Theses and Dissertations (All)

6-11-2012

Gender and Leadership: Educational Leadership through Feminine Eyes: Have the Barriers in Acquiring Educational Administrative Positions for Women Changed in the Last Fifteen Years?

M. Holly Morrison
Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Follow this and additional works at: http://knowledge.library.iup.edu/etd

Recommended Citation

Morrison, M. Holly, "Gender and Leadership: Educational Leadership through Feminine Eyes: Have the Barriers in Acquiring Educational Administrative Positions for Women Changed in the Last Fifteen Years?" (2012). *Theses and Dissertations (All)*. 457.
http://knowledge.library.iup.edu/etd/457

GENDER AND LEADERSHIP: EDUCATIONAL LEADERSHIP

THROUGH FEMININE EYES: HAVE THE BARRIERS IN

ACQUIRING EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

FOR WOMEN CHANGED IN THE LAST FIFTEEN YEARS?

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Education

M. Holly Morrison

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

May 2012

Indiana University of Pennsylvania
School of Graduate Studies and Research
Department of Professional Studies in Education

We hereby approve the dissertation of

M. Holly Morrison

Candidate for the degree of Doctor of Education

_____   _____
Kathleen Foster, Ed.D.
Professor of Education, Co-Advisor
East Stroudsburg University

_____   _____
Sue A. Rieg, Ed.D.
Professor of Education, Co-Advisor

_____   _____
Douglas Lare, Ed.D.
Professor of Education
East Stroudsburg University

ACCEPTED

_____   _____
Timothy P. Mack, Ph.D.
Dean
School of Graduate Studies and Research

Title: Gender and Leadership: Educational Leadership through Feminine Eyes: Have the Barriers in Acquiring Educational Administrative Positions for Women Changed in the Last Fifteen Years?

Author: M. Holly Morrison

Dissertation Co-Chairs: Dr. Kathleen Foster
                          Dr. Sue A. Rieg

Dissertation Committee Member: Dr. Douglas Lare

The purpose of this study was to replicate a study that was completed in 1992-1993 and published in 1996 in a textbook, *Highly Successful Women Administrators: The Inside Stories of How They Got There* by Sandra Lee Gupton and Gloria Appelt Slick. More than 15 years have passed since the results of that study were shared. The intent of this study was to duplicate the original reason for the study, which was to investigate the topic of gender issues in order to learn more about the experiences and perceptions of today's female administrators in education. The researcher added current quantitative and qualitative data to the literature that currently exists about women administrators, and their experiences and perceptions during career development. The survey instruments originated by the two previously mentioned authors were used to replicate this study in Pennsylvania. For 50 years, gender issues have been one focal point of research in the field of education, especially as they related to women in leadership capacities.

The current study gathered information about women's experiences in their quest to acquiring leadership positions in education. This study entailed two phases with the first being a survey of 300 selected Pennsylvania top-level administrators in the public school system. The Gupton and Slick questionnaire solicited information about women administrators' experiences and the perceptions about their ascent to the top (Gupton & Slick, 1996). In the second phase of the study, the researcher conducted interviews utilizing the second survey, again designed by Gupton and Slick, with 25 female superintendents in Pennsylvania. The questionnaire was

accompanied by a series of narrative prompts to assist the participants in telling their stories. Those superintendents who agreed to participate in the study were contacted to arrange an interview. The quantitative data were compiled, analyzed, interpreted, and then supported by qualitative accounts from superintendent interviews.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The printed pages of this dissertation hold far more than the seven years it took to complete. These pages reflect the relationships with many inspiring, generous, and supportive people who provided me with the wherewithal to begin, continue, and finish my doctoral program. It is the following people to whom I owe my deepest gratitude:

Dr. Lare did me a great favor when he assigned Dr. Kathleen Foster as my co-chair from ESU. Dr. Foster - thank you for allowing me to swim on my own, but throwing me a life raft when I was drowning. Your wisdom, knowledge and ability to motivate and inspire me are what helped me to overcome many crisis situations and finish this dissertation. Co-Chair, Dr. Sue Rieg - your long distance encouragement and coaching style kept the fire in me alive to continue. Dr. Douglas Lare - you provided me with a vision. You challenged me from the first day of the first class right through to my epiphany. Thank you.

To my invaluable cohort at ESU - thank you for your unconditional friendship, and support. The time we shared together will be forever ingrained in my memory (I have pictures in case I forget!). A family was formed and we will always remember each other. Thanks to those who motivated me the last four years to persevere. Coz, Steve, Greg, Jay, and Chris - you have been supportive, generous, and loving friends without whom I could not have survived this journey.

I am thankful to Sandra Gupton and Gloria Appelt Slick who saw the need to research and report on the topic of women in educational leadership and for paving the way for me and others with their 1996 report *Highly Successful Women Administrators*. This replicated study was made possible because of their original work in the early 90's. Thank you, Dr. Gupton, for your early support of this project.

and thank you for your home away from home. You were my favorite cheerleader, counselor, and voice of reason - I am honored you call me "friend."

For my friends who have asked in any way how I was doing and whose well-wishes and encouragement was always refreshing through this process – thank you. For any errors or inadequacies that remain in this work, the responsibility is, of course, entirely my own.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Gibbs (2009), in a *TIME* special report said:

If you were a woman reading this magazine 40 years ago, the odds were good that your

husband provided the money to buy it. That you voted the same way he did. That if you

got breast cancer, he might be asked to sign the form authorizing a mastectomy. That

your son was heading to college but not your daughter. That your boss, if you had a job,

could explain that he was paying you less because, after all, you were probably working

just for pocket money. (p. 25)

The American Association of School Administrators' (AASA) most recent report, issued in

2006, indicated that nearly 22% of school superintendents nationwide were women.   A survey in

2000 identified it at 16% (Goldman, 2009). The next formal AASA study was completed in

2010, where one in four respondents (24.1%) were women (Kowalski, McCord, Peteren, Young,

& Ellerson, 2011). It is important to track the percentage of females in leadership positions in

education in order to monitor and understand better their status as a traditionally

underrepresented class in the top administrative positions in the profession. AASA's report

definitely indicated more women are assuming the position of superintendent nationwide.   It is

reported that women make up 57% of the undergraduates in United States colleges today, and

they earn a majority of the doctoral degrees awarded in this country indicating women are

academically prepared for positions of leadership (Marklein, 2005).

Although more women are currently ascending to top leadership positions in educational

administration, the need to determine the reasons for continued underrepresentation of women in

top-level educational positions provided the basis for this study. Sandra Gupton and Gloria

Appelt Slick conducted a survey in the early 1990s and published their results in a book entitled *Highly Successful Women Administrators: The Inside Stories of How They Got There*. The intent of this study was to utilize the survey instruments that were originated by the two previously mentioned authors and replicate their study in Pennsylvania. For years, gender issues have been one focal point of research in the field of education, especially as they relate to women in leadership capacities. At the same time Gupton and Slick were preparing for their research, The Glass Ceiling Commission was created by the United States Department of Labor as a result of the Civil Rights Act of 1991 and was charged to study and recommend ways to eliminate the barriers and discriminations faced by women and minorities as they attempted to advance into management positions. The Commission's recommendations were supposedly implemented and its work completed in 1996, but as cited in Gupton's most recent work, attitudinal barriers and discriminatory organizational practices continue to exist and limit opportunity and advancement in the 21st century, particularly for women (The Gale Group, 2007 as cited in Gupton, 2009).

Historical Background

From the late 1800s through 1930, women experienced enormous success in attaining county superintendencies accounting for 228 county superintendencies in 1896 and then 288 in 1901 (Blount, 1999). According to the research of Blount (1999), women continued to make impressive gains in school leadership until World War II. After the war, school administration experienced a significant period of restructuring that reaffirmed the masculine identification of the work. There were many factors that contributed to this shift, some of which included the following:

2

Schools launched aggressive campaigns to recruit men. Millions of veterans were looking for employment and there was a shortage of qualified teachers because the baby boom had enlarged school enrollments. Because men did not want to work in a woman's field, school districts recruited them with the promise that they would receive rapid promotion to school administration.

Blount (1999) further reported the post-war years brought a major change in the way that persons moved into school administrative work. Men received post-baccalaureate credentials from a rapidly expanding roster of educational administration preparation programs around the country. There were few women in these programs, if any, because they wanted slots to go to veterans. These men then secured these positions not through rising through the ranks but because they were better qualified. Since few women were permitted military employment during the war, the overwhelming majority of persons qualified to receive the G.I. bill education benefits were men. "Consolidation occurred, turning smaller districts into larger ones so that there was enough compensation to make those positions attractive to males, which prompted many women to lose their positions because smaller schools and districts consolidated" (Blount, 1999, p. 8).

A writer for the *American School Board Journal* in 1946 described the characteristics that made one successful superintendent candidate so desirable: 'The man selected could not be labeled as an effeminate being. He was a former collegiate athletic hero. His physique was comparable to any of the mythical Greek gods. He was truly the ultimate in manliness.' And in fact, men increasingly were expected to have proven their manliness by having participated in and coached school athletics. A report produced by the AASA in 1971 proudly indicated that of all the

superintendents serving at that time, eighty percent had coached school sports before moving into administration. Marriage also came to be important proof of masculinity and heterosexuality.   (Blount, 1999, p. 11)

Women who chose to affirm their femininity, as it was constructed at the time, were regarded as unprofessional and certainly not fitting school administrators, which is why women county superintendents dropped from twenty-three percent in 1950 to fourteen percent in 1970 and women in all kinds of superintendencies plummeted from nine percent in 1950 to 3 percent in 1970, clearly suggesting a significant shakeup in the gender make-up of school administration. (Blount, 1999)

In 1992 McGrath stated, "Sex discrimination is clearly one of the reasons women fail to gain administrative positions" (p. 62). Thirteen years ago, only 5% of all superintendents were women. This is odd, considering that the majority of all educators are women. This research suggested that in the past women were not considered for administrative positions because they lacked qualifications, and they must go above and beyond to convince the employer that they are qualified for these positions. McGrath noted that in a study conducted in 1989 at Texas A & M, school board members indicated that women were less effective than men in leadership positions and should stay in the classroom as teachers. That statement was made just 20 years ago, when women's voices were beginning to be heard. According to McGrath, one-third of all school board members are currently women, and according to the Pennsylvania School Boards Association (PSBA) in a bulletin published in January 2010, "the number of female school directors was 33% in 2009."

McGrath (1992) also noted that men are often chosen for leadership positions because of networks where men prevail. When board members know male candidates as a result of outside

relationships, such as membership in fraternal or social groups, selection for the position is then based on the familiarity of the person. Women are often overlooked because they are not known from those social networks. Men tend to choose other men for powerful positions in leadership.

Even in the new millennium, research indicated that working women tend not to advance as quickly as men, receive lower pay for the same job, and tend not to rate themselves as highly as their male counterparts. Adams and Hambright (2004) reported that women do not gravitate toward administrative positions for reasons which included low pay in comparison to the job responsibilities, high stress, and large time commitment. The reasons listed above are reasons why teachers in administrative preparation programs indicated they would not want to advance to that level of management. These researchers also noted that women are holding approximately 75% of the teaching jobs in education, but only 40% of the administrative positions. "This is particularly true in high schools, where females make up more than the majority of the teaching staff while the principals are predominantly male" (Adams & Hambright, 2004, p. 209).

The Purpose of the Study

Although AASA has documented that more women are holding higher level positions in education, the lion's share of these top positions was still occupied by males except at the elementary principalship level (a position historically considered less administratively influential and oftentimes paid less than upper-level administrators), where only recently women equaled men. The purpose of this study was to determine the reasons for the continued under-representation of women administrators in top-level educational positions, and how the issues may have changed since the early 1990s when Gupton and Slick completed their study. In replicating this study, the researcher collected data from women engaged in the quest for, ascent

5

to, and the acquisition of leadership positions in the educational profession. Investigating this topic again in the 21st century, data should provide information to facilitate better understanding about whether the same obstacles and barriers from the early 1990s still exist, and how—in the experiences and perceptions of female leaders in education today—they may have changed in the last 15 years.

Literature highlighting women's issues provided updated information on women's status in positions of leadership in the workplace. *TIME* magazine for November 2009 featured a special report entitled "The State of the American Woman." The AASA publishes a journal entitled *The School Administrator,* in which the September 2009 issue featured the following article "Navigating the Labyrinth; for women superintendents, it's more than a glass ceiling." The Shriver Report conducted by Maria Shriver and the Center for American Progress was released in October 2009 and entitled "A Women's Nation Changes Everything." This document examined the consequences of what was a major tipping point in the nation's social and economic history: the emergence of working women as primary breadwinners and their presence on America's payrolls making up half the nation's current workforce. The message remained clear: discrimination of women in the workplace still existed despite the Glass Ceiling Commission; the "good ole boy" network was still alive and well for many women in education; women still had the major responsibility of caring for children, and in more recent years, aging parents as well; and women continued to receive less pay for the same work far too often.

Another possibility given for women's continued under-representation in educational leadership positions was that women themselves chose not to seek higher-level administrative careers (Merrill-Sands, Kickul, & Ingols, 2005). This is particularly puzzling, since women today earn more of the administrative degrees in education than men. Why would women spend

the time and money to pursue these degrees if they have no aspirations for advanced leadership positions? The more recent literature is further examining the reasons behind such claims.

It is important to continue to monitor the status of women in the workplace, and in this study, in educational leadership in particular to do more in-depth exploration of women's under-representation. This is to ensure efforts continually be made to address stubborn stereotypes that are not easily eradicated despite laws and policies instituted to prevent them, and the harm and costs to everyone that such immoral, "wrong thinking" ultimately imposes. Schools in this country need the potential leadership of both men and women who have the skill, talents, education, and dedication to deal with the unprecedented complexity of issues that face education today. The literature review in Chapter 2 provides documentation of the outstanding leadership of women pioneers who have defied the odds and moved into top administrative positions in education. Thus, for women to remain so underrepresented in the leadership positions of a profession where the vast majority of professional employees are women defies any logical reasoning. History made it clear: Such inequitable treatment of any segment of a society eventually takes its toll on everyone.

This study replicated a study that was completed in 1992-1993 and published in 1996 in textbook form. The authors Sandra Lee Gupton and Gloria Appelt Slick and their research-based book *Highly Successful Women Administrators: The Inside Stories of How They Got There* included the questionnaire used to collect data from women leaders in education in the early 1990s. This study used an adapted form of the questionnaire to collect current data from the group of today's female leaders in education to learn more about their experiences in acquiring and working in leadership positions in education. The researcher used the data to determine if

the perceptions and barriers encountered by today's female educational leaders regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership in the profession have changed since the early 1990s, and what may be new issues that have arisen for women seeking leadership positions in education today.

Gupton and Slick's Study

Patricia Schmuck, graduate professor at Lewis & Clark College and author of the book *Women Getting Together and Getting Ahead* (sponsored by The Sex Equity in Educational Leadership Project and funded by the Women's Educational Equity Act in 1976), wrote the foreword in Gupton and Slick's book. Schmuck's book provided advice to women seeking leadership roles, which Gupton and Slick's book then replicated (Gupton & Slick, 1996). In the foreword, Schmuck compared her earlier book and the projects' findings from 1976 to the issues generated by Gupton and Slick in the 1996 study. Ms. Schmuck stated that "things have not changed at all" (p. vii). She indicated that the disturbing narratives found in the survey data from the 151 respondents in Gupton and Slick's (1996) results concur with that comment. She continued noting statistics from Gupton and Slick's study to support her aforementioned statement. Seventy percent of women reported obstacles to their careers because they were women; 74% of women reported that they had negative role models half of whom were women; and 57% said that they are not part of a network of professional support. Seventeen percent of these women said that they did not need or want such support; and 20% of the respondents indicated that they had never been a mentor to others (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

Schmuck also finds it perplexing that women who faced overt bias and discrimination refuse to call it bias and discrimination. Women who deny that they have been discriminated against often see themselves as exceptions. "As they dissociate themselves from their female

identity, they remain self-oriented and tend not to identify with other women, but rather with those who are the gatekeepers of the profession" (Gupton & Slick, 1996, p. ix).

Despite the similarities in the statistics, some change is occurring. Schmuck cited Chapter Nine from Gupton and Slick's book as being the most important chapter in the book. The title is "The Evolution of Issues Related to Leadership and Gender." This chapter contains many positive and uplifting tales from administrators reflecting change (Gupton & Slick, 1996). According to Schmuck, Gupton and Slick focus on four shifts that occurred in the past decades from the time they conducted their study. The shifts included (Gupton & Slick, 1996):

1. A shift from women's lack of aspiration for administrative positions to their need for a better support system. Gupton and Slick cite that there is no need to worry as much about motivating women to be administrators; there is a need to build support systems for them to compensate for obstacles they still face because they are women.

2. A shift from women's lack of necessary qualifications and leadership ability to a greater concern about the quality of their preparation and recognitions of their leadership talents. This recognizes that many women bring with them a way of leading that is different from the models of the past. It is not coincidental that the model of leadership is changing as more women enter the arena of leadership. That is not to say that all women lead one way and all men lead another way; it is to say, however, that women and men have different cultural realities and experiences that lead to different ideas about leadership. By including more diverse kinds of leaders, we have begun to conceptualize leadership differently from in the past.

3. A shift from focusing solely on too few women acquiring positions in educational administration expanding to include on-the-job maintenance and retention issues. The

storytellers in the book describe on-the-job harassment and other difficulties resulting in reasons why female superintendents have left the field. There are still Neanderthal thinkers—educators, school board members, and others who believe that women should not be in a leadership position. It may be lonely at the top; women at the top, however, face problems other than just loneliness. Stronger support systems need to be available to women administrators.

4. The ultimate shift--from access to equity. Gupton and Slick point out that old habits and time-honored gender roles are nebulous and stubbornly resistant to change. This has several implications for individuals and school organizations. As individuals, women leaders must ascertain in what situations their femaleness matters. Sometimes, it will not matter at all; other times, it will matter very much. Women need to know when it matters. (p. xi)

One final quote from Schmuck's foreword was significant:

Once women leaders were silent and invisible. In the past few decades, their silence and invisibility have been replaced with a new feminist consciousness and attention to their stories. This book adds to our knowledge and understanding of women leading. (Gupton & Slick, 1996, p. xii)

The "knowledge and understanding" referenced by Schmuck that resulted from the research done by Gupton and Slick's study included the finding that many women at that time aspired to less than the top-level administrative positions in the profession, which included the positions of superintendents, assistant superintendents, and high school principals. Many still saw themselves in a supportive role, even in the administration arena. The majority of their 151 respondents were in assistant superintendent positions, rather than in the "chief" positions of

superintendent. Forty-nine percent of their respondents were assistant superintendents, 29% were superintendents, and 21% were high school principals.

