers at all schools and quality learning opportunities for all students (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). Grants are distributed to institutions in which at least 40% of enrolled students are from geographical areas in the district which are determined to have the lowest per capita income based on census assessments (U.S. Department of Education, 2011). Non-Title 1 schools receive no additional federal funding and are assessed

to already have highly qualified teachers in their classrooms (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). The results of the conducted research study were the first steps in working towards reducing and eliminating student achievement gaps across the Huntsville City Schools district. The conducted study could be effortlessly replicated across the state, region, and nation. Future research would help further identify similarities and difference among teachers who are responsible for empowering students in the classroom.

As Brown et al. (2005) previously emphasized: "We must ensure that all American children – regardless of race, ethnicity, income, native language, or geographic location – are afforded access to high-quality schools that will enable them to participate in the promised opportunity of the American dream" (p. iii). I repeated the quote here to emphasize the ideal of equitable education for all students. In this study, I uncovered the possibility that teacher personality may not be a contributing factor to student empowerment while making the argument that any personality may have the ability to empower students.

Frymier et al. (1996) asserted that teacher conduct was the sole catalyst for student empowerment. Empowerment is a course of action through which people, groups, and society who are without power come into awareness about the interworkings of their environment, gain the ability to shape those dynamics, utilize the newfound control without harming others, and sustain the

empowerment of other members of the community (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). Empowerment serves as a catalyst for the social good (Cattaneo & Chapman, 2010). The role of a teacher is to nurture a culture of proficiency in students, thereby enabling them to feel as though they can have an impact on society (Frymier et al., 1996). Frymier et al. (1996) argued that teacher actions are the sole inspiration for student empowerment.

In conclusion, student empowerment is one of the key factors in decreasing high school dropout rates (Frymier et al., 1996). Further, secondary teachers are the primary catalysts for student success (Rushton et al., 2007). Much research has been conducted to support the need for highly qualified teachers in all classrooms, especially since the mandate of the No Child Left Behind Act of 2001 (Huntsville City Schools, 2013a). Despite the fact that in this study I found very limited statistical differences between personality types between teachers from Title 1 schools and non-Title 1 schools, the findings show that it just may be possible to achieve equity, at least in the distribution of teachers' personality types, across a school district.

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# Appendix A: Huntsville City Schools Board of Education Approval to Conduct Research

Huntsville City Schools
200 White Street
Huntsville, AL 35801
256-428-6800

May 11, 2015

Dear LaToya Cosby,

Based on my review of your research proposal, I give permission for you to conduct the study entitled *The Effect of Secondary Teacher Personality on Educational Empowerment* within the Huntsville City School System. As part of this study, I authorize you to contact teachers via their school email to solicit participation in your study. Individuals' participation will be voluntary and at their own discretion.

I understand that the teachers who choose to participate the your study will be taking the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator® assessment and asked to answer questions about their evaluations done in EDUCATEAlabama, i.e. objectives and levels of assessment.

We reserve the right to withdraw from the study at any time if our circumstances change.

I confirm that I am authorized to approve research in this setting and that this plan complies with the organization's policies.

I understand that the data collected will remain entirely confidential and may not be provided to anyone outside of the student's supervising faculty/staff without permission from the Walden University IRB. Data will be kept for a period of at least five years, as required by Walden University.

Sincerely,

Cathy McNeal, Ed.D.
Director, Office of Assessment and Accountability
Huntsville City Schools
200 White Street
Huntsville, AL 35801
Tel. 256.428.6966; Email: mary.mcneal@hsv-k12.org

## Appendix B: Invitation to Participate

Dear Teacher,

You are invited to take part in my research study of high school teachers' personality types. I am inviting teachers who taught high school in the state of Alabama during the 2013–2014 school year to be in the study. I am conducting this research as part of my doctoral requirements for Walden University. Please review the attached informed consent and follow the instructions in the last paragraph if you agree to participate in my study.

Thank you in advance,

LaToya Cosby

## Appendix C: Demographic Questionnaire

Completion of the demographic questionnaire is essential to analyzing how varying factors may influence the results of this research. All responses to these choices will remain confidential. Any published accounts of the research will not include any information that could identify any study participants. Data will be kept for a period of at least 5 years, as required by the university.