Gupton and Slick (1996) cited that although more women were aspiring to administrative positions, the positions they acquired were less than the most powerful in the profession. In addition, they found that an increasing number of women held certification and degrees to qualify them for administrative positions (women received 11% of the doctoral degrees in educational administration in 1971, 20% in 1980, 39% in 1982, and 49% in 1991). This data would suggest that women are certified to hold these positions; however, they were not applying for these high-level power positions in educational administration. The numbers reported by Quality Education Data, Inc. (1992) indicated that approximately 10% of school superintendents, 22% of assistant superintendents, and 9% of high school principals in the United States were women. These three positions are considered the power positions in public school education (Gupton, & Slick, 1996).

It is the goal of the researcher to follow up this study, now 15 years later, to see how, if, and/or to what degree changes may have occurred in the status of women in educational leadership and their experiences along the way. In addition, the researcher continues to add to the knowledge base and understanding of the phenomenon in this country of the under-representation of women in leadership positions in education . . . the profession known as the "woman's profession," in which over 75% of the employees are female.

Research Questions

The questions that this study examined were:

1. What are the perceptions and barriers encountered by today's female educational leaders regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership in the profession?

2. How do the perceptions of today's female educational leaders compare with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s?

Definition of Terms

American Association of School Administrators--Professional organization of educational leaders (Goldman, 2009).

Agentic--Qualities that psychologists refer to as authoritative, assertive, and competitive (Eagly & Carli, 2009).

Androgynous--Having the characteristics or nature of both female and male (Manning, 2002).

Autocratic Style--Style in which one has undisputed power or influence (Hudson & Williamson, 2002).

Collaborative Management Style--Coordination and teamwork in order to improve organization-level performance outcomes (Shantz, 1995).

Communal--Qualities that psychologists refer to as helpful, kind, and giving (Eagly & Carli, 2009).

Corporate America--Informal phrase describing corporations within the United States not under government ownership (Harrington & Ladge, 2009).

Democratic Style--The manager allows the employees to take part in decision-making: therefore everything is agreed by the majority with communication going in both directions (Hudson & Williamson, 2002).

Gender Gap--The difference between women and men, especially as reflected in social, political, intellectual, cultural, or economic attainments or attitudes (Boushey, 2009).

Good Ole Boy--A male who embodies the unsophisticated good fellowship and sometime boisterous sociability regarded as typical of white males in small towns and rural areas of the South; a man having qualities held to be characteristic of certain southern white males with strong loyalty to family and friends and often an anti-intellectual bias and intolerant point of view (Dictionary.com).

Machoism Factor--One of the elements contributing to a particular situation while exhibiting pride in characteristics believed to be typically masculine, such as physical strength, sexual appetite, etc. (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

Network--An interconnected or interrelated chain, group, or system (Dictionary.com).

Queen Bee--A woman who is in a favored or preeminent position (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

Second Shift--As the majority of women entered the workforce, sociologist and Berkeley professor, Arlie Hochschild, was one of the first to talk about what really happens in dual-career households. Many people were amazed to find that women still did the majority of childcare and housework even though they also worked outside the home (Hochschild, 2003).

Self- Imposed Barriers--Anything that restrains or obstructs progresses which are voluntarily assumed (Derrington & Sharratt, 2009)

13

Sex Discrimination-- treatment or consideration of, or making a distinction in favor of or against, a person or thing based on the group, class, or category to which that person or thing belongs rather than on individual merit: gender (Dictionary.com)

The Glass Ceiling--Term describing discrimination that women and minorities often experience when trying to advance into an organization's senior management levels (Dana & Bourisow, 2006).

Women's Education Equity Act--The Women's Educational Equity Act (WEEA) program was enacted in 1974 to promote educational equity for girls and women, including those who suffer multiple discrimination based on gender and on race, ethnicity, national origin, disability, or age, and to provide funds to help education agencies and institutions meet the requirements of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

Organization of the Study

This study used descriptive quantitative and qualitative data collected from research utilizing a survey distributed to 300 female educational administrative professionals within the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania and the intent of securing interviews from 25 female superintendents which followed the intent from the previous study (Appendices A and B). The researcher was granted permission from the author of the previous study to replicate this study in Pennsylvania by utilizing the same instrument (Appendices C and D). The Women in Education Questionnaire (Appendix A) was distributed to 300 female administrators and was comprised of seven sections detailed in Chapter 3. The survey consisted of questions with rating scales or numerical responses, which were aggregated and disaggregated to yield descriptive statistics

using percentages. The qualitative data came from an open-ended question in which respondents were asked to share personal advice to other women aspiring to positions similar to their own.

In order to enhance this study, the second phase of the research was to invite 25 of the respondents to the survey for more in-depth responses using a follow-up questionnaire. Appendix B was used as the basis to interview Pennsylvania superintendents. The questionnaire was comprised of four sections, which include Demographics, Position Information, a Vita or Resume, and Their Success Story, which asked them to share their story and their personal account of how they made it to a top-level position in education. The researcher used additional prompts as a foundation to formulate questions for an interview, which assisted the participants in the self-reflection of their journey.

Gupton and Slick (1996) triangulated their collected data and formulated key lessons. In their book, each chapter was dedicated to one of the ten key lessons gleaned from the data. Table 1 identifies their 10 key findings:

Table 1

Chapter Titles—Ten Key Lessons from Gupton and Slick's Book

Chapter 1	Be Prepared
Chapter 2	Plan for Your Career
Chapter 3	Persevere
Chapter 4	Be Diligent and Professional
Chapter 5	Honor, Preserve, and Protect Your Integrity
Chapter 6	Reach Out to and Through Others
Chapter 7	Practice What You Seek: The Importance of Mentoring
Chapter 8	Lead by Example

Chapter 9   The Evolution of Issues Related to Leadership and Gender

Chapter 10   The Collective Voice: "Go for It!"

Framework for Development

The ten lessons from Gupton and Slick were developed as a result of their research,

which linked many characteristics and behaviors to the way in which females lead. Social-Role

Theory was originated in an effort to understand the cause of sex differences and similarities in

social behavior. It evolved from the context of scientifically documented sex differences in

social behavior and personality and argued that the beliefs people have about the sexes are

derived from observations of the role performances of men and women. This reflects the sexual

division of labor and gender hierarchy in society. These beliefs constitute gender roles, and

which through a variety of processes, fosters a real difference in behavior. (Eagly, Wood, &

Diekman 2000). Eagly and Carli (2009) distinguished gender-stereotyped characteristics

between the communal (characterized by emotional expressiveness and nurturing) and agentic

(characterized by assertiveness and independence) dimensions. The communal role is commonly

associated to women while the agentic role is commonly associated with public activities, and

thus, with men. Although there are always exceptions, one might say that Social -Role Theory

would predict that women tend to be more transformational whereas men's leadership style tends

to be more transactional.

This framework guided the current research. The underlying implication within this

study proposes that women lead differently than men. Furthermore, it suggests that leaders

possess different traits and characteristics as a result of being born female or male. In the

original research, Gupton and Slick conducted a survey and asked women to compare their own

personality traits and characteristics to that of both males and females in positions similar to their

16

own. When the women from Gupton and Slick's study compared characteristics and personality traits to men in similar positions, the findings supported elements of Social-Role Theory. The traits identified by these women were traits considered valuable in relationships. They included being more verbally oriented, cooperative, people-oriented, sensitive to people and concerned about personal relationships thus giving credence to the Social-Role Theory.

Summary

The study was a replication of a study that was completed in 1992-1993 and published in 1996 in a textbook, *Highly Successful Women Administrators: The Inside Stories of How They Got There* by Sandra Lee Gupton and Gloria Appelt Slick. Fifteen years have passed since the results of that study were shared. The purpose of this current study was to gather information about women's perceptions and barriers encountered regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership and comparing them with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s.

This study entailed two phases, with the first being a survey of 300 selected Pennsylvania top-level administrators including superintendents, assistant superintendents, and high school principals in the public school system. The survey solicited information about these female administrators' experiences and the perceptions about their ascent to the top (Gupton & Slick, 1996). The second phase of the study was to conduct follow-up interviews based on the questionnaire designed by Gupton and Slick to an anticipated 25 female superintendents in Pennsylvania. The questionnaire in this second phase of the study was altered from the original, with the inclusion of an additional question to provide more insight into the progress made since the original study (in the perception of these women). Questions to answer in this study included "What are the perceptions and barriers encountered by today's female educational leaders

17

regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership in the profession?" and "How do the perceptions of today's female educational leaders compare with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s"?

The second chapter of this study is a literature review to present current research about gender and leadership, with a focus on barriers and obstacles encountered by female administrators in this country. In addition, the researcher included research from corporate America to determine if female leaders in the business world were also faced with the same or similar barriers and obstacles as those in education.

Chapter 3 explains the methodology used in phases of the research to conduct the quantitative and qualitative approach to the study. Chapter 4 is a critical examination of the results from both phases of the research. The final chapter is a summary of the researcher's findings, with her reflections on the study's significance, limitations, and implications for future research in this area.

CHAPTER 2

OVERVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Literature Review

This chapter reflects the extensive amount of literature found regarding gender and leadership. For many, gender issues have been one focal point of research in the field of education, especially as they relate to the role women play in leadership capacities at present. This review presents a historical perspective of the obstacles women faced in their ascension to educational administration positions. In addition a shift in the dimensions of those barriers was examined. Obstacles women faced in America were identified and reviewed in order to develop a "whole picture" or overview of the issue.

The following statistics provide us with the impression that women are more highly represented in academia, politics, and television. Other literature suggests that women's expertise is limited in the areas of science, engineering, and business (executives). Women are empowered, or are they?   The review of literature provides varied results. According to Gibbs, (2009) college campuses used to be almost 60-40 male; now the ratio has reversed, and close to half of law and medical degrees are awarded to women, up from fewer than 10% in 1970. Half the Ivy League presidents are women and two of the three television network anchors are women. Three of the four most recent Secretaries of State have been women. There are more than 145 foundations designed to empower women around the world, in the belief that this is the greatest possible weapon against poverty and disease; however, there was only one major foundation (the Ms. Foundation) for women in 1972. For the first time in history five women have won Nobel Prizes in 2009 (for Chemistry, Economics, and Literature).

We just came through an election year in which Hillary Clinton, Sarah Palin, Tina Fey, and Katie Couric were lead players, not the supporting cast. And the President of the United States was raised by a single mother and married a lawyer that outranked and out earned him. (Gibbs, 2009, p. 25)

Selection of literature was based on the reference point for this study; including the themes of history of women in leadership, leadership style and differences in gender, gender specific models of leadership and gender specific traits of leaders, and barriers for women ascending into administrative positions. Literature was also chosen that identified obstacles and barriers for all women whether they chose positions in the educational field of administration or positions in corporate America. Resources that the researcher sought included peer reviewed journal articles that were both relevant to the historical approach to gender differences in administrative positions as well as current papers submitted at annual conferences and other articles written by independent authors. It was important to use some journal articles that presented a historical perspective to actually examine the extent women have progressed in terms of holding administrative positions in education. For example, information from a survey conducted in 1972 and then again in 2009 provided comparison information regarding women in the workplace.

The professional area in which women continue to have low representation is in engineering and science (Harrington & Ladge, 2009). "In engineering for example, women earn only about 20% of the degrees awarded in the United States, with the highest percentages of those being in chemical and industrial engineering (earning 30% or more)" (p. 202). Despite the progress women have made, as of July 2009, only 15 companies on the Fortune 500 list were run by female chief executives, and 14 of the next 501 to 1,000 companies, according to Catalyst, the

leading women's nonprofit research organization were run by women. That is less than a 3% representation. Further, only 15.7% of corporate officer positions in Fortune 500 companies were held by women—and this number has not increased at all since 2002. These low numbers and the lack of progress in recent years suggest that it is not simply a time lag that results in the lost number of women in senior management. "It is also the effects of the so called 'leaky pipeline,' as women drop out of organizations' talent management systems before they reach senior management positions" (Harrington & Ladge, 2009, p. 203). Much of the gap is attributable to the fact that men and women work in different jobs, but a significant proportion (41.1%) cannot be explained by characteristics of women or their jobs.

Today, the movement of women into the labor force is not just enduring but certifiably revolutionary—perhaps the greatest social transformation of our time (Boushey, 2009).

> Women are more likely to work outside the home and their earnings are more important to family well-being than ever before in our nation's history. This transformation has the propensity to change everything. At the most profound level, it changes the rules of what it means to be a woman—and what it means to be a man. Women are now increasingly sharing the role of breadwinner, as well as the role of caregiver, with the men in their lives. Even so, we have yet to come to terms with what it means to live in a nation where both men and women typically work outside the home and what we need to do to make this new reality workable for families who have child care and elder care responsibilities through most of their working lives. (Boushey, 2009, p. 31)

The focus in the literature turned to wages. "Over time, the gender gap has narrowed—it was 59 cents on the dollar for women in the early 1970s—but the pace of convergence has slowed to a crawl in recent years. The most significant compression in the gender pay gap

occurred during the 1980s, but this was because men's wages fell, rather than because women's wages rose" (Boushey, 2009, p. 58). According to Boushey's study equal opportunity legislation made it possible for women to take nearly any job and women now constitute half of all workers, but they do not make up half of every kind of job. Continued sex segregation in employment is one of the primary factors explaining the wage gap between men and women.

Themes in the Literature

The literature presented a historical perspective in which the differences in how men and women were perceived in administrative roles were very similar to how they are perceived today. The perception that administrative positions are generally held by males is apparent as being a leader is considered to be a masculine role in our society. Teaching positions were generally held by women because they were considered feminine roles. Until recently, even though women held leadership positions, women were still treated poorly in these roles with less pay and respect.

Duncan's (1995) literature supported many themes which emerged throughout the research indicating that women who are teachers have been a part of feminine roles and as they advance into administrative roles, they move into primarily masculine roles. Society defined these gender stereotypes which have created unique dilemmas for women as they move into the hierarchical structure of public school administration. Women who have entered the role of administration have been seen as obnoxious, overcompensating, aggressive, controlling, and lacking people skills. According to Hudson and Williamson (2002) it was actually hard to draw lines between leadership styles associated with the female administrator.

Females do tend to be more democratic than autocratic, more collaborative than authoritarian, and more attuned to teachers, students, and instruction, particularly for

those students who are at risk. These students include marginal students who have been

identified as low economically disadvantaged, special education, or English language

learners. (p. 3)

"With regard to style of leadership, females generally were identified with a style of

leadership that was based on relationships" (Irby & Brown, 2004, p. 6). Regan and Brooks

(1995) (as cited in Irby & Brown, 2004) explored ethics within women's experiences as school

leaders. The responses and behaviors related by female administrators working in education

were examined after participation in discussion groups. Through the voices of the women

comprising these groups, a model of leadership emerged. This model, identified by Regan and

Brooks (1995) as "relational leadership," is comprised of five attributes: collaboration; caring;

courage; intuition; and, vision. These attributes can be learned and practiced by both women and

men (Regan & Brooks, 1995).

According to a study in 2009 by Boushey, "Millions of workers now have a female boss

and the more collaborative management styles that many women bring to the workplace are

improving the bottom line" (p. 32). Harrington and Ladge (2009) produced literature in 2009

which concurred that new efforts to bring women more fully into the American workforce at all

levels benefit women and men alike. They indicated that new research demonstrates companies

that consistently promote women to positions of power and leadership over time and across their

operations have greater financial success across a variety of measures. They cited most

companies have not done enough to incorporate women into their business models nor have they

made great strides in addressing the work-life conflicts that most workers, but especially women,

face.

Through much of the literature the female administrator was most focused on the systemic elements of teaching, curriculum, communication, staff development, and empowering others, with less emphasis placed on the business side of the school district. None of the literature read endorsed women leaders as being identified either by themselves or others as being authoritarian or dictators. Women were not referred to as being in the "good ole boy network," and there were not any findings that indicated female administrators were ineffective as a result of their relational leadership styles.

Continually the researcher read about women trying to define their role as a leader in public education. It was stated repeatedly that women had to find positive ways to deal with the fact that they are competent, confident, caring, and good at what they do to compete with the "good ole boy" system. Hudson and Williamson (2002) indicated that women developed differently and are more likely to demonstrate an ethic of care, grounded in relationships rather than laws. Several studies found that female leaders tend to use more conditional, tentative language according to Marshall (1988) (as cited in Hudson & Williams, 2002). Based on his research he suggested that language often used by women does not reflect uncertainty, but instead a deliberate effort at being caring and attentive.

According to Gibbs (2009) more than two-thirds of women still think men resent powerful women, yet women are more likely than men to say female bosses are harder to work for than male bosses. " Men are much more likely to say there are no longer any barriers to female advancement, while a majority of women say men still have it better in life" (p. 26).

In addition among the most confounding changes of all is the evidence, tracked by numerous surveys, that as women have gained more freedom, more education and more economic power, they have become less happy. Or they are now free to wrestle with the

same pressures and conflicts that once accounted for greater male unhappiness. Or that

modern life in global economy is simply more stressful for everyone but especially for

women, who are working longer hours while playing quarterback at home. (Gibbs, 2009,

p. 28)

A related issue for consideration is the contributions females are making toward

managing their own budgets and that of their families while at the same time competing with

men for jobs in which they have reported receiving less pay. A new survey by GfK Roper Public

Affairs and Media (as cited in Gibbs, 2009) gives a whole new meaning to the power of the

purse: 65% of women reported being their family's chief financial planner, and 71% called

themselves the family accountant. "According to a Mediamark Research & Intelligence survey,

they make 75% of the buying decisions in American homes. Together, women control more

wealth than ever in history" (Gibbs 2009, p. 26). According to the statistical analysis by Ford

and Van Dyk there are now 3.3 million married couples in which the wife is the sole earner

which is actually 2.4 million more than in the 1970s (Ford & VanDyk, 2009). Boushey's study

cited staggering statistics from The American Association of University Women who examined

the pay gap between college-educated men and women and found that a woman who goes to the

same kind of school, gets the same grades, has the same major, takes the same kind of job with

similar workplace flexibility perks, and has the same personal characteristics—such as marital

status, race, and number of children—as her male colleague earns 5% less the first year out of

school. Ten years later, even if she keeps pace with the men around her, this research found that

she will earn 12% less. This gap is not about the "choices a woman makes, as the model

compares men and women who have made nearly identical choices" (Boushey, 2009, p. 59).

Obstacles and Barriers for Women

There are actually many more women today in leadership roles in education than there were just 13 years ago. The literature suggests that increasing numbers of women are holding positions in educational leadership including the positions of principal, assistant superintendent, and of course, superintendent. The researcher was able to gain access to the Pennsylvania School Directory for the purpose of identifying female superintendents. Of the 500 school districts, 144 females are employed as superintendents (Pennsylvania School Boards Association, 2009). Utilizing the same website, this number of female superintendents decreased to 135 in 2010 (the year the survey was distributed), and then increased to 140 in 2011.

The following research highlights obstacles and barriers women faced which included the following topics: advancement and acquisition to positions in authority and power within the field of education; self imposed barriers and family responsibilities for women in education; and, stereotypes and discrimination of gender in education. Researchers and authors in presenting their studies and findings concurred with Gupton and Slick's study that these obstacles and barriers existed.

Women advance more slowly than men do even in occupations such as nursing and elementary school teaching where women vastly outnumber men. And even when a woman holds the same managerial position as the man, the woman typically has less power and authority. Women clearly remain disadvantaged in their access to leadership, although there is considerably more equality than in the past. Women have more difficulty than men in obtaining those positions outside of the traditional female dominated sectors of the economy. Once in jobs, regardless of whether those jobs are traditionally masculine or feminine, women don't advance as fast as men and they drop

out more commonly at every stage of their careers. Women do not merely encounter

problems late in their careers when top positions are in their sights, but from the

beginning, when they enter the job market. And then women disappear in various

numbers at many points on the way to the highest levels of leadership, leaving very few

women to compete for the top. (Eagly & Carli, 2009, p. 11)

Eagly and Carli (2009) cited research supporting acquisition to positions in authority and power

are limited and women remain disadvantaged.

As Eagly and Carli (2009) examined the issue of gender and promotion in the workplace,

they found women and men initiate advancement and promotions in different manners. While

men promote themselves, women are usually disliked for enacting the same request and are

usually denied. Women who are direct, demanding, and commanding are often seen as

disagreeable and even offensive. Men are never criticized for displaying those same agentic

behaviors. In the same vane it would be assumed that men are criticized for not having a great

communal presence and that they would be criticized as being unhelpful but this is not the case

either because such behavior is not expected from men only women (Eagly & Carli, 2009).

In the workplace women's slower advancement is due in part to their limited access to

powerful male networks as well as to organizational cultures that are not congenial to

women. Cultures that exclude or alienate women can be based on masculine activities

that are less appealing to women and work environments that might strike women as

"cutthroat" or macho. And a lot of business may be done by going out for drinks after

work, a form of networking particularly difficult for busy mothers. (Eagly & Carli, 2009,

p. 16)

Many female colleagues often have discussions of this inability to network with male colleagues after business hours. Many who had small children had to get to daycare, do homework, make dinner, and attend to other household chores. Male colleagues often have outings on the golf course, or play cards at one of the social clubs or local restaurants. Many female administrators indicate that it is always a dilemma whether to go out with "the boys" or go to work "the second shift!" (Hochschild, 2003).

Gupton and Slick's survey supported the fact that women had not carefully planned their ascent to the top. It appeared that opportunities emerged for women who happened to be in the right place at the right time or perhaps someone believed in them and suggested they apply for a position. Additionally some women happened into these positions by default because of tenure or a recently completed degree (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

The research by Gupton and Slick (1996) revealed that many women aspire to less than the top-level administrative positions in the profession.

Many still see themselves in supportive roles even in administration. The majority of our 151 respondents were in assistant superintendent positions rather than in the chief positions of superintendent. Forty- nine percent of our respondents were assistant superintendents, 29% were superintendents, and 21% were high school principals. The majority of our assistant superintendents were in the area of curriculum and instruction, an area traditionally staffed by women. "Although more women are clearly aspiring to administrative positions, the positions they acquire are less than the most powerful in the profession." (Gupton & Slick, 1996, p xxix)

According to Eagly and Carli (2009), there was substantial evidence the attitudes of both men and women have changed about the relative importance of family and careers indicating that

both men and women have become more family-focused. On one hand, this presents a challenge for women, who have more domestic responsibilities than men and have taken on more duties as "intense" parents. Men's commitment to family has particularly increased, and this commitment has grown with each succeeding generation, so that more men than ever would now consider staying home rather than having a job. At the same time women have changed. Women's personalities have become more assertive, dominant and masculine, and their career preferences have changed too. Women now are much more like men in their desire for authority and leadership than in the past (Eagly & Carli, 2009). Their research indicates that the majority of Americans believe in equal parenting, but even today women still do most of it.

> Surprisingly, research shows that women today actually spend more time interacting with their children than their mothers and grandmothers spent with theirs. So mothering is one of the major challenges that women face in their career journeys, and motherhood produces a wage penalty even for women who remain employed full-time. (Eagly & Carli, 2009, p. 12)

Derrington and Sharratt (2009) presented the notion that ascending to the position of superintendent and choosing not to have children go together. They claimed that because women in the superintendency are expected to meet two sets of expectations, role-related and gender-related, one set of goals is inevitably compromised. Their research suggested that women must either forgo family to meet professional job needs or limit their career opportunities to satisfy personal and family needs.

> Furthermore they claim that being a parent plays a crucial role in whether a woman seeks the superintendency and those women with children in grades K-8 are rarely superintendents. In fact, women with children between the ages of one and 19 represent

the smallest percentage of superintendents compared to women with no children or grown children. (p. 19)

In addition to women limiting their acquisition to higher administrative roles because of parenting roles, the need to care for aging parents could further limit the pool of female superintendents. Women without the support to integrate family obligations with the demands of the superintendency are an untapped pool of strong, qualified applicants (Derrington & Sharratt, 2009).

Even though sex discrimination violates our laws and values as a nation, it has not been eliminated (Eagly & Carli, 2009). Considerable research conducted across the social sciences makes a persuasive case that workplace discrimination still exists.

Although most people have no idea they are discriminating, their evaluations of others are colored by cultural stereotypes painting women as the nicer, kinder sex and men as the assertive, directive sex. Because the qualities that are ascribed to men are more or less the same qualities generally ascribed to leaders, women are viewed as less qualified to lead. To many people, highly qualified women do not seem to possess the characteristics to lead others. Without realizing they are engaging in sex discrimination, people automatically and unconsciously tend to think that women just are not confident or commanding enough to be successful in higher-level leadership posts. (Eagly & Carli, 2009, p. 12)

For more than 20 years the researcher has had opportunities for women and men to share their experiences of discrimination. The one re-occurring theme which prevails is the notion that when women are strong, capable, and assertive, they are labeled with derogatory titles. When men are noticeably strong, capable, and assertive, they are "good men." It does seem that

30

women must amass considerable evidence of accomplishment before they are respected to be "in charge." Women must outperform men in order to be recognized as leaders. The discussions that have unfolded with colleagues tend to be that this recognition generally occurs, but at what cost? Eagly and Carli (2009) documented that women who take charge and show how strong and smart they are often appear to be too forceful and are sometimes criticized for not being warm and nice. Women who are actually trying to satisfy both of these constant pressures are really challenged. "But if they are highly agentic, they may be disliked because people regard them as cold and difficult" (p. 12).

The research conducted by Eagly and Carli in 2009 reported that women are less likely to be invited to join male networks or to be mentored by men, and that the burden is placed on women to make the connections. Some women may feel unwelcome in male dominated networks or even reluctant to participate in the activities that male networks often enjoy, such as pickup basketball and poker games.

> Their study reported that women often find it easier to network with other women, which is a good strategy for obtaining social support but not a good way to increase one's power and authority if men are in charge. It is also indicated that becoming integrated into a valuable network is time-consuming for women, putting additional pressure on those with families because a portion of this networking occurs outside of normal work hours. (p.16)

In discussing the obstacles women face in education as educational leaders, the researcher thought it would be relevant to address obstacles women face ascending to positions of leadership in corporate America. Both sets of obstacles were quite similar when reviewing literature specific to women leaders outside of the educational arena including the persistence of traditional gender-based care giving roles, exclusion from informal corporate networks, and

gender differences embedded in male-dominated organization cultures—all of which can lead to invisibility for women and for women's issues (Harrington & Ladge, 2009).

Nothing compares to the issue of balancing care giving responsibilities with work. In spite of the dramatic increase in the amount of time women spend in paid employment, the time mothers spend with children has declined very little over the past 30 years. This dual work-family role was termed the "second shift" first by Arlie Hochschild in 1989 to describe women overloaded from working two full-time shifts—at work and then at home. This second-shift problem is still alive and well for most women today (Hochschild, 2003).

Many studies have shown that men have increased their commitment to domestic tasks and child-rearing. In fact, according to Suzanne Bianchi, one of the country's leading work-family scholars, men have more than doubled the time engaged in domestic tasks and child-rearing over the past 40 years (from seven hours a week in 1965 to 16.3 hours a week in 2005). But this represents only about half the time women with children dedicate to these roles—31.8 hours a week in 2005. (Bianchi, 2006 as cited in Harrington & Ladge 2009, p. 209)

The so called "maternal wall," a term coined by Deborah Swiss and Judith Walker in their 1993 book *Women and the Work/Family Dilemma*, described the frustration of many women in the upper echelons of corporations who found their workplaces less receptive to them when they became mothers. These women felt they were more likely to be turned down for promotions, receive negative performance appraisals, be passed up for important assignments and be viewed as less committed to their employers as a result of becoming mothers. (Swiss & Walker, 1993 as cited in Harrington & Ladge, 2009, p. 211)

32

The second barrier for women in corporate America (Harrington & Ladge, 2009) pertains to all women. The famed "old boy" network is not replicated for women in most companies. There are no "old girl" networks. Such networks are critical to forging relationships with mentors, sponsors, and other important social connections that facilitate work effectiveness and career development.

Another barrier women face in corporate America as presented by Harrington and Ladge (2009) was that women face the challenge of working in organizations where character and culture have largely been forged by males sometimes making them invisible. Their literature illustrated that men and women communicate, lead, and negotiate differently, with implications for women in management. Within this study, work cited by Georgetown Professor Deborah Tannen showed stark differences in how men and women communicate and then highlighted implications for women as a result of communication styles in the workplace. Tannen stated, "Men communicate to preserve status in group settings while women use communications as a means to gain intimacy and closeness with others" (Tannen, 1994 as cited in Harrington & Ladge 2009, p. 214). The article further insinuated men tend to use more delegating and transactional leadership styles whereas women used a more transformational style by sharing their power and information in a participative approach. This research would support the notion that transformational leaders are inspirational to their employees which can improve overall effectiveness. This information supports the concept that female leaders should be viewed as vitally important to businesses that need traits of a collaborative leader which may impact the overall effectiveness of the organization.

Whether these differences in men and women are real or perceived, they often leave women in corporate America at a disadvantage in traditionally male-dominated environments

where masculine styles are expected and rewarded (Harrington and Ladge, 2009). Harrington and Ladge (2009) reported that business organizations often cling to one interpretation of what effective leadership is rather than capitalizing on the strength of diverse styles of leadership. "That may explain why we have yet to have a woman at the helm of a major company in male-dominated industries such as automotives, construction, and manufacturing" (p. 215).

Leadership Traits/Styles of Women and Men

Gender related leadership traits and styles continue to be explored in research as additional women are entering the work force and pursuing leadership roles. Do women and men have different characteristics that promote different leadership styles?

Some commonalities among women in administrative roles are: they are traditionally first born or only children, more often married with children, older than men in similar positions, have more classroom experience, have high self esteem, and have overcome stereotypes. These women tend to be self confident and report that gender issues are not a significant concern (McGrath, 1992).

Research by Irby and Brown (2004) concluded that "feminine leadership styles include Transformational Leadership characteristics that include the following traits: a tendency to be collaborative, empathetic, an effective communicator, academically focused, a problem solver, interactive, accommodating, diverse, inspirational, and influential all of which encourage relationships" (p. 6). However, Manning (2002) described transformational leadership as androgynous: equally available from both men and women. When the study found differences in men and women, women tended to have more relationship-oriented styles of leadership than their counterparts, as well as one with an emphasis on supporting and developing their employees.

According to research conducted by McGrath (1992) both men and women superintendents believed that building climate and managing personnel are the most essential skills, and she indicated that both men and women do these equally well. However, males felt that managing facilities and finances were their strength and that curriculum development, instructional classroom practices, staff development, and teacher evaluation were their weakness. McGrath indicated that the evidence in her research suggested the male weaknesses are the women's strengths partly because women tend to be in the classroom longer and focus more on teaching and instruction longer.

Shantz (1995) reported that women principals derive more personal satisfaction knowing what is taking place in the classroom, and spend more time controlling a teacher's professional development than males. In this research, women viewed themselves as being collaborative and viewed the teachers they were supervising as being more professional and dedicated. In a collaborative model, women reported that they are intuitive about potential problems. They worked very hard at maintaining relations in the organization and they wanted teachers to take ownership and be involved. In her words, "to take advantage of the benefits associated with collaborative school cultures, we need school administrators who are capable of practicing a collaborative style of leadership. It appears that female administrators have a lead in this regard" (Shantz, 1995, p. 4).

There has been considerable debate about whether females lead differently than males, and about whether the people who work for them recognize any difference. Manning (2002) discussed studies that explored subordinates and how they perceived their supervisors. "In educational institutions, researchers using diverse leadership measures have found that female principals are rated higher in transformational leadership than male principals by their faculty

members" (Manning, 2002, p. 209). Where job satisfaction is an issue, there seem to be other

variables that trace differences in answers between men and women because there are different

values associated with each gender. For example, men in general do not value a relationship-

oriented manager as much as a task oriented manager; therefore, that may not be scored as highly

when responding to surveys about managers.

One effective strategy, according to Eagli and Carli (2009), is to combine the best of

masculine and feminine qualities. The masculine part of this strategy involves displaying

competence by being exceptionally knowledgeable, competent, and authoritative. The feminine

part involves displaying communal skills by being exceptionally considerate, supportive, and

inspiring to colleagues and subordinates.

As it turns out, studies comparing male and female managers show that women do

combine masculine and feminine qualities more than men do by adopting a

transformational style of leadership. What do transformational leaders do? They

innovate, solve problems effectively and act as excellent role models. They also inspire,

encourage, empower and support their subordinates. There is good evidence that

transformational leadership is effective in modern organizations. So it appears that

women, somewhat more than men, lead in ways that are typically quite effective. (Eagli

& Carli, 2009 p. 15)

Women do better when they avoid 'acting like a man' or moving to the opposite

tactic of featuring their femininity and motherly skills. The best advice, based on ample

research, is that women generally benefit from combining features of both the feminine

and masculine repertoires of behaviors. Successful female leaders can finesse the

dangers of the double-blind resistance to female leadership by being more collaborative

and considerate then male leaders, encouraging and mentoring followers, emphasizing positive rather than negative incentives, as well as by performing exceptionally well. (Eagly & Carli, 2009, p. 16)

In addition to the increased numbers of women leaders in education, business, politics, and other fields, change is also evident in attitudes about women and leadership. When asked if they would prefer to work for a man or woman or have no preferences, most people today are more inclined to say "no preference," whereas in the past the majority indicated a preference for a male boss. Eagly and Carli cite recent Gallup polls also show more favorable attitudes toward women leaders in politics. "Specifically, more people than ever, more than 90% say that they would vote for a qualified woman president" (Eagly & Carli, 2009, p. 14). They continued to say attitudes toward women leaders in general have become increasingly more positive over time, and the more people see women in visible and important leadership positions, the more they shift their attitudes to see women as more agentic and able to lead. The increasing presence of prominent women leaders in politics and in other areas should weaken gender stereotypes in the future and reduce resistance to women's leadership.

The roles for men and women superintendents are still different. "Men tend to define and use power by leading top down and women utilize a more collaborative approach, building on relationships and involving others in decision making" (Lee, Smith, & Cioci, 1993, p. 156). Women tend to be better communicators with both teachers and students, more personally involved in the school program, more readily open to exchange information, and more innovative.

Lee, Smith, and Cioci (1993) incorporated three major gender differences which included:

1. Women principals act in a democratic style while men act in an autocratic style.

2. Women tend to provide evidence of a more personalized leadership style while men are more structural.

3. Women are more focused on the schools' core technologies rather than school management than men are. (p. 156)

McGrath, (1992) indicated women who were successful demonstrated high levels of skill in the following areas: communication; problem solving; organizational savvy; team building; instruction; and, curriculum. However, many women who succeed are mimicking their male colleagues by dressing more in dark suits, becoming more aggressive, speaking in lower tones, and sometimes even outdoing their male counterparts in profanity.

Context of the Problem

The reference point of this research is whether or not changes have occurred over the last 15 years for women in their quest for leadership positions. Obstacles and barriers for these women will be explored to determine if they are the same years later. The research questions for this study were:

1. What are the perceptions and barriers encountered by today's female educational leaders regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership in the profession?

2. How do the perceptions of today's female educational leaders compare with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s?

The data generated by this study will be the basis for understanding the problem as it exists today. The researcher will try to provide answers to the issue of the problems posed above through qualitative and quantitative data extrapolated through the use of Gupton and Slick's

survey instruments. This survey solicited data from 300 female professionals from 500

Pennsylvania school districts to determine what has changed over the last 10 years for females as

they have ascended to positions of power in education, and if there are any barriers still existing

for them and what they are. For this purpose the quantitative data was compiled and analyzed

and enhanced by qualitative accounts from an anticipated 25 superintendents where in-depth

questioning occurred for further development and comparison.

Derrington and Sharratt (2009) conducted a comparison study, first in 1993 and then

again in 2007, in the state of Washington with female superintendents and those aspiring to that

position. Identical surveys were sent both times with 80% return in 1993 and 67% return in

2007. The researchers specifically wanted to uncover barriers those women encountered on their

career path. The study indicated the barriers were likely to be perceived as institutionalized and

rooted in societal practices, such as gender-role stereotyping and sex discrimination. When they

administered the identical survey 15 years later, they found an interesting shift. Despite apparent

opportunities, women still encountered barriers to attaining the superintendency. But now one of

the two top barriers was described as "self-imposed"—a response that had ranked at the bottom

of the list in 1993. Respondents in 2007 defined "self imposed" as "the failure to attain the

superintendency or the decision to avoid it because of family responsibilities." In other words,

these women made a conscious choice to put family considerations and responsibilities ahead of

those that come with assuming the job of superintendent. Similar studies conducted around the

country produced the same results (Derrington & Sharratt, 2009). In 1993 the top three barriers

were sex role stereotyping, sex discrimination, and lack of role models/mentors to guide women

into the superintendency. In 2007 the top three barriers were self imposed barriers, "good old

boys" network which helps men not women, and the school board not being well informed

regarding the qualification of female candidates. According to Harrington and Ladge (2009) the term "opting out" was coined by Lisa Belkin in 2009. Belkin pointed out that many highly educated women leave their employers prematurely due to the barriers they encounter in the workplace and the challenge of integrating work and family.

  A study similar to the one cited in Derrington and Sharratt, (2009) was completed by Wickham concentrating on female superintendents located in California (Wickham, 2008 as cited in Derrington & Sharratt 2009). The two top barriers identified by females in that study included the fact that first and foremost women were less willing to relocate in order to obtain a superintendent position because of family or their spouse's jobs and secondly that they had difficulty balancing the demands of the superintendent position and family responsibilities. Sharp, Malone, Walter, and Supley (2004) as cited in Derrington and Sharratt, (2009), similarly found the same frequently cited concerns in Illinois, Indiana, and Texas; as did Parent (2004) as cited in Derrington and Sharratt (2009) in a study of Oregon female superintendents.