Please check the line for the choice that applied to you at the end of the 2013–2014 school year:

**Have you previously taken the MBTI? (Please circle one.) YES** or **NO**

If YES, what were your four-letter results? _____

**Gender:**

____Male ____Female

**Age Range:**

____21–30 ____51–60

____31–40 ____61–70

____41–50 ____70–80

**Educational background** (highest earned academic degree):

____Undergraduate Degree

____Master's Degree

____Doctoral Degree

**Subject taught:**

____Reading ____Social Studies

____Biology ____Language

____Math ____Other: _____

**Years in Education:**

____1–5 ____15–20

____6–10 ____20+

____11–15

**Are you considered by the state of Alabama to be a "Highly Qualified Teacher"?**

____Yes ____No

**Please indicate the school where you taught for the 2013-2014 school year.**

_____

**Please list which EDUCATEAlabama Standards and Indicators (for example, 1.1, 1.2, 2.1, etc.) you were evaluated on for the 2013-2014 school year and indicate your final scores:**

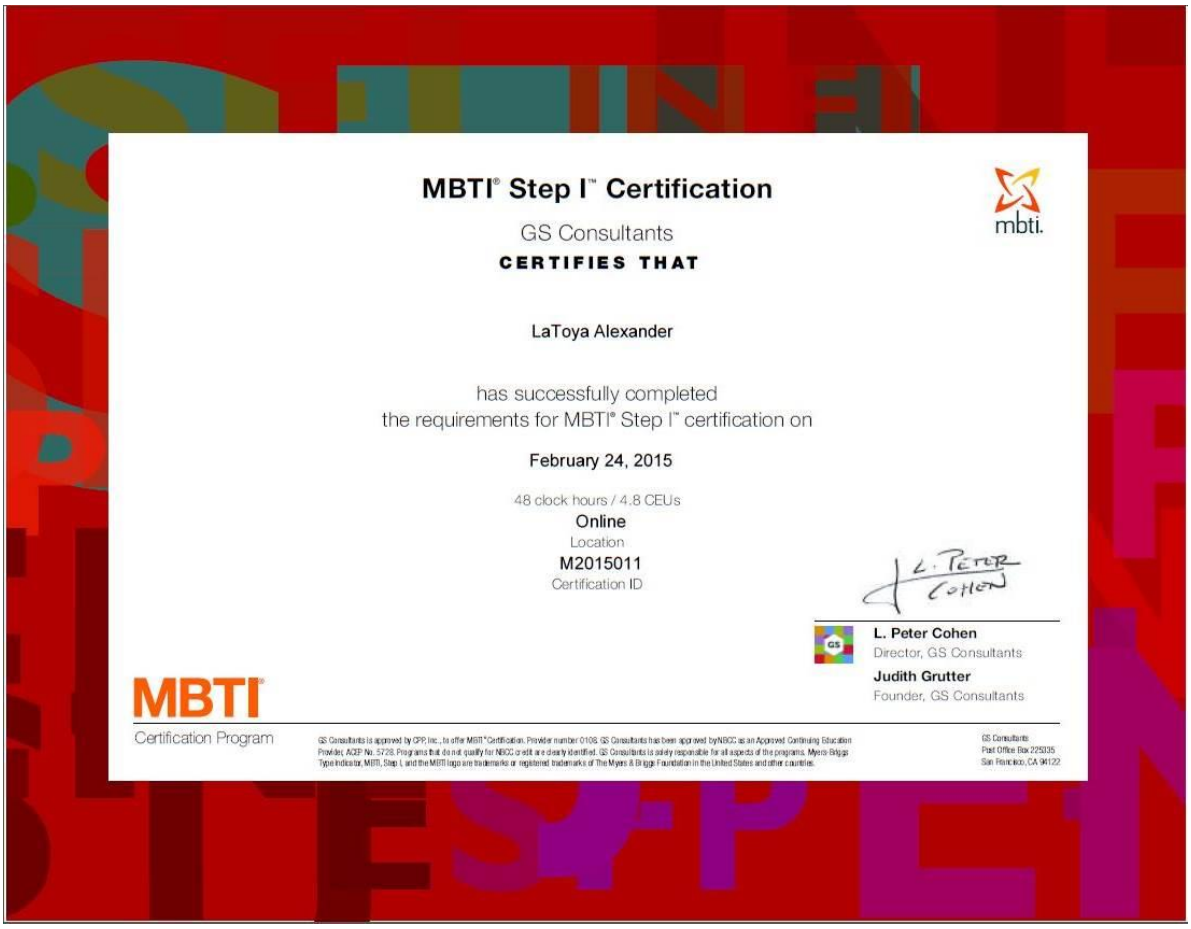
Standard/Indicator: _____ Emerging Applying Integrating Innovating

Standard/Indicator: _____ Emerging Applying Integrating Innovating

Standard/Indicator: _____ Emerging Applying Integrating Innovating

Standard/Indicator: _____ Emerging Applying Integrating Innovating

# Appendix D: MBTI Certification



**MBTI® Step I™ Certification**

mbti.

GS Consultants

**CERTIFIES THAT**

LaToya Alexander

has successfully completed
the requirements for MBTI® Step I™ certification on

**February 24, 2015**

48 clock hours / 4.8 CEUs

**Online**
Location

**M2015011**
Certification ID

L. Peter Cohen

**L. Peter Cohen**
Director, GS Consultants

**Judith Grutter**
Founder, GS Consultants

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