Equity in the positions of educational administration has not yet been achieved between men and women which has been a further complication for families who are battling the economic recession. Boushey (2009) contributed that The Great Recession led to massive job losses, especially within male-dominated industries. Since the recessions began in December 2007, men have accounted for three out of every four jobs lost (73.6%) and now two million wives are supporting their families while their unemployed husbands seek work.

An increasing number of women hold certification and degrees to qualify them for

administrative positions (women received 11% of the doctoral degrees in educational

administration in 1971, 20% in 1980, 39% in 1982 and 49% in 1991). Recent statistics

reported by Quality Education Data, Inc. (1992) indicated that approximately 10% of

school superintendents, 22% of assistant superintendents, and 9% of high school

principals in the United States were women. These three positions are considered the

power positions in public school education. (Gupton, 2009, p. xxvii)

While women have made great strides and are now more likely to be economically responsible

for themselves and their families, there is still a long way to go. "Equity in the workplace has

not yet been achieved, even as families need women's equality more than ever" (Boushey, 2009,

p. 35).

Superintendent positions are increasingly becoming harder to fill because of the lack

of applicants. According to Pascopella (2008), the most recent statistic is that nearly 22% of

superintendents are female and of these, 55% of them are in small or rural districts, 35% are in

the suburbs, and 9% are in urban areas. Many of these superintendents, (40%), entered the

position from the assistant superintendent position. This is unlike their male counterparts who

frequently are promoted from the principal position. She concurred that there does not seem to

be many people in training for the superintendent's position, and there may not be enough

superintendents to replace the large number leaving. Simultaneously, there is a shortage of

superintendents because women are choosing not to evolve into the position of superintendent

even though they are culturally well prepared for the role.   Because women are more

collaborative and lean toward bringing more people together, they possess some of the skills

necessary for being a good superintendent.

The PSBA website which contained the Pennsylvania School Directory provided

information on each of the 500 school district superintendents including a table of the state by

county and the number of male and female superintendents in each county. As compared to

Pascopella's information from above, Pennsylvania is currently represented by 29% female superintendents.

According to Gupton and Slick, (1996) there are four shifts that have occurred recently that need the attention of individual women as well as women's advocacy groups as we move toward the future. The first shift is that women do not lack the aspiration to become superintendent but rather need a support system to provide for the obstacles they face because of their gender. Some of those obstacles include other females not accepting them in these higher level positions, being dubbed "Queen Bee," and the lack of mentors in a male dominated career, creating a lack of female mentors and support systems. The second shift is looking not at women's qualifications and leadership ability, but rather a greater concern about the quality of their preparation and recognition of their leadership talents. University programs perpetuate the exclusion of administrative females to top-ranking positions by relying on curricula based primarily on models of authoritative style of leadership. Sociologist Jessie Bernard referred to masculine dominance in organization studies as the "machoism" factor evidenced by theories and models that focus on the interests of men, confine women to stereotypical roles, focus on men as the subjects of research, and then generalize their findings to women, and value typical male behavioral characteristic more than female (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

The third shift is not actually seeing women acquire these leadership positions but retaining them. There are many women who choose not to stay in these positions and lack support systems to cope with the loneliness and challenges of being the Chief Executive Officer. Finally, the fourth shift is going from access to equity. It does make a difference if you are a female leader, what and how you make policy, and subsequently how it is practiced in your organization. The stand you take and how you advocate for other women will be closely

monitored. Some women want so much to be just a principal and not a female principal while others are women activists. They certainly are the leaders in gender equity in their districts especially when it is male dominated (Gupton & Slick, 1996).

Dana and Bourisaw (2006) concurred with the information above in their book. They paralleled the shifts that Gupton and Slick had discussed 10 years earlier. They agreed the enrollment figures indicated that for women, aspiration is not the issue, opportunity is. "Barriers to women's advancement, not competence, are of primary concern when it comes to increasing number of women in school administration preparatory programs. Clearly, gender prejudice is number one on the list of barriers" (p. 108).

Review of Methodologies

This study solicited data from 300 female professionals from within the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The researcher was granted permission from the author (Sandra Gupton) to replicate this study in Pennsylvania by utilizing the same instrument she used in 1993. The Women in Education Questionnaire (Appendix A) was distributed to 300 female administrators that hold a position as a superintendent, assistant superintendent, or high school principal. The survey is comprised of seven sections:

- Beliefs About Women's Issues in the Workplace (Section I) begins the survey with twenty-five questions utilizing a Likert scale (Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree).

- Career Paths (Section II) consists of 4 subsections: Career Motives and Beliefs, Professional Career Experiences, Career-Related Barriers, and Career Assessment. Answers for these four subsections include multiples choice, open ended, and Likert Scale responses.

- Section III, Significant Life Influences Affecting Your Career identifies positive and negative role models and mentors in open prompt forum.

- Section IV, Leadership Characteristics contains a Likert scale using the terms more, less, or the same.

- Section V, Demographics is a list of questions soliciting personal information about the respondent.

- Section VI, Final Comments asks women to identify an explanation for women's lack of equitable representation in educational administration by ranking five statements. In addition, women are asked to share personal advice to other women aspiring to positions similar to their own.

- Section VII solicits optional information which includes their name, address, and telephone number. The respondents were able to essentially experience both a professional and personal catharsis through the process of responding to the questionnaire (Gupton, 1996, p. xxxv)—consequently the data were [sic] rich and with information that sometimes substantiated and sometimes shattered conventional ideas related to women's experiences in the workplace. (Gupton, 1996, p. xxxv)

In order to enhance this study, the second phase of the research was to invite 25 of the respondents to the survey for more in-depth responses using a follow-up questionnaire. Appendix B was used as the basis to interview an anticipated 25 Pennsylvania superintendents. The questionnaire was comprised of four sections which included Demographics, Position Information, a Vita or Resume, and Their Success Story which asked them to share their story and their personal account of how they made it to a top-level position in education. The

researcher used additional prompts as a foundation to formulate questions for an interview which assisted the participants in the self reflection of their journey.

Summary of the Review

Though the road women have historically traveled into leadership in education is noted as being long and hard, women are emerging as some of the strongest leaders in schools. Current literature reflects that more women than ever are entering the field of instructional leadership, and in fact, are speaking up for themselves to be compensated as well as their male counterparts and to be treated as respectfully.

The obstacles and barriers that women are facing today in educational leadership mimic those faced by women in corporate America. They include:

- Gender-based care-giving roles for both their children and parents;

- Exclusion from informal and formal corporate networks that exclude women from mentoring and networking;

- Gender differences show that men and women communicate, lead, and negotiate differently which may have negative implications for women in a prominently male dominated role;

- Women tend to lead with a collaborative style whereas men tend to lead using an autocratic style;

- There is little equity between men and women when it comes to salary and benefits. For various reasons they are making less than their male counterparts. In some cases this is because women enter the field late, opt out early, or are sexually discriminated against; and,

- Educated women have self-imposed barriers, which are being exposed through various studies. Specifically women are removing themselves from the competition for high-level positions for a variety of reasons such as time constraints, stress and pressure of the job, and family obligations.

Chapter 3 explains the methodology used in the two phases of the research conducted in this replicated study. It includes the description of both the initial study designed by Gupton and Slick and the interview process designed by the current researcher. Chapter 4 is an examination of the information gathered from both stages of the replicated study. The final chapter is a summary of the researcher's findings.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to determine the reasons for the continued under-representation of women in top-level educational positions and how the issues may have changed since the early 1990s when Gupton and Slick completed their study. In replicating this study, the researcher collected data from women administrators engaged in the quest for, the ascent to, and the acquisition of leadership positions in the educational profession. Investigating this topic again in the 21st century, data provided information to facilitate better understanding about whether the same obstacles and barriers from the early 1990s still exist, and how--in the experiences and perceptions of female leaders in education today--they may have changed in the last 15 years. This chapter outlines the research design, data collection, qualitative interviews, and validity and reliability issues associated with this study.

Overview of the Study

Dr. Sandra Lee Gupton was contacted by e-mail with a formal request (see Appendices C and D) asking permission to use the surveys designed and utilized by Gloria Appelt Slick and Dr. Gupton when they conducted their previous research in 1993. In the format of the Gupton and Slick studies, the surveys were designed to provide formative feedback based on seven sections. Each section solicits information about women administrators' experiences with their ascent to the top, as well as their perceptions regarding such ascent (Gupton & Slick, 1996). The second phase of the study was to use a component of the survey, also designed by Gupton and Slick (Appendix B), to provide prompts to interview an anticipated 25 female superintendents in Pennsylvania. The questionnaire was a series of narrative prompts designed to assist the participants in telling their stories. These prompts were then turned into questions in order to

assist the current researcher in the interview process with the superintendents who agreed to participate in the study. This quantitative data received from the participants was analyzed and enhanced by qualitative accounts from those women who participated in the superintendents' interviews.

The researcher identified all female superintendents (135), assistant superintendents (126), and supplemented the list with female high school principals (38), in the state of Pennsylvania by utilizing the on-line information from the PSBA. The female high school principals were selected randomly to complete the list of 300 after identifying the female superintendents and the assistant superintendents. A database was created with demographic information for each of these female administrators, which was kept in a locked file in the researcher's office. The researcher tried to determine if any changes occurred with regard to the issues that women have experienced since Gupton and Slick's study was conducted in 1992-1993. The goal was to ascertain whether the same obstacles or barriers still exist, if others are more prevalent, and/or if any exist at all.

Problem

Women have gradually come to surpass the number of men engaged in higher education, now having earned 58% of bachelor's degrees and the majority of advanced degrees. More women than ever before are employed and their incomes have risen over the past three decades. Among full-time employees in the United States, women earned 80% of what men earned, up from only 62% in 1979. In areas other than education, 51% of those women were in professional and management positions, and 23% of chief executives in corporate America are women. Women have come a long way, but certainly have not reached workplace equality with men, especially in traditional male-dominated fields, such as corporate management, science, and

technology. In the largest United States corporations, the Fortune 500, only 16% of the

corporate officers are women and 15% of the members of boards of directors are women (Eagly

& Carli, 2009).

Occupations are still segregated, although somewhat less so than in earlier decades.

Women hold only 14% of engineering and architectural positions and 26% of positions in

computer science and mathematics in 2009. About 14% of those were in active military duty

and 14% of police officers are women. In contrast, women composed 97% of preschool and

kindergarten teachers, 97% of secretaries and administrative assistants, and 92% of registered

nurses. Job segregation has remained a problem for women because salaries are lower in female-

dominated professions, relative to men with similar levels of education and training (Eagly &

Carli, 2009).

Some studies indicated that the number of female superintendents has been on the rise in

recent years; however, the magnitude of this increase is questionable. "At the current placement

rate, three more decades will pass before the number of women superintendents' approaches

parity with male superintendents" (Derrington & Sharratt, 2009, p. 20).

Higher-level educational administrative jobs are still overwhelmingly filled with males

rather than females, as noted in the 500 public schools in the state of Pennsylvania (Public

School Boards Association, 2009). According to Pascopella (2008), the most recent national

statistics showed that nearly 22% of superintendents are female and, of these, 55% serve in small

or rural districts, 35% are in the suburbs, and 9% are in urban areas. Many female

superintendents from Pascopella's study (40%) were promoted to the position from the assistant

superintendent post, unlike their male counterparts, who tended to rise to these positions from the

principal position (53%). Simultaneously, there has been a shortage of female superintendents

49

because women have chosen not to evolve into this position. "Women are culturally well prepared for the role because they are more collaborative and more adept at bringing people together, which are two of the skills necessary for being a good superintendent" (Pascopella, 2008, p. 34). Currently there are 144 female superintendents out of 500 school districts, according to the Pennsylvania Directory of Schools published by PSBA. This number is subject to change as the labor force can change within these positions year to year.

Researchers have identified reasons for the underrepresentation of women in top-level educational positions, including the two from above. This study attempted to answer the following two questions: What are the perceptions and barriers encountered by today's female educational leaders regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership in the profession? How do the perceptions of today's female educational leaders compare with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s?

The Purpose

Although the AASA (Goldman, 2009) has documented that more women are holding higher-level positions in education, the lion's share of these top positions is still occupied by males, except at the elementary principalship level (a position historically considered less administratively influential and oftentimes paid less than upper level administrators), where women equaled men only recently. The purpose of this study was to determine the reasons for the continued under-representation of women administrators in top-level educational positions, and how the issues may have changed since the early 1990s when Gupton and Slick completed their study. In replicating this study, the researcher collected data from women engaged in the quest for, ascent to, and the acquisition of leadership positions in the educational profession. Investigating this topic again in the 21st century, data would provide information to facilitate

better understanding about whether the same obstacles and barriers from the early 1990s still exist, and how—in the experiences and perceptions of female leaders in education today—they may have changed in the last 15 years.

Literature highlighting women's issues provided updated information on the status of women in positions of leadership in the workplace. The cover of *TIME* for November 2009 featured a special report entitled "The State of the American Woman." The AASA publishes a journal entitled *The School Administrator*; the September 2009 issue featured the article, "Navigating the Labyrinth for women superintendents, it's more than a glass ceiling." The Shriver Report, released in October 2009, entitled "A Women's Nation Changes Everything," and conducted by Maria Shriver and the Center for American Progress, examined the consequences of what was a major tipping point in the nation's social and economic history: the emergence of working women as primary breadwinners and their presence on America's payrolls making up half the nation's current workforce. The message remained clear: discrimination of women in the workplace still exists despite the Glass Ceiling Commission; the "good ole boy" network is still alive and well for many women in education; women still have the major responsibility caring for children, and in more recent years, aging parents as well; and women continue to receive less pay for the same work far too often.

Another possibility often given for women's continued under-representation in leadership positions is that women themselves have frequently chosen not to seek higher-level administrative positions. This is particularly puzzling, since women today earned more of the administrative degrees in education than men. Why would women spend the time and money to pursue these degrees if they have no aspirations for advanced leadership positions? The more recent literature further examines the reasons behind such claims, which this study explored.

It is important to continue to monitor the status of women in the workplace--and in this study, in educational leadership in particular. It is also important to do more in-depth exploration of women's under-representation to ensure efforts continue to address stubborn stereotypes that are not easily eradicated despite laws and policies instituted to prevent them, and the harm and costs to everyone that such immoral "wrong thinking" ultimately imposes. Schools in this country need the potential leadership of both men and women who have the skill, talents, education, and dedication to deal with the unprecedented complexity of issues that face education today. A strong record of accomplishment has been well documented in the profession of the outstanding leadership of women pioneers who have defied the odds and moved into top administrative positions in education. Thus, for women to remain so underrepresented in the leadership positions of a profession where the vast majority of professional employees are women defies any logical reasoning. History makes it clear: such inequitable treatment of any segment of a society eventually takes its toll on everyone.

This study replicated a study that was completed in 1992-1993 and published in 1996 in textbook form. The authors were Sandra Lee Gupton and Gloria Appelt Slick and their research-based book, *Highly Successful Women Administrators: The Inside Stories of How They Got There*, included the questionnaire used to collect data from women leaders in education in the early 1990s. This study used an adapted form of the questionnaire to collect current data from the pool of today's female leadership in education to learn more about their experiences in acquiring and functioning in leadership positions in education. The researcher used the data to determine if the obstacles that were present 15 years ago still exist, how they may have changed, and what may be new issues that have arisen for women seeking leadership positions in education today.

Questions

In answering the questions of the study, the researcher provided an analysis of the responses from both surveys to determine what has changed for women over the last 15 years in the ascent to higher positions in educational administration. In addition, the responses were used to identify what barriers were similar or different for female educational leaders. From the literature review, it can be assumed that there is still disparity in the equity of high- level positions in education between men and women. Many sources cited that obstacles in attaining positions for female administrators included inabilities to initially obtain the job because of sex discrimination, family pressures including children and parents, and a lack of support during their ascent, which present major issues for women to remain in these positions. We know that statistics on the frequency of discrimination showed that jobs held by women and minorities often do not pay as well as those held by white men (Burress & Zucca, 2004; O'Hara, 2004 studies as cited in Kennedy, Nagata, Mushenski, & Johnson, 2009).

The research provided a quantitative statistical analysis from the first set of surveys answering the question of change and current obstacles, which were enhanced by triangulating the information gathered from the completion of the anticipated 25 interviews.

The questions that this study examined were:

1. What are the perceptions and barriers encountered by today's female educational leaders regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership in the profession?

2. How do the perceptions of today's female educational leaders compare with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s?

These questions provided a solid impetus to determine if the perceptions and barriers encountered by women in Pennsylvania seeking, acquiring, and maintaining educational leadership positions prevailed from the first study and whether or not their perceptions agreed with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s.

Research Design

This study was initiated with the distribution of a survey distributed to 300 female educational professionals from within the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. The researcher was granted permission from the author (Sandra Gupton) to utilize the instrument in Pennsylvania. She indicated that the survey could be altered to adjust the current study at the discretion of the researcher. The survey had been shortened in length so that the questions pertained strictly to the researcher's questions. In order to validate the instrument, the researcher sent it to five educational professionals to determine the correlation between the survey and the questions. This process was conducted through e-mail, and each of the five professionals indicated that the questions on the shortened questionnaire would produce data to answer the research questions and that the integrity of the original survey would not be compromised.

The Women in Education Questionnaire (Appendix A) was distributed to 300 female administrators and is comprised of seven sections:

- Beliefs About Women's Issues in the Workplace (Section I) begins the survey with twenty-five questions utilizing a Likert scale (Strongly Agree, Agree, Undecided, Disagree, Strongly Disagree).

- Career Paths (Section II) consists of 4 subsections: Career Motives and Beliefs, Professional Career Experiences, Career-related barriers, and Career Assessment.

Answers for these four subsections include multiple-choice, open-ended, and Likert Scale responses.

- Section III, Significant Life Influences Affecting Your Career, identifies positive and negative role models and mentors in an open prompt forum.

- Section IV, Leadership Characteristics, contains a Likert scale using the terms more, less, or the same.

- Section V, Demographics, is a list of questions soliciting personal information about the respondent.

- Section VI, Final Comments, asks women to identify an explanation for women's lack of equitable representation in educational administration by ranking five statements. In addition, women are asked to share personal advice to other women aspiring to positions similar to their own.

- Section VII solicits optional information which includes their name, address, and telephone number. The respondents were able to essentially experience both a professional and personal catharsis through the process of responding to the questionnaire (Gupton, 1996, p. xxxv). Consequently the data was rich with information that sometimes substantiated, and sometimes shattered, conventional ideas related to women's experiences in the workplace. (Gupton, 1996, p. xxxv)

The researcher created a database which identified every female administrator that holds a position as superintendent and assistant superintendent in the state of Pennsylvania as well as several female high school principals. The database contains demographic information that includes addresses, telephone numbers, websites, and e-mail addresses. This database is subject to change as the women in those positions may have resigned or retired during the duration of

this study. Upon receipt of approval to begin the data collection, the researcher sent out the letter of invitation (Appendix E) to the aforementioned female administrators, which also included the website link leading the respondents to the survey link. The deadline for collection was December 1, 2010.

Survey number one included a section inviting participants to be a part of the qualitative study. The researcher identified the superintendents from survey one and reviewed those who replied positively to participating in the second survey (n = 20). They were contacted by telephone or e-mail confirming their participation in the second phase. An interview was arranged with all the superintendents who responded favorably to the request. Twenty superintendents volunteered and telephone interviews were established in early 2011. The interviewer conducted the preliminary screening by collecting their demographics, position, and school information. The prompts identified in Gupton and Slick's second survey were used to construct the table for the interview (Appendix F). The interviewer took notes throughout each interview and transcribed each into Microsoft Word. Six of the 20 superintendents initially contacted decided against the interview and were removed from the list; 14 were completed.

<div align="center">**Data Collection**</div>

The researcher began the process of collecting data as soon as approval had been granted by the Internal Review Board of East Stroudsburg University. The researcher sent the invitation letter, dated November 1, 2010 (Appendix E), electronically inviting participants to participate in the survey with a deadline collection date of December 1, 2010. Periodic follow-up occurred on the website to observe the return rate of surveys (Appendices G, H, and I). Three hundred surveys were distributed to 135 superintendents, 126 assistant superintendents, and 38 high school principals throughout the Commonwealth. It was expected that the return rate would

need to equal or exceed the original survey's rate, which was 51%. The data were received electronically through Qualtrics, an Indiana University of Pennsylvania electronic survey collection tool. A follow-up e-mail was sent on November 22, 2010, to further increase the response rate, which ended up being 27%. The results of the survey were examined in December 2010 and a comparative analysis was completed to establish the similarities and the differences from Gupton and Slick's study.

Subsequent to the initial survey, Gupton and Slick contacted 25 female administrators who had indicated on the original questionnaire that they would be interested in participating in more in-depth research on the topic of women in educational administration. They sent these 25 women letters inviting them to tell their stories of their ascent to the top. Of the 25 women invited, 15 responded and related their personal stories. Along with a letter of invitation to participate in this second phase, Survey No. 2 was sent with narrative prompts to assist the participants in telling their stories. They purposefully wanted their participants to focus freely on their individual experiences and to present information and events that they felt were important to share. Therefore, no specific required formal process sharing of their stories was identified. Some of their respondents chose to write their stories in their own handwriting, much like corresponding with friends; others used word processing, and still others audiotaped their stories. The stories of these 15 women served to reinforce and give vivid examples of the more objective data gleaned from the original questionnaire.

Just as Gupton and Slick did, and in an effort to enhance this study, information from the second survey was collected through an interview format utilizing Gupton and Slick's second survey. On January 28, 2011, an e-mail was sent to the 20 female superintendents who agreed to be interviewed. A second e-mail followed on February 2, 2011, increasing the response rate to

57

70%. Interview protocol was included in the e-mail sent to each participant and they were supplied with ample opportunities to choose a time for the telephone interview. The interviews were held on February 11, 17, and 25, 2011. The interview information was collected through copious notes taken by the interviewer during the telephone conversations with time allotted after each interview to transcribe the interview into Microsoft Word. In order to preserve the integrity of the study, the researcher turned the prompts from Gupton and Slick's study (Appendix B) into a table (Appendix F) with questions from Section III of Survey 2 in Appendix B. These prompts were used in Gupton and Slick's study for respondents to stimulate their thoughts and memories when responding to Gupton and Slick's request. For the purpose of this dissertation, the researcher turned the prompts into questions, which were further identified on a document table by theme for the second phase of the data collection (Appendix F). Data collected from the interviews were examined thoroughly to identify themes in the information as they emerged through analysis of the notes. Using the grounded theory approach, which Glaser and Strauss (1967) described as a theory built inductively from data, information collected during the open-ended interviews was categorized, coded, and classified as the information unfolded to determine if relationships existed. The researcher conducted an analysis of the narrative in which the data were scrutinized to produce a description of themes that applied to all the stories told in the interviews. Using inductive reasoning, the researcher used these results to compare it to the information provided by Gupton and Slick in the original study to determine if the information had changed or stayed the same over the last several years. The data collection took place through open-ended telephone interviews of the interviewees. These interviews were documented in a table format created in Microsoft Word (Appendix F).

Open coding, axial coding, and selective coding were the methods used to begin the analysis of the transcribed interviews. Johnson and Christensen (2008) described open coding as the "first stage in grounded theory data analysis. It begins after some data have been collected, and it involves examining the data (usually reading the transcripts line by line) and naming and categorizing discrete elements in the data" (p. 413). The second stage of grounded theory is axial coding, which is described as developing concepts into categories and organizing concepts into categories (Jonson & Christensen, 2008). Themes emerge during axial coding, and relationships are categorized if one exists. The last stage of data analysis is selective coding, which is described as the process of refining the open coding and axial coding to develop a main theme or idea (Johnson & Christensen, 2008).

Data Analysis Procedures

The following methods of verification were used to establish validity and reliability in this study, and included: (1) triangulation of data; (2) referential adequacy; (3) peer debriefing; and, (4) inductive analysis.

"Triangulation is the use of multiple methods, data collection strategies, and data sources in order to get a more complete picture of what is being studied and to cross-check information" (Gay, Mills, & Airasian, 2006, p. 603). Notes taken from the interviews, along with the qualitative data from the first study, provided multiple sources of data to ensure an accurate and dependable process.

According to Lincoln and Guba (1985):

Referential adequacy involves identifying a portion of data to be archived, but not analyzed. The researcher then conducts the data analysis on the remaining data and

59

develops preliminary findings. The researcher then returns to this archived data and

analyzes it as a way to test the validity of his or her findings. (p. 308)

The immediate transcription of the interviews served as the researcher's primary responsibility to

minimize misinterpreting the data or forgetting what was said, which might result in researcher

bias. Data from the first survey was analyzed and archived while the data from the second phase

of the study was investigated. The researcher then analyzed both phases of the study

independently of each other and then interdependently of both.

Peer debriefing was used when the researcher needed assistance from non-connected

professionals who have had experience in qualitative research. These peers included

professionals with earned doctorates, the researcher's committee, and/or paid editors. "It is the

process of exposing oneself to a disinterested peer in a manner paralleling an analytical session

and for the purpose of exploring aspects of the inquiry that might otherwise remain only implicit

within the inquirer's mind" (Lincoln & Guba, 1985, p. 308). Through this process, the

researcher can become aware of bias or assumptions that may prevail.

Inductive analysis was used to interpret the raw data from the interviews. "Immersions in

the details and specifics of the data to discover important patterns, themes, and interrelationships

begins by exploring, then confirming, guided by analytical principles rather than rules, ends with

creative synthesis" (Johnson & Christensen, 2008, p. 393). The researcher identified themes

which emerged from this study with the original study and recorded a comparison in Chapter IV.

Sample/Population

This study (Appendix A) was sent to more than 300 female educational professionals

from within the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. Women who currently held positions as

superintendent, assistant superintendent, and high school principal were asked to complete the first survey.

During the second phase of this study, female superintendents who responded to the initial survey were asked to participate in an interview utilizing the prompts originated in Gupton and Slick's study. Subsequent to the initial survey, the researcher reviewed Section V from the original survey and identified twenty superintendent responders who replied positively to participating in the second phase of the research, which consisted of a telephone interview (n = 20). The 20 positive responders were contacted by telephone or e-mail confirming their participation in the second phase. When the 20 female superintendents were contacted, six of them retracted their names from the interview process for various reasons. An interview was arranged with all the superintendents who responded favorably to the request; 14 superintendents were interviewed in February 2011. The prompts identified in Gupton and Slick's second survey were used to construct the table for the interview (Appendix F). Data were collected to enhance the quantitative information by providing a comparison and hopefully assisting in the development of theoretical concepts to determine if the study conducted by Gupton and Slick remained constant or changed. Participation in this study was voluntary and the participants were able to withdraw at any time during the collection of data. All applicable rules and laws of research were followed.

Assumptions, Limitations, and Delimitations

As with any study, there were limitations to the findings it produced. There were three areas within this study that presented obstacles for the researcher. First, the study was limited by the number of females who participated in the quantitative survey. In the study being replicated, 51% of the surveys were returned, which was the minimum goal for this study. Three hundred

were distributed and the researcher's goal was 151 respondents. It should be noted that there were 80 respondents to the electronic survey (27%). The researcher did not anticipate that the response rate would not be what it was in the original study. In the original study, the quantitative data were secured by paper and pencil and sent and returned through the postal mail. In reviewing information that explains reasons why the return rate may be lower, there appears to be many reasons that support the lower response rate in 2011. Sending information through e-mail saves time and money, and the researcher thought it would increase the response rate of return. However, there were issues hypothesized by the researcher and supported by Sheehan (2001) that presented obstacles, including e-mail lost in cyberspace or sent to junk mail. Server filters may have prevented e-mails from even arriving to the desired e-mail address. People have suspicions and concerns about confidentiality and the number of e-mails received each day is increasing, making it difficult for respondents to participate in every survey.

In addition, the study was limited by the number of female superintendents who participated in the interviews. In Gupton and Slick's study, they contacted 25 female administrators and 15 women returned their personal stories. In the current study, the researcher identified 20 superintendents from the initial group of respondents to participate in the telephone interview and secured 14 interviews after contacting them. In the first study, Gupton and Slick selected 25 female administrators, while in the current study the researcher strategically chose the female superintendents who responded favorably from the initial study. Limiting the second phase of the study (telephone interviews) to female superintendents may have limited the results.

As previously noted, the study presented the researcher with the opportunity to triangulate data by coding qualitative data. The challenge was reducing the data to a manageable

form. The researcher developed a process to compile the data into themes and then compared

them to the themes which emerged in Gupton and Slick's study.

Finally, each researcher brings to a setting a highly individual background and set of

experiences and perspectives, which in turn affect not only what and how she observes, but also

her personal reflections and interpretations of the situation. The qualitative researcher runs the

risk of identifying with one or more participants and of being judgmental towards others (Gay,

Miller, & Airasian, 2006). The researcher was aware of this and brought to a conscious level the

idea of bias as data were being identified and coded. The two areas of bias that could impede

this study included a bias toward the results from the previous study while trying to make the

information fit into their themes, and a bias in interpreting the questionnaires and interviews.

Timeframe

This study began on September 1, 2010, and continued through February 28, 2011, to

provide ample time for the research to be collected. The deadline for the first survey to be

completed was December 2010. The interviews utilizing the second survey were conducted in

February 2011. The deadline for the interviews was February 28, 2011.

Overall Weaknesses and Strengths

Overall weaknesses of the study include the following:

1. The researcher questioned the number of participants who need to respond to the

   survey to parallel the responder rates to the first survey. There was the potential for

   300 surveys to be completed. The responder rate was not determined until the

   deadline for the study had passed, but the researcher expected that it would equal or

   surpass the rate from the original study. In addition to the first survey, the researcher

   questioned the number of participants needed to respond to the second phase of the

study to parallel the responder rates from the first study. There was a potential for

twenty-five interviews to be completed. The responder rate was not determined until

the deadline for the interviews had passed, but the researcher expected that it would

equal or surpass the rate of the original study.

2. The study presented the researcher with the opportunity to triangulate data by coding

qualitative data, which was the first time the researcher conducted this process. The

biggest obstacle was reducing the data to a manageable form. The researcher

developed a process that coded the data into themes, while trying not to be influenced

by the first study.

3. The researcher was aware of personal bias and brought that limitation to a conscious

level as data were being identified and coded. The two areas of bias that the

researcher conflicted with were a bias toward the results from the previous study,

trying to make the information fit into their themes, and bias in interpreting the

answers from the interviews when transcribing them into Word documents.

Overall strengths of the study include the following:

1. This study is a replication from the early 1990s, which has provided a baseline for the

study to be repeated. It is important to identify the perceptions and barriers encountered

by today's female educational leaders regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring,

and maintaining positions of leadership in the profession and to see how they compare

with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s.

2. There is a wealth of information on women in the workforce in instructional leader

positions in education. Many studies have been conducted nationally, as well as in

individual states, to comprehend the under-representation of women in educational

leadership positions. While women proliferated the teaching force, women continued to be marginally represented in the three top-level positions in public education Prek-12. Analyzing the results of studies from state-to-state and resource-to-resource provides an impetus for change.

3. The qualitative data enhanced and supported the study as the author explored real female administrators in the field who wanted to tell their story as it compared to the research. This opportunity provided a collection of stories from a cadre of women in high-powered positions that served as an inspiration to all women aspiring to educational leadership positions.

Summary

One hundred fifty women (51%) responded to the first phase of Gupton and Slick's research, which consisted of a 14-page questionnaire. The questionnaire was designed by Gupton and Slick and it solicited personal data, beliefs, and perceptions of women in the workplace in high-level positions in education. It was devoted to compiling research regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership. Each section of the questionnaire dealt with issues found in the related literature to be relevant to women achieving top-level positions in the profession. The sections of the questionnaire included: (a) beliefs about women's issues in the workplace; (b) career paths, career motives, and beliefs, professional career experiences, career related barriers, and career assessment; (c) significant life influences affecting career-positive role models, negative role models, and mentoring behavior; (d) leadership characteristics; (e) demographics; and, (f) best advice for women aspiring to be administrators (Gupton & Slick, 1993). In the replication of their study, the researcher determined that the response must equal or exceed their return in order to compare the results,

but as noted above, the return rate was much less (27%) and the reasons were noted regarding e-mail surveys and the return rate associated with them. The researcher conducted this study in two parts, similar to the way it was conducted with Gupton and Slick. The two major differences were that the quantitative survey was completed electronically and the second part of the process was collected through telephone interviews.

Subsequent to the initial 14-page questionnaire, Gupton and Slick solicited a select group of women from the initial group of respondents to participate in the second phase of their research. In the replication of their study, the researcher determined that in order to enhance the study, the female superintendents who agreed to participate more fully were contacted by telephone and asked if they would participate in the second phase of the study with a telephone interview. The questions for the interviews were taken from the prompts on the second survey Gupton and Slick designed. Each prompt was rephrased into questions (Appendix F). Of the 37 superintendents who responded to the quantitative survey, 20 of them agreed to be interviewed; however, only 14 actually participated.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine the possible reasons for the continued under-representation of women administrators in top-level educational positions. The study established how the issue of barriers that are currently present may have changed since the early 1990s, when Sandra Gupton and Gloria Appelt Slick completed their study. In replicating this study, the researcher collected data from women in three leadership positions (superintendent, assistant superintendent, and high school principal) in the education profession. Chapter 1 presented the rationale and theoretical basis for this study. Chapter 2 provided a literature review on themes relevant to identifying obstacles and barriers for women in education, as well as in corporate America. Chapter 3 presented the methodology the researcher utilized to replicate Gupton and Slick's study, and Chapter 4 presents the findings and results of the analysis, based on factual information and general observations about the data.

The format followed for this section is:

1. A restatement of the research questions;

2. The use of tables and charts to present the results using both descriptive and inferential statistics for both the quantitative and qualitative analysis; and,

3. An explanation of findings.

Research Questions – Results

1. What are the perceptions and barriers encountered by today's female educational leaders regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership in the profession?

2. How do the perceptions of today's female educational leaders compare with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s?

Quantitative Results and Data Analysis

The electronic survey (Appendix A) was distributed to over 300 female superintendents, assistant superintendents, and high school principals in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania identified by the researcher through the use of the Pennsylvania School Boards Association website (2009). Eighty surveys were completed and submitted through the Qualtrics collection system housed by Indiana University of Pennsylvania. The researcher had hoped that of the 300 female administrators identified, at least 151 would return the survey. This represents the raw number of surveys returned in the original study conducted and published in 1993. There was an initial solicitation made with an e-mail and two follow-up attempts, requesting completion of the survey from the 300 women invited to participate in the study. When only 80 surveys were returned electronically after two attempts were made for collection, the response rate caused the researcher concern. There was one survey that was incomplete, but it was not eliminated. The researcher indicates throughout Chapter 4 when the data sample numbers are equal to 79 or 80.

Identified Reasons for Low E-mail Response Rate

Although e-mail surveys are typically easier and faster to generate and distribute, some professionals have suggested that the use of e-mail surveys is becoming obsolete (Sheehan, 2001). In a study she conducted, Sheehan examined five influences to response rates utilizing e-mail surveys. Sheehan's study concluded that the longer the survey, the lower the return rate. With regard to this dissertation, one of the major concerns from the beginning was the length of the questionnaire. Maintaining the integrity of the replicated study, it was determined to alter only a small percentage of the survey with permission from Sandra Gupton. Sheehan (2001) also

68

indicated that both the pre-notification and follow-up contact were reasons for lower response rates. Her study even suggested that the practice of sending unsolicited e-mail surveys was unacceptable and problematic to consumers. With regard to the practice of follow-up, Sheehan (2001) concluded that response rates would increase if the survey link was included in the correspondence. Upon review of the practices followed by the researcher for this study, the survey was sent without pre-notification. The 300 people were chosen because they were women holding three particular titles in public education. Sending this survey unsolicited may account for the lower response rate. This researcher sent two follow-up notifications with the original request containing the important survey links. Another of the five influences to low response rate of e-mail surveys discussed by Sheehan included salience of an issue or the importance of a topic to the e-mail receiver. Sending the current survey to 300 women with the topic "Women in Leadership" in the subject section of the e-mail was intended to promote the importance of the subject matter to the receiver.

There were two other reasons that the researcher defined from personal introspection which may have contributed to the return rate. The first is based on a personal observation, which includes the use of e-mail filters. Even legitimate e-mails are sometimes filtered out of electronic mail boxes when received, particularly in organizations that have high-technology filters on their servers. The second reason may have been the number of requests these women are asked to complete each day. "In-boxes" of these professionals may hold one or two of these types of survey requests each day; therefore, time limitations play in important role on the return rate.

The variables for the lower response rate for this survey could have included the following: survey length; response to unsolicited e-mails; filtered e-mail; and, time limitations.

69

The researcher concluded that the information from the 80 respondents in Pennsylvania would be acceptable for the study after consulting with the dissertation committee.

Demographics of Respondents for the Quantitative Study

The demographics (Section V: A - C) of the women who responded to the survey varied by age, position, race, marital status, and the number of children each woman parented. The enrollment number of their schools, as well as geographic classification, was also reported.

Forty-six percent of the respondents (37) in the replicated study were superintendents, 30% (24) were assistant superintendents, and 24% (19) were high school principals. In Gupton and Slick's study, the highest percent of respondents were assistant superintendents at 49% (74), while only 30% (45) were superintendents, and 21% (32) high school principals (Gupton & Slick, 1993). These demographics indicated a major difference between the two studies, whereby the majority of the respondents in Gupton and Slick's study were assistant superintendents, while in the current study, the majority of representation were the superintendents.

The minimum age of the 80 respondents from the current study was 26, and the oldest respondent was 53. Thirty-eight was both the mean and median age of the respondents in the replicated study, while in Gupton and Slick's study it was 49 years of age. Ninety-five percent of the women reported their race as Caucasian, while 5% reported that they were African-American (4 out of 79). Hispanic and Native American races were not represented in the collection of respondents in the current study. Gupton and Slick (1993) reported 87% Caucasian, 6% African-American, 4.7% Hispanic, and 2% Native American. "With the minority populations emerging toward a majority, it would appear that a more equitable representation of

women among the various ethnic groups should be forthcoming" (Gupton & Slick, 1993, p. xxxix). This quote from Gupton and Slick's 1993 book left an impression with the current researcher. It insinuated that the population of race in the current study should have been more equitable. However, the statistic from the replicated study conducted in Pennsylvania does not concur and provides an impetus for further study.

Seventy-nine women reported on the number of children parented. Seventy-eight percent (62) of them had one or more (up to five) children, while 22% (18) reported that they currently did not have children. Seventy-eight percent (63) of the 80 respondents were married, while 12% (10) were single. Ten percent (8) of the women who responded were divorced or separated. In Gupton and Slick's study, 74% (112) of the respondents were married, 10% (16) single, and 12% (18) divorced or separated (Gupton & Slick, 1993).

Overall, 49% (39) of the respondents from the current study were in schools classified as rural schools, 46% (37) were in suburban schools, and only 5% (4) were located in urban school districts. Although it has been noted that the number of responses received in the current study were greater from superintendents than assistant superintendents (as in Gupton and Slick's study), statistics comparing each of the respondent categories were as follows: When comparing the two studies, 73% of the superintendents were employed in rural districts, 21% in suburban, and 5% in urban. In the current study, 62% of the superintendents were employed in rural districts, 35% in suburban, and 2% in urban. Twenty-four percent of the women holding assistant superintendent positions, as reported by Gupton and Slick, were employed in rural districts, 43% in suburban, and 32% in urban. In the current study, 25% of the assistant superintendents were employed in rural districts, 67% in suburban, and 8% in urban. Forty-two percent of the high school principals worked in rural districts in Gupton and Slick's study, while

38% were in suburban, and 19% in urban—compared to this study, where 53% were employed in rural, 42% in suburban, and 5% in urban. It is evident from the comparison between the Gupton and Slick study and the current study that women are geographically employed in rural and suburban districts with little representation in the urban districts.

The respondents reported on enrollment figures of the district, although the high school principals included in the study worked at the building level. The enrollment figures varied at the districts in which the women reported working:

- Seven of the 79 women worked in districts with under 1,000 students;

- Seventeen women worked in school districts with a student population between 1,000 and 2,000;

- Fifteen females worked in school districts with enrollments up to 3,000;

- Sixteen women responded to working in school districts with up to 4,000 students;

- Ten females were employed in school districts with up to 5,000;

- Ten women worked in districts with 5,000-10,000 students; and,

- Four women replied they were working in districts with over 10,000 students in attendance.

Comparing the two studies utilizing the demographic information from Table 2 provides insight into the differences between the groups of respondents. The three differences that are highlighted in the summary include the mean age of respondents when they were hired for their first position, the differences in the percentages of job titles which respondents held when the surveys were administered, and the geographic area in which respondents were serving.

Table 2 profiles the respondents with the demographic information for the 80 returned surveys.

Table 2

Demographic Profile of Quantitative Respondents (N = 80)

Category	Qualifier 1	Qualifier 2	Qualifier 3	Qualifier 4
Age	Minimum 26	Maximum 53	Mean/Median 38	
Position	Superintendents 37	Assistant Superintendents 24	High School Principals 19	
Race	Caucasian 4	African-American 4		
Marital Status	Married 62	Single 10	Divorced/ Separated 8	
Number of Children	Respondents who reported they had had children 62	Respondents who reported that they did not have children 17		
Enrollment	Under 1,000 7	1,001-3,000 32	3,001-4,999 26	5,000-10,000 10 Over 10,000 4
Geographic Region	Rural 39	Urban 4	Suburban 37	

Career Paths: Women Acquiring and Maintaining Educational Administrative Positions

Several questions (Section II: A - Q.1-Q7) in both surveys concentrated on the

acquisition of acquiring administrative positions and the reasons women pursued these positions.

These survey questions relate directly to the first research question. In this study, half of the

women (40) decided to become an administrator after several years of being a teacher and made

that decision primarily so they could make positive changes in education for young people.

Sixteen of the women went into administration for career challenges and satisfaction, while 17

others received encouragement from others. Only five women reported going into

administration for financial reasons. The most frequently stated reason in Gupton and Slick's

study for women to pursue these positions was the belief they could do something positive for

students (Gupton & Slick, 1993).

_____

_____
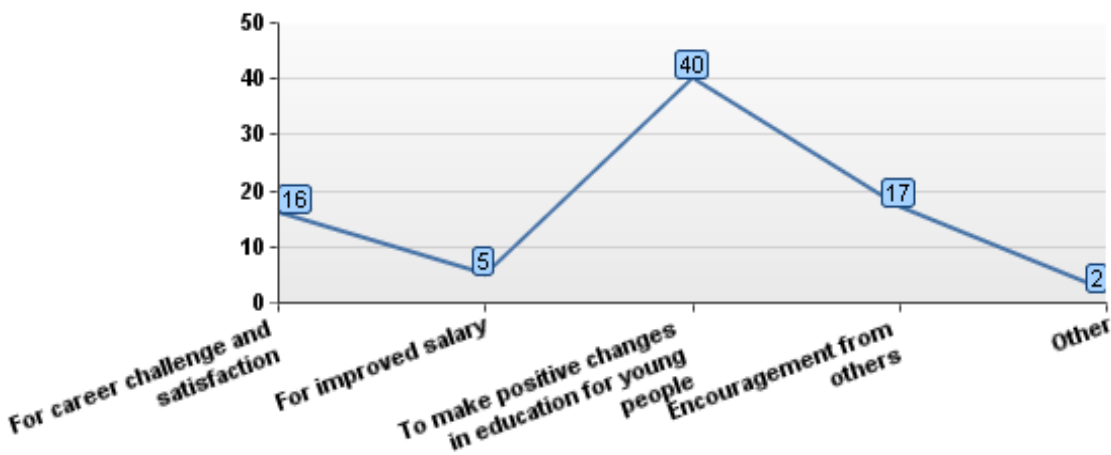
Figure 1. Reasons why women went into administrative positions (N = 80).

Forty-one of the women respondents from the current study were promoted within the

district in which they were currently employed, while 37 of them were promoted in districts

other than the one in which they were currently employed. Fifty-four women were hired in

administration in less than one year, once they had received their credentials. Sixteen were hired
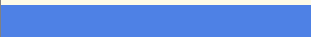
after the first year or two after they were certified. Only nine respondents reported being hired

after three years or more, whereas one actually waited 12 years.

Fifty-three females in this study assumed an administrative position that had never been

held by a female, compared to the other 27 who followed women in administrative roles. One

interesting note came from a superintendent in one of the schools districts. When she was hired

as the superintendent, she was shown a picture of the first female superintendent hired in the

nation from the 1800s who had been hired in her district. Presently, this portrait is prominently

displayed in her office.

As reported in Table 3, women cited the reasons they believed they were hired for the

administrative positions (Section II: B, Q. 1d). The top three reasons respondents reported for

being hired were: they were the best qualified for the position; they had potential leadership

qualities; and, they were effective managers. Table 3 identifies the survey answers in a bar

graph.

Table 3

Reasons Quantitative Respondents Believed They were Hired for Their Current Position

#	Answer		Response	%
1	Token Female		0	0%
2	Potential Leadership Qualities		36	45%
3	Affirmative Action Compliance		0	0%
4	Longevity		4	5%
5	Best Qualified for Position in Terms of Experience		52	65%
6	Best Qualified for position in Terms of Formal Preparations		16	20%
7	Reward for Loyalty		3	4%
8	Next Step in Upward Mobility (of positions)		10	13%
9	Reward for Hard Work		11	14%
10	Expert in Community Relations/Good Mediator		8	10%
11	Effective Manager		18	23%
12	Other		7	9%

Noting the reasons why women believed they were hired for their administrative positions is important, and investigating whether they were hired in the district they were currently employed or another district was as important, as it addresses research question 1. With regard to acquiring administrative positions, each of the 80 respondents from the current survey indicated that they continued to work in their current position as they pursued their advanced degrees in administration. More than half of these women indicated that they were promoted within their school districts, while all others besides two were promoted into

76

administrative positions within the state but in different districts. Only two respondents left the state in which they lived to procure positions in administration.

Women from the current study self reported reasons they were hired into administrative positions. Overwhelmingly they indicated they were hired because either they were the best qualified or showed potential as leaders. Almost all 80 respondents were either hired within their districts or other districts in their state. Only two left the state in which they resided to procure an administrative position.

Respondents' Leadership Position Acquisition Perceptions

The first question in the survey (Section I: Statements 1 – 25) contained 25 statements, which asked the respondents to use a Likert scale with a ranking of 1 (strongly agree) through 5 (strongly disagree) in which to reply. The question read, "Indicate whether you agree or disagree with each statement." Of the 25 statements, there were several that were alike. The surveyor along with an East Stroudsburg University Statistician, Dr. David Rheinheimer, collectively identified the statements as six factors. The researcher-identified factors were determined by reading each statement and identifying whether it was negatively or positively stated and whether they were "like" statements but which read differently. They are listed as Factors A through F in Table 4, which lists the summary data for Question 1. To improve readability, the name of each factor below highlights the content of each with a brief description followed by a listing of each statement.

Table 4

Summary Data for Statement Factors for Question 1 (N = 80)

Factor	Mean	Variance	95% CI
A (Statements 1, 14, 19)	2.51	1.22	(2.26, 2.76)
B (Statements 2, 9, 10)	2.21	0.77	(2.01, 2.41)
C (Statements 3, 11, 13)	2.54	1.08	(2.31, 2.77)
D (Statements 4, 15, 16, 18, 21, 22)	2.53	0.43	(2.33, 2.73)
E (Statements 6, 7, 8, 12, 17, 24, 25)	4.14	0.74	(3.95, 4.33)
F (Statements 5, 20, 23)	2.48	0.96	(2.26, 2.70)

Note. CI = confidence interval.

Factor A—The evidence that many women are seeking administrative positions in spite of the "good ole boy" system and female candidates are receiving token placements as assistant superintendents.

Statement 1.   Many women are seeking administrative positions in education.

Statement 14. Many women receive token placement at the assistant superintendent

level.

Statement 19. The "good ole boy" system is alive and well in educational administration.

Factor B—The career advancement of women (although supportive of each other) being impeded by geographic mobility, which for some is resultant of the conflict between work and family relationships.

Statement 2.   Women are supportive of other women in the profession.

Statement 9.   Career women are frequently torn between family and work

responsibilities.

Statement 10. Women often lack freedom of geographic mobility which impedes their career advancement.

Factor C—The perception of women as being powerful, stereotypical, and their earning capacity when compared to men.

Statement 3.   Women are perceived to be as powerful on the job as men.

Statement 11. Women are frequently perceived in stereotyped roles.

Statement 13. Women work harder than men for less money.

Factor D—The degree of management of team collaborative work efforts, people orientation, positive manipulation of people and tasks, and prioritization of children over political advantage, as well as personal relationships above power.

Statement 4.   Women are more sensitive to people than men.

Statement 15.   Women are more capable than men at managing team (Collaborative) work efforts.

Statement 16. Women administrators are more people – oriented than men in administration.

Statement 18. Women are good manipulators of people and the tasks that need to be completed.

Statement 21. Women are more dedicated to the education of children than in doing what is politically advantageous.

Statement 22. Women value personal relationships more than power.

Factor E—The influence of innate gender differences and the cumulative results of training and acculturation upon the effectiveness of women in decision making, financial finesse, delegation skills, political savvy, and mediation skills.

Statement 6.   Women are not as effective in their decision – making as men.

Statement 7.   Women are incapable of financial finesse.

Statement 8.   Women lack delegation skills.

Statement 12. Women lack political savvy

Statement 17. Women are not good mediators.

Statement 24. Innate gender differences account primarily for the way men and women function on the job.

Statement 25. No amount of training or acculturation will make the genders think or administer alike.

Factor F—The question of process superseding end results as determined by women's positive organizational skills, maintenance of focus directly upon the measurable parameters of the task at hand, and the emphasis that process has a higher priority than pecking order.

Statement 5.   Women are more concerned about process than the end result.

Statement 20. Women are good organizers and can keep focused on what needs to be accomplished.

Statement 23. Women are more interested in process than pecking order.

When the items are analyzed in their *a priori* clusters, referred to as factors, only Factor E is independent of any of the other factors. This finding is determined by inspecting the confidence intervals to see if they overlap. From Table 4 it can be seen that Factor E does not overlap with any of the other factors, therefore Factor E is independent of Factors A, B, C, D,

and F. Factors A, B, C, D, and F, however, do overlap and therefore are not independent of each other.

Also, none of the *CIs* in Table 4 include 3.0, which is the theoretical mean for the five-point Likert scale. Confidence intervals which do not include 3.0 and are below 3.0 are significantly lower than 3.0. Similarly, CIs above 3.0 are significantly higher than 3.0. Thus Factors A, B, C, D, and F are significantly lower than 3.0, while Factor E is significantly higher than 3.0. The implication of these findings are that on the Factor E items respondents agreed with the item statements, but for Factors A, B, C, D, and F respondents disagreed with the item statements.

Highlights from this survey that were significantly different from Gupton and Slick's study are included in Table 5. The data in the following table illustrate the differences from the women when they were asked whether they agreed or disagreed to the enclosed statements.

Table 5

Highlights from Quantitative Respondents That Were Significantly Different Between the Studies

Statement and Results

Women are perceived to be as powerful on the job as men

Gupton and Slick--59% disagreed or strongly disagreed while only 46% from the current study disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Women are more sensitive to people matters than men

80% of the women from Gupton and Slick's study indicated they agreed or strongly agreed, while only 62% of the women in the current study concurred

Women in administration are more people-oriented than men in administration

  68% of the females in Gupton and Slick's study indicated that they agreed or strongly agreed, while only 48% of the women in the replication study agreed with this statement

Women are frequently perceived in stereotyped roles

86% of the women from Gupton and Slick's study either agreed or strongly agreed while in the second survey the percentage was 73

Note. Likert scale = 1 (Strongly Agree), 2 (Agree), 3 (Neither Agree or Disagree), 4 (Disagree),

5 (Strongly Disagree).

Highlights from this survey that were significantly similar to Gupton and Slick's study are included in Table 6. The data in the table illustrate the similarities between the women when they were asked whether they agreed or disagreed to the enclosed statements.

Table 6

Highlights from Quantitative Respondents That Were Significantly Similar Between the Studies

---

Statement and Results

Women are not as effective in their decision-making as men

Both studies indicated that almost all of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed with that statement

Women are incapable of financial finesse

Both studies indicated that almost all of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed with that statement

Women are not good mediators

Both studies indicated that 90%-92% disagreed or strongly disagreed

Women lack political savvy

Both studies indicated that 85 %-87% of the respondents either disagreed or strongly disagreed

The "good ole boy" system is alive and well in educational administration.

Sixty-one of the 80 respondents (76%) agreed or strongly agree with this statement

---

Note. Likert scale = 1 (Strongly Agree), 2 (Agree), 3 (Neither Agree or Disagree), 4 (Disagree), 5 (Strongly Disagree).

Note. In both studies, women reported with equal proportions they were effective decision-makers, financiers, mediators, and politically savvy administrators.

These two tables synthesized the information gleaned between the two studies by analyzing the data collected from the answers to Question 1 with regard to similarities and differences.

Reasons for Underrepresentation of Women in Administrative Positions

In Part I (Statement 1), 59 of the respondents in the current study reported that in their perception many women were presently seeking administrative positions in education, but the majority of respondents indicated that the underrepresentation of women in the field was actually due to three main reasons (Section VI: A). First and foremost was women's own lack of aspiration to top-level administrative positions. The second reason was the cultural stereotyping of "appropriate roles" for men and women, while in third place was the insufficient role-modeling, networking, and mentoring among women. Actually, only five women indicated that the reason would be the innate, biologically-programmed differences in how the sexes cogitate, what they value, and how they function. Only three thought it might be because of inadequate training and educational opportunity. These were the same reasons reported in the primary study (Gupton & Slick, 1993). Table 7 illustrates the raw data for this underrepresentation.

Table 7

Reasons for Underrepresentation of Women in Administrative Positions

Statement	Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree or Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Women's lack of aspiration to top level administrative posts.	31	14	17	10	4
Innate, biologically programmed differences in how the sexes think, what they value, and how they function.	5	11	8	12	40
Cultural Stereotyping of "appropriate roles" for men and women.	24	21	16	15	0
Insufficient role-modeling, networking, and mentoring among women.	13	26	20	16	1
Inadequate training and educational opportunity	3	4	15	23	31

Note. Likert scale = 1 (Strongly Agree), 2 (Agree), 3 (Neither Agree or Disagree), 4 (Disagree), 5 (Strongly Disagree).

The major difference was that inadequate training came in last as a reason for underrepresentation in the replicated study, while the emphasis of inadequate training was one of the top reasons in the first study (Gupton & Slick 1993). The women surveyed in Pennsylvania do not believe that they were ill-prepared for these three power positions. The respondents in Pennsylvania strongly indicated that being ill-prepared was not the reason for the underrepresentation of women in these positions.

Barriers Women Face

When the 80 respondents were asked to identify the major barriers (there was nothing noted about gender-related obstacles in this question) they faced in advancing their career, the survey required open-ended answers (Section II: C.1). The analysis of data required the researcher to take each open-ended answer and list them individually. They were ranked in order after tallying the number of repeated responses. The research from the eighty respondents indicated five reasons that stood apart from the rest in the current study:

- Nineteen women indicated they did not face any barriers (24%);

- Fifteen women responded that balancing career, school, and family was their number-one barrier (19%);

- Eighteen women indicated that gender issues were the major barriers (23%);

- Ten women reported that "the good ole boy" system, including politics of school boards, were their major barriers (13%); and,

- Seven women indicated that characteristics (including size, personality, age, youthful appearance, and race) were their biggest challenges (9%).

One of the major differences from the Gupton and Slick study was that the number one barrier in the initial study, for 45% of the women surveyed, indicated that the major barrier was not knowing how or not being encouraged to, pursue careers traditionally occupied by men (Gupton & Slick, 1993). This barrier was not mentioned in the current study.

The survey asked (Section II: C.2) respondents to describe the major barriers they experienced while balancing family and career (which itself was indicated as a significant barrier). The prevailing theme in the current study indicated that women felt guilty at not being able to spend time with their children (27 of the respondents), while 22 of them indicated that

86

time commitment was their number one barrier. Most of them stated the job commitment took time away from their spouses and children. In the current study, 61% of the participants indicated balancing family and career had been an obstacle. Similarly, this item in the Gupton and Slick study scored a full 67% of the survey respondents, who indicated they had experienced obstacles in balancing family and career (Gupton & Slick, 1993). Worthy of noting was, nine respondents from the current study indicated there were no barriers—they were either single or had understanding spouses; while seven of them indicated they had waited until their children were grown before they pursued administrative positions. Following are some of the quotes received in this survey to support these findings:

- This is very difficult. I am divorced and remarried – I have one son and my husband has 3. My ex (sic) has tried to use my work hours as a reason for changes in custody. So, this is very sensitive to me. I have often marveled at how we are expected to give 110% to other people's kids and no one thinks anything of putting more and more demands on our time, but that leaves little to no time for our own families. (Assistant Superintendent)

- I was the ["first female"] in several positions; I know that I have overcompensated on workaholic issues, sometimes to the detriment of my children. I have mixed thoughts as I see some younger administrators who are not putting in at least some extra hours. (Superintendent)

- I live alone and feel as though my marriage suffered from being an administrator because of the time commitment. (Superintendent)

- I was a principal before getting married. Marriage itself did not have a major impact on figuring out how to balance family and career because it was just my husband and

I. My husband was aware of and accepted my tendency to be a workaholic. Having

children was a real adjustment. First, there was the traditional guilt I experienced with

my first child at not being a [stay-at-home] mom, and then there was figuring out how

to balance everything and not lose my mind. I was also working on my letter of

eligibility during my first pregnancy, so that presented unique challenges in and of

itself. Although I can no longer stay at work until eight or nine at night, I do come

back in after the kids are in bed, or I work at home after the kids are in bed. I also

spend time in the office a couple of hours on Saturday or Sunday when the

[workload] necessitates it. I learned to work smarter. (High School Principal)

The next question (Section II: C.3) in the survey was to describe the major barriers they

experienced that were, in fact, gender-related. In looking at the open-ended replies to that

question, there were four prevailing topics that emerged in the follow-up study.

- Twenty-eight women reported that they did not encounter any barriers that were

  gender- related (35%).

- Twenty-two women indicated that the barriers they faced were due to stereotyping of

  men and women (28%).

- Eleven women reported that the "good ole boys" were their barriers (14%).

- Ten women responded that prejudice against women was the barrier they had to

  overcome (13%).

One superintendent stated, "Negotiating my employment contract once I was no longer

covered by an Act 93 agreement was one of my barriers. (I have always had to fight for equal

pay.) Another was the perception that I was too tough at times because I was out to prove that I

could be 'tough like a man.' Not knowing how to golf was one! I was shocked to learn how

much networking was conducted by male school leaders on the golf course. I took up the game

of golf just so I was included in discussions and meetings with key stakeholders, both in the

community and in other districts." This concurs with the three barriers extrapolated from

Gupton and Slick's study, including discrimination, balancing family, and mobility issues with

spouses. Seventy percent of the respondents from the original study indicated that they had to

overcome barriers that were gender-related, while 60% of the women surveyed from the second

survey indicated this as a barrier.

Listed in Table 2 (Demographic Profile of Quantitative Respondents), four of the 80

current respondents listed their race as African-American. When reading their surveys, it was

interesting to note that all four listed the primary barrier was being a woman, while three out of

four included their race as one of their significant barriers. In addition, balancing family

demands and not having a female mentor were two other barriers mentioned. One of the women

stated, "I was asked by many teachers if I got hired because I was black and female." Also

interesting to note is that there were not any women who listed themselves as Hispanic or Native

American in Pennsylvania.

Mentoring and Support Systems for and Among Women

There were several questions in the survey (Appendix A) that inquired about mentors and

other significant life influences affecting their careers (Section III: A – C). The questions asked

the respondents if they were mentored, if they had mentored others, and a description of the

experience they had with their mentors. The majority of the respondents from the current study

indicated that their mentors were constantly teaching and protecting while sponsoring them

(opening doors, and providing opportunities). Eighty-five percent of the respondents have been

a mentor to others in the profession.

Question B from Section III asked if the respondents were part of a strong network of supportive women in the profession. Thirty-seven percent of the females in the current study said "yes," which was similar to the 40% from Gupton and Slick's survey; 37% of them said "no" in the current study, but they "would like to be" as compared to 40% in Gupton and Slick's survey; and 24% of the women in the current study said "no" and "we do not see a need for it," as compared to the original 17% in the primary study (Gupton & Slick, 1993). Eighty-five percent of the women in the replicated study indicated that they had been a mentor to someone in the profession, which is closely aligned to the first study, where it was encouraging to see that 80% had mentored someone else in the profession (Gupton & Slick, 1993). Lee, Smith, and Cioci (1993) supported Gupton and Slick's finding that a mentor program is crucial for the retention in the superintendency and choosing a woman or a man would bring different issues to the mentorship.

Comparing Male and Female Attributes

There were two questions (Section IV: A – B) which asked the respondents to compare themselves to both men (A) and women (B) regarding 10 attributes and to decide whether they felt they were more, the same, or less than their counterparts. Tables 8 and 9 provide the results for the current study. It appears that the respondents felt that they were less motivated by power as compared to their male counterparts, while they were more or at least the same when they compared themselves regarding aggressiveness, competitiveness, and being family-oriented. Attributes which were identical to the statistics from the Gupton and Slick study in which they identified themselves as being better than their male counterparts were Verbally oriented (Item 3), Concerned about personal relationships (Item 7), and Cooperative (Item 5).

Table 8

Characteristics Compared to Male Counterparts in Similar Positions

No.	Question	More	Same	Less	Responses	Mean
1	Aggressive	9	52	19	80	2.13
2	Competitive	17	51	12	80	1.94
3	Verbally oriented	43	34	3	80	1.50
4	Spatially oriented	17	49	13	79	1.95
5	Cooperative	43	36	1	80	1.48
6	Motivated by power	2	33	45	80	2.54
7	Concerned about personal relationships	41	34	5	80	1.55
8	Career oriented	22	51	7	80	1.81
9	Family oriented	28	48	3	79	1.68
10	Androgynous	8	56	13	77	2.06

Table 9

Characteristics Compared to Female Counterparts in Similar Positions

No.	Question	More	Same	Less	Responses	Mean
1	Aggressive	20	47	13	80	1.91
2	Competitive	27	42	11	80	1.80
3	Verbally oriented	31	45	4	80	1.66
4	Spatially oriented	16	57	6	79	1.87
5	Cooperative	29	48	3	80	1.68
6	Motivated by power	6	45	29	80	2.29
7	Concerned about personal relationships	17	56	7	80	1.88
8	Career oriented	24	49	7	80	1.79
9	Family oriented	9	62	9	80	2.00
10	Androgynous	5	63	9	77	2.05

There were compelling results to comparing both studies regarding this table. Two items worth noting were the comparison in regard to the characteristic trait of power and androgyny. In the original study (Gupton and Slick, 1993), 64% indicated that they were less motivated by power than their male counterparts, while this percentage dropped eight percentage points to 56% in the current study. In addition, 60% of the women indicated that they were as

androgynous as their male counterparts in the Gupton and Slick study, while that number

increased 10 percentage points to 70% in the current survey. In both studies, respondents viewed

themselves as more verbally oriented, more concerned about personal relationships, and more

cooperative than males in similar positions. As shown in Table 8, the results concur exactly with

Gupton and Slick's study.

When the respondents compared themselves to other women in similar positions in the

current study, the one indicator that was contradictory to the original study was that 29 of them

said they were less motivated by power than their female counterparts. All other attributes were

represented by a response that was comparable to those in Gupton and Slick's study.

When asked if the respondents believed women have as much leadership potential as men

(Section IV: C), all 80 respondents in the current study said "yes," and that "gender had nothing

to do with leadership potential." They listed other factors, including character, values, goals, and

personality, but it was clear that 100% did not believe gender was an influence.

Summary of Quantitative Results

- Sixty-one respondents (76%) answered "strongly agree" or "agree" to the following

  statement: the "good ole boy" system is alive and well in educational administration.

- All the women continued to work in administration as they pursued their advanced

  degrees.

- There was considerable age disparity regarding when respondents were hired for their

  first administrative position. The minimum age of the respondents was 26, while the

  maximum age was 53. The mean and median ages were both 38.

- Fifty-three out of 80 women (66%) assumed an administrative position never held by a

  female along their career path.

- Of the eighty who responded, 49% (39 respondents) work in rural districts, 46% (37 respondents) in suburban and 5% (4 respondents) urban.

- According to the respondents, when they were asked about attributes comparing themselves to other men and women, they felt that they were more verbally oriented, more cooperative, and more concerned about personal relationships than their male counterparts while many of them felt that their female counterparts were more concerned about power than they were.

- Only 5% (4) of the respondents were African-American who indicated being female and black were barriers they had to overcome.

- All respondents indicated that women had as much leadership potential as men.

Qualitative Study

In the Gupton and Slick study, women were given the opportunity to voluntarily submit their names to be included for the second survey, which was a more in-depth questionnaire. In this replication study, the researcher solicited respondents to participate in the second part of the study and retrieved the names of 20 superintendents who were willing to be interviewed. Superintendents were chosen because they were represented with the highest number of responses (46%). When contacted during the month of February 2011, one superintendent asked to have her name removed due to personal issues, and five of them were unable to participate after several contacts; therefore, 14 superintendents from across the state of Pennsylvania were contacted and interviews were scheduled.

Demographics for the Respondents for the Qualitative Interviews

The demographics for the respondents are identified in Table 10.

Table 10

Demographic Profile of Qualitative Respondents (N = 14)

Category	Qualifier 1	Qualifier 2	Qualifier 3	Qualifier 4
Age	30-39 2	40-49 2	50-59 7	60- 3
Position	Superintendents 14			
Race	Caucasian 14	African- American 0		
Marital Status	Married 10	Single 2	Divorced/ Separated 2	
Number of Children	Respondents who reported they had had children 10	Respondents who reported that they did not have children 4		
Enrollment	Under 1,000 2	1,001-3,000 9	3,001-4,999 1	5,000-10,000 2
Geographic Region	Rural 11	Urban 0	Suburban 3	

The Interview Design

All structured interviews were conducted over the telephone, utilizing the instrument (Appendix F) during February, 2011. This questionnaire was designed from the original instrument used by Gupton and Slick, utilizing the questions from Appendix B, the second

survey they conducted and published in 1993. The guidelines for interviewing were taken from *Educational Research* (Gay, et al., 2006), to enhance the data gathered from the first part of the current study. The researcher analyzed these interviews to develop a description of themes that applied to all the stories retold in the interviews. Using inductive reasoning, the researcher used these results to compare it to the information provided by Gupton and Slick in the original study to determine if the information had changed or stayed the same over the last several years.

The format of the interviews conducted included the following: a brief introduction of the dissertation to each participant; questions asked one at a time; and, responses written on a form designed by the researcher (Appendix F). The researcher permitted the respondents time to think about their answers so as not to interrupt their thought processes.

The interview form contained 18 questions (Appendix F), which were coded into themes for consistency purposes and ease of transcribing. These themes were taken directly from the first study and correlated to the current researcher's questions. The six themes included the following: Preparation (two questions); Perseverance, Diligence, and Professionalism (four questions); Evolution of issues related to leadership shifts with gender (five questions); Mentoring (two questions); Leadership (two questions); and, Personal (three questions).

The interviews were scheduled to allow 45 minutes for each telephone interview although there was additional time built into the appointment to adjust if respondents so needed. Each person was given as much time as she needed to provide her answers. The respondents did not have a copy of the interview questions. Once the interviews were completed, the researcher concluded the telephone conversation by thanking them for their participation and again explaining their right to withdraw at any time. There was adequate time built into the schedule

each day for the researcher to take the handwritten information and transcribe it into a proper

format, thereby allowing easier access for coding purposes.

Each respondent had a record transcribed as well as a record constructed for each

question, which had a compilation of the 14 answers for each question. Each interviewee

received a personal thank you letter that was sent via United States Postal Service to the address

that was presented to the researcher, thanking her for her time in the interviewing process

(Appendix J). It was decided that the names of these women would be kept confidential due to

the nature and content of some of their answers. For reliability and validity purposes, the names

are kept by the researcher in a locked cabinet for inspection if required by personnel from East

Stroudsburg University or Indiana University of Pennsylvania. They are included in the

dissertation by a number they received when the researcher conducted the interviews.

Clarification of Qualitative Results

Open coding, axial coding, and selective coding were the methods to begin the analysis

of the transcribed interviews. Johnson and Christensen (2008) described open coding as the

"first stage in grounded theory data analysis. It begins after some data have been collected, and

it involves examining the data (usually reading the transcripts line by line) and naming and

categorizing discrete elements in the data" (p. 413). It was at this stage that the researcher read

each of the 14 superintendent interviews verbatim to become familiar with the data. It was then

that the interviewer re-categorized the data by question to examine the contents more closely in

relationship to the research questions. This activity allowed the researcher to begin the second

stage of grounded theory, which is axial coding, described as developing concepts into categories

and organizing concepts into categories (Jonson & Christensen, 2008). Themes emerged during

axial coding, and the researcher was able to visualize relationships of answers facilitating

categorization. The last stage of the data analysis was selective coding, which is described as the process of refining the open coding and axial coding to develop a main theme or idea (Johnson & Christensen, 2008). Continued informational analysis resulted in the emergence of data-based interview themes.

In seeking the results from the original study, the researcher contacted Ms. Sandra Gupton in the hope that she would have been able to share the original qualitative studies that were conducted in the early 1990s, but this was unsuccessful. Ms. Gupton was unable to locate or produce the actual survey results. In order to compare the two studies, the researcher utilized the published document from 1993 to juxtapose similarities and/or differences from the two studies.

Theme 1 - Preparation

Preparation for educational administrative positions focuses on the importance of preparation with the proper credentials, as well as being prepared psychologically to overcome the barriers that women, in particular, encounter (Gupton & Slick, 1993). Of the 14 superintendents interviewed, 50% indicated that their programs prepared them for their administrative positions from well-known universities; some women studied with educational gurus, such as Michael Fullan, Grant Wiggins, Jay McTighe, and Peter Drucker. Many women indicated that they had to work twice as hard as men. Superintendent 6 stated, "I live in a world that is better than my mother's, but not as good as my children's, with regard to gender inequity. My mother was denied an internship because she was a woman." In 1993, the respondents to Gupton and Slick's study indicated that an aspiring female administrator must receive her professional training at a prestigious university and needed to engage in ongoing professional development. Nine of the 14 superintendents who completed the interview for this study either

97

received or were in the process of working toward their doctorate. Superintendent 14 shared this story:

> I was hired as a teacher so that the administration could watch me to see if I could prove myself to be the special education supervisor. I was told in January that I would actually be hired. I didn't realize that I was pregnant when they hired me in the beginning of the year, but then in January when they were going to officially hire me, I was showing. I worked with all males who were my father's age and they were not especially fond of special education. I was told to arrive at the meeting early and to sit down to keep my pregnancy a secret. They told me that if the school board knew that I was pregnant, I would not be hired. I was such an advocate for special education; I did what I was told. In 1996, I applied for the position of superintendent but didn't get it. They told me that the school district wasn't ready for a female superintendent.

This illustration concurs with one of the respondents from Gupton and Slick's original study, where she stated that working hard and being well prepared will only get you so far as a woman. She implied that the next measuring stick is being as good as a man. To obtain or maintain a position, perhaps even to be considered for a position, you must be better than your male counterparts (Gupton & Slick, 1993).

Theme 2 - Perseverance, Diligence, and Professionalism

With regard to the theme of perseverance, there were three questions asked of each superintendent relative to their own endurance and persistence. The topics included identifying their highest/lowest experience, their sources of strength, and the barriers they encountered in their administrative positions. Eleven of the 14 women indicated that their biggest obstacle had

been the fact that they were women. Barriers and obstacles exist for anyone pursuing lofty

career goals; however, the following compelling quotes needed to be shared with the reader:

- I am a woman and I am young. I am the only female superintendent in the area with all old men. I am always faced with the question, "What does a woman know?" (Superintendent 5)

- I worked with principals that didn't think women had a place in educational leadership. It was very painful to have to sit and listen to them. (Superintendent 12)

- It has taken me longer to get my first administrative job; I just could not get the nod. Each time, I lost to a man. Once I proved myself, I landed the job even at five feet tall (another obstacle). (Superintendent 1)

- I have encountered many barriers along the way because I am female. I asked my then (sic) superintendent if I could attend a SAC meeting. He told me no because they didn't like outsiders. They were all men. I work through the "good ole boy" networks, but I am a female. I do not try to be like men like some of my colleagues do. I wear dresses and spiked heels and carry a red purse. I do not wear blue suits. (Superintendent 7)

- My gender has been an obstacle. One of the female superintendents told me when I went to my first SAC meeting that this is still a "boy's club," and there are men sitting here who don't think we should be here. (Superintendent 3)

- When I entered the field there were not a lot of women around. My perception was that I needed to work harder and be smarter than men. (Superintendent 10)

The number one area of biased treatment in 1993 from Gupton and Slick's account was

being left out of the dominated male network of administrators and being given less respect. The

accounts from many of the respondents from the follow-up study included much of the same content as from above, concurring that gender is still an obstacle for woman attaining administrative leadership positions. Many accounts from both studies indicated that the respondents felt that the "good ole boy" system was alive and well.

Sources of strength for the majority of the 14 women were dominated by their families and their faith, followed by those who claim to be self motivated to achieve. When the respondents were asked what had been the best and worst experiences in their current positions, they reported varied scenarios of the best moments, which included working with current staff members and students and celebrating school achievements. The worst moments centered around four issues: gender-related hardships; litigation that came with the position; death of students or student's parents; and, working with dysfunctional boards. In comparison to the previous study, women in Gupton and Slick's study never mentioned the latter three. Two of the most memorable stories procured from the current study included one from Superintendent 10 regarding a murder/suicide of a kindergarten student's parents and a story from Superintendent 2 who had an 80 year-old-man on her board who had a radio show called "Air Your Opinion." The board eventually had to silence him, and he was barred from executive sessions because he made the contents public.

Theme 3 - Evolution of Issues Related to Leadership

In the third area called "Evolution of Issues Related to Leadership Shift with Gender," there were five questions asked. The answers to three of the questions were extremely pertinent to this study. In the first question, these women were asked how women's status has changed since they first entered this profession. The answers were spilt in that most women claimed that it was changing, but not to the degree that they felt it should. Superintendent 12 said, "There are

100

people who still think that females cannot be superintendents". Superintendent 4 indicated that there were still deep-rooted gender issues and still another stated, "We as women are not supportive of each other". This is comparative to the previous study, although currently there are many more females holding the position of superintendent than there were when the original survey results were published.

When they were asked to discuss their experience as it compared to their male counterparts, only one woman claimed that there was no difference. The other 13 named several disparities and discrepancies, including salary differences, having to work harder, and beating the "good ole boy" syndrome. Following are some crucial comments that came from this question:

- I worked harder to get there and had to prove myself. You need a lace glove on an iron fist. (Superintendent 8)

- Watch what you say - men don't. (Superintendent 14)

- Guys love the game and I find the game annoying. Guys like to be the boss. Power is an illusion. Men want this job because they see that the job is powerful. I just want to see the outcomes that we came up with happen. I think that this job is a labor of love. (Superintendent 10)

- There was a gentleman on my board who always opposed me attending the Women's Caucus. Every year it created heated discussion. (Superintendent 13)

This lack of support was pervasive in the first study. There was an overarching sentiment that coincides with the above statements.

There has been no change regarding perceptions of women with regard to comparing their experiences with male counterparts. Compounding many women administrators'

sense of isolation and lack of support is the very real issue of inequitable compensation for positions of equal status with male counterparts. Women administrators' retention rates, their power, as well as their salaries, continue to be substantially less than those of male superintendents. (Gupton & Slick, 1993, p. 143)

Finally, nine women proclaimed that they have had to make accommodations because of their gender; five did not. The consensus was that women took a financial hit, and others talked again about their communication with men. Superintendent 10 said, "Yes, you have to compromise, but don't compromise your values. My mentor told me that you have to be at the table with 'the boys,' so just get to the table!" Superintendent 2 said, "One male principal told me that I was insensitive over a decision that I had made. When I mentioned it to my husband, he told me he was pretty sure my colleague never would have said that to a man!" Gupton and Slick's surveys and narratives gave ample evidence regarding disadvantages women experienced because of their gender in roles typically occupied by men, as do the surveys and interviews from the current study.

Theme 4 - Mentoring

The role of mentoring was an area that most women agreed upon; they had both female and male mentors. They talked very passionately about their mentors, regardless of whether they were family members, college professors, or former bosses. All of them agreed that they do have specific mentoring strategies, but that they mentor leaders, both men and women, in a variety of ways. Developing professional learning communities, reviewing policies and procedures, meeting regularly and serving in both a formal and informal capacity are ways in which they provide mentoring. Superintendent 6 said it best: "I remember one time a young leader said to me, 'you are my role model,' and I thought, 'wow - I am just an average person.'

102

But you must always be professional with your dress, relations, and actions." This information concurs with the findings from the initial survey. One of the 1993 respondents said:

> The bottom line to mentoring, I think, is to care enough about the individual to share and to provide information to all who could possibly need it. I find no good reason for withholding information from anyone just to increase the dependency of people on others. Information is power. Everyone ought to have it. (Gupton & Slick, 1993, p. 90)

Theme 5 - Leadership

Leadership style was the basis for the next question in the interview. Nine out of 10 women indicated that their style was collaborative, fair, and equitable. Five of them stated they were decisive when they needed to be. Superintendent 5 said, "You really only have to be a superintendent five times a year. The rest of the time we work as a team." Superintendent 9 said, "I wear a velvet glove on an iron fist." These women were in direct alignment with the women from the first study. Both sets of women discussed shared leadership goal-setting, good communicating, working hard and being fair, and working toward the good of all students, providing them with the best education possible.

Theme 6 - Personal

Personal questions that were asked included whether they had any regrets or if they would do anything differently. Nine of them indicated that they would not do anything differently, but four of them implied they would spend more time with their families and not sacrifice themselves as much as they did. Eleven said they had no regrets, while three mentioned that they wished they had been better mothers/wives or had the ability to be mobile. Their future career plans varied by the age of the respondent. Four of the women held doctoral degrees; five of them indicated that they were in various stages of a doctorate. Most of them looked forward

to finishing their contracts, while several of them were looking forward to serving as an adjunct professor in higher education.

Finally, each superintendent was asked to provide advice for women who were coming up through the ranks of educational administration. The following are several prevalent quotes for future female administrators:

- You fall down seven times; get up eight times. (Superintendent 3)

- Go for it. Learn the business and learn what education is. Be able to tolerate the pressure from The Department of Education as well as your community. Any woman can do this job as well as a man. (Superintendent 2)

- Work hard and be willing to sacrifice personal space. Remember the community owns you. (Superintendent 6)

- Get thicker skin and find a confidant and divorce yourself emotionally from the daily grind of the job. Do not take personally what they say. Get a competitive education and read! (Superintendent 8)

Comparisons that were Similar (Quantitative - First Survey)

There were many similarities between the Gupton and Slick study and the current study with regard to the quantitative data of the study. In both the original and the current study, many of the demographics of the respondents were similar. The overwhelming majority of the women were Caucasian, with very low representation of women who self-reported a race other than White. In both studies, women reported working in both rural and suburban school districts, but there was very little representation of women working in urban districts.

In both studies, the overwhelming reason women stated they went into administration was so "they could make positive changes in education for young people," as compared to

reasons of "gaining power or making more money." In terms of attributes, women from both studies reported they were effective decision-makers, financiers, mediators, and politically savvy administrators.

Women from both studies determined that although women were entering the field of educational administration, underrepresentation in the field still existed. They concurred that there were three reasons for this underrepresentation, which included women's lack of aspiration to top-level admin positions, cultural stereotyping of "appropriate roles," and, in third place, insufficient role-modeling, networking, and mentoring among women.

Women from both studies claimed they experienced barriers while trying to balance their family and career. Feeling guilty was something women from both studies had in common because the job commitment took time away from their spouses and children. Women expressed that they were not able to spend as much time with their children as they wanted, which was a regret they described in both phases of the current study.

In the Gupton and Slick study and the current study, women indicated that they experienced barriers which were related to gender. More than 60% of the respondents from both studies described and discussed gender-related barriers, including everything from salary discrepancies to not being afforded job offers because they were women. The "good ole boy" system was reported as being "alive and well" as noted by many women in both studies, although the percentage was less in the current study conducted in Pennsylvania.

In the responses regarding mentoring, the answers from both studies mirrored each other. The majority of women from both studies said they were part of a strong network of women or they wanted to be a part of a strong network of women. They indicated mentoring was

important, and in both studies, more than 80% of the respondents indicated they had mentored someone in their field.

When comparing personal attributes of themselves to their male counterparts, the women from both studies reported they were less motivated by power as compared to their male counterparts. They also responded they were the "same" as their male counterparts regarding aggressiveness, competitiveness, and being family oriented. Verbal skills, personal relationships, and cooperativeness were attributes which were identical to the statistics from the Gupton and Slick study in which they identified themselves as being "better" than their male counterparts.

Comparisons that were Different (Quantitative - First Survey)

There were some data that reflected differences between the Gupton and Slick study and the replicated study. Although it was mentioned in the above section that the race of the respondents from both studies were identical, the majority of respondents in the Gupton and Slick study were females who were assistant superintendents, while the majority of the respondents from the current study were superintendents. The percentages of respondents from Gupton and Slick with regard to current position included 30% superintendents, 49% assistant superintendents, and 21% high school principals while the statistics from the current study included 46% superintendents, 30% assistant superintendents, and 24% high school principals, showing a higher percentage of respondents to be superintendents in the Pennsylvania study.

Female respondents in the replicated study reported that women were perceived to be as powerful on the job as men as compared to the respondents in the Gupton and Slick study. Fewer women in the replicated study indicated that females were more people-oriented than men. In addition, more women in the first study reported that females were more sensitive to

106

people matters than men. This signifies a difference between the two studies. In the current

study women reported being as powerful, less sensitive, and less people oriented than the women

in the Gupton and Slick study as they compared themselves to male administrators in the same

positions.

When comparing the quantitative information from both studies, there were differences

extrapolated. The one difference between both studies was that the women from Gupton and

Slick's study thought women were inadequately trained and therefore not able to secure

administrative positions due to their lack of preparation. The respondents from Pennsylvania did

not believe women were ill-prepared for these positions, indicating that "lack of preparation"

was not a reason for the underrepresentation of women in these positions.

Another difference between the studies surrounded the topic of barriers. In Gupton and

Slick's study, the respondents (45%) reported that a major barrier was not knowing about, or not

being encouraged to pursue, careers traditionally occupied by men. This barrier was not

mentioned in the current study by the women in Pennsylvania. Women in the current study

indicated that they had strong support from both men and women who coached them to positions

of power in the educational system.

In the replicated study where women were asked to compare their attributes to both males

and females, respondents indicated that they were as androgynous as their male counterparts.

This was not the case in the first study, where the percentage was much lower (10% less)

signifying more women said they had both masculine and feminine traits as much as their male

counterparts. When comparing themselves to other women, Pennsylvania women felt that all

attributes were comparable but one. Many women in the current study reported they were less

motivated by power than their female counterparts (8% less). This was not the case in the

Gupton and Slick study, where women felt that way about their male counterparts, but not their female counterparts.

Comparisons that were Similar (Qualitative - Interviews)

When the information from the second part of the study was examined by naming and categorizing elements in the data, the studies showed many more similarities than differences with the qualitative data. The information was then re-categorized by question so the data could be examined more closely in relation to the research questions, which allowed the researcher to begin the second stage of grounded theory—axial coding (developing concepts into categories and organizing those concepts). Themes which emerged in the second study were synonymous with those from Gupton and Slick's study.

Many women indicated they had to work twice as hard as men. With regard to preparation, there were quotes from both studies illustrating that working hard and being prepared only got them so far as women. Comments and quotes from both studies suggested that in order to maintain, and perhaps even be considered for, one of the three high-powered administrative positions, you had to be significantly better than your male counterpart to acquire the position and then work harder to maintain the title.

Eleven of 14 women from the Pennsylvania study indicated their biggest obstacle had been the fact they were women, which was compatible with the number one area from Gupton and Slick's study, where women identified that being left out of the male-dominated network and given less respect was their biggest obstacle. Many accounts from both studies felt that the "good ole boy" system was alive and well, and many quotes were derived from both studies to demonstrate that obstacle.

One interview question asked respondents to identify and discuss their highest and lowest point in their career. Many answers were similar for identifying the lowest point in their careers,

which was overwhelmingly attributed to gender-related issues with other male administrators. Gender discrimination was prevalent and was cited in many of the quotes from women in both studies.

When asked about the evolution of issues related to leadership, women from the current study specified deep-rooted gender issues as the main issue. Thirteen of the 14 superintendents noted there were disparities and discrepancies including salary differences, having to work harder, and beating the "good ole boy" syndrome as significant issues, corresponding with the respondents from Gupton and Slick's study where they agreed their power, as well as their salaries, continued to be substantially less than those of male superintendents. Women from both studies agreed they do make accommodations because of their gender.

The studies mirrored each other on the topic of mentoring once again, as in the quantitative report. Quotes and comments supported the need for strong networks and mentoring as reasons for women to stay in these high-power positions. All the women interviewed revealed the importance of mentoring and being mentored, linking this to Gupton and Slick's study where the women from the original study, revealed the same.

Women from both studies discussed how shared leadership, goal-setting, good communication, working hard, being fair, and working toward the good of all students symbolized their leadership style. They felt this style provided students with the best education possible. Gupton and Slick also indicated that these were the character traits regarding leadership style women in 1993 thought were important to help students succeed. "Consensus building," "collaborating," "team building," and "role modeling" were some of the same shared leadership phrases from both studies.

When asked if the respondents from the current study had any regrets, most said they did not; but the few who did indicated that the regrets centered on time spent with family. This was also true in the original study. Most women in Gupton and Slick's study did not have any regrets, and those who did cited examples that varied among individuals.

The advice from women to other women interested in pursuing educational administrative positions was very positive and motivating and from women who participated in both studies. This advice, in the Gupton and Slick book, is overwhelmingly consistent with a collective voice that says, "Go for it." There were many quotes in the last chapter of their book from highly successful women who expressed repeatedly the persistent belief that everything is possible, and these women seemed to believe that other females might need and want a cheering section to champion their quest for the top (Gupton & Slick, 1996). There were also quotes in the second study from the respondents in Pennsylvania that mimicked those from the first study. These are reflected in the current chapter and are synchronous with those from Gupton and Slick's study.

Comparisons that were Different (Qualitative - Interviews)

The major difference in this current study was actually in how the study was conducted. In the original study, women were asked to provide information to further enhance Gupton and Slick's study based on prompts (Appendix B) they were issued after volunteering. They were encouraged to submit written responses or audio-taped accounts to the authors, providing them with supporting information. In the current study, the researcher changed those prompts into questions (Appendix F), identifying them by theme, and conducted interviews with the female superintendents who volunteered to be included in the second part of the study. The difference

110

in protocol may have solicited distinctive supporting data due to the nature of the different approaches to gathering information.

Two areas where differences were noted from the data gathered centered on the themes of preparation and professionalism. Women from the Gupton and Slick study indicated that an aspiring female administrator must have received her professional training at a prestigious university, and needed to engage in ongoing professional development to be outstanding, or they would not be hired. In the current study, the respondents believed that women were trained in appropriate universities and that their preparation was as good as those of men competing for the same positions. With regard to preparation, the women in Pennsylvania determined that women were as outstanding as their male counterparts and that this was not an issue.

The second difference occurred when the respondents from the second study were asked to identify the highest and lowest point of their careers. Although both cohorts cited that gender-related issues were significant (as previously discussed), the current study respondents cited that the worst experiences they had were in dealing with issues never mentioned in Gupton and Slick's study. There were stories surrounding the issues of litigation that came with the position, death within the school district community—student, teacher, or students' parents—and working with dysfunctional boards. Many of the superintendents who were interviewed told very personal stories relating to these issues, which were not issues prevalent in the initial report of 1996 and may be reflective of our current society.

Summary

This chapter has been confined to presenting and analyzing data without drawing conclusions. The initial survey and the follow-up interviews were addressed in detail, using descriptive and inferential statistics. Confidence intervals, juxtaposition, and coding (open, axial

and selective) were the methods used to analyze the data. The researcher identified similarities and differences between Gupton and Slick's national study conducted and published in 1996 and the current study conducted in Pennsylvania.

The electronic survey (Appendix A) was distributed to over 300 female superintendents, assistant superintendents, and high school principals in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania. When only 80 were returned, research was conducted to determine reasons for the low response rate, which included survey length, pre-notification and follow up of the survey, importance of the subject matter, server filters, and the quantity of surveys participants may have received during the time this study was conducted.

Demographics of the respondents (N = 80) were reported and compared to the initial study. The most important differences were the mean age between the two studies (38 in the current and 49 in the Gupton and Slick study) indicating a significant shift in the age of women in these positions. There were many more superintendents (46%) responding in the current study, compared to assistant superintendents (30%), whereas the majority of the respondents in the Gupton and Slick study were assistant superintendents (49%) and superintendents (only 30%). Most respondents in the current study were working in rural school districts, with suburban districts coming in second and very little representation from women working in urban districts. Only a small percentage of respondents in the current study indicated their race other than Caucasian, which was similar to Gupton and Slick.

In both studies women reported that the number one reason they believed women were acquiring top-level positions in education administration was so they could make positive change in the education for young people. This occurred after several years of being a teacher. The evidence was there to support the notion in the early 1990s nationally and again in 2010 in

112

Pennsylvania that women wanted to become administrators to positively affect the lives of students and not for power, prestige, or money.

The second study produced differences when the researcher compared the results of the questions asking about character traits. There were a smaller percentage of female respondents in the Pennsylvania study who reported that women were perceived as being as powerful on the job as men and a smaller percentage of female respondents stated that women were more sensitive to people matters than men. In addition, a smaller percentage of female respondents in the replicated study thought that women were more people-oriented than men, and fewer female respondents reported they were more frequently perceived in stereotyped roles. In both studies, female respondents reported—with equal proportions—that they were effective decision makers, financiers, mediators, and politically savvy administrators.

Reasons respondents concurred upon between the studies to explain the underrepresentation of females in these high-powered positions indicated that the underrepresentation of women in the field was actually due to three main reasons. First and foremost was women's own lack of aspiration to top-level administrative positions, and second was the cultural stereotyping of "appropriate roles" for men and women. The third reason was insufficient role-modeling, networking, and mentoring among women. The major difference was that inadequate training came in last as a reason for underrepresentation in the replicated study, while the emphasis of inadequate training was one of the top reasons in the first study.

There were two primary obstacles identified between both studies, which included gender- related obstacles due to the stereotyping of women, prejudice against women, and the existence of the "good ole boys." The second obstacle reported was feelings of guilt at not being able to spend time with their families.

The majority of women from both surveys indicated that mentoring and providing support systems to women are crucial in acquiring and retaining positions at this level. Between 80%-85% of the women from both studies indicated that they have served in that capacity

When looking at how women compared their characteristics to both female and male colleagues, the significant findings included the following: In both studies, respondents viewed themselves as more verbally-oriented, more concerned about personal relationships, and more cooperative than males in similar positions, while attributes between women were fairly distributed and comparable with other females, except one. In the current study, one-third of the women indicated they were less motivated by power than their female colleagues. More women in the current study indicated that they were motivated by power and were as androgynous as their male counterparts. All women from both studies stated that they believed that women had as much leadership potential as men and that gender had nothing to do with leadership potential.

Fourteen superintendents from Pennsylvania completed an interview, which the researcher compared and analyzed to determine if the information had changed or stayed the same over the last several years. The studies showed many more similarities than differences with the qualitative data. Prevailing similarities were as follows: many women indicated they had to work twice as hard as men; their biggest obstacle had been the fact they were women (gender discrimination was prevalent), which was compatible with the number one area from Gupton and Slick's study and, many felt that the "good ole boy" system was alive and well supported with anecdotal records from both studies. Women from both studies agreed that they do make accommodations because of their gender.

The studies mirrored each other on the topic of mentoring and character traits. Women supported the need for strong networks and mentoring as a reason for women to stay in these

high-power positions, and concurred that shared leadership, goal-setting, good communication, working hard and being fair, and working toward the good of all students symbolized their leadership style and thereby provided students with the best education possible. Women in these positions did not have many regrets, other than the aforementioned limited time with family.

The major difference in the qualitative study was actually in how the study was conducted. The methodology utilized in the replicated study may have solicited distinctive supporting data due to the nature of the different protocol of gathering information.

Two areas where differences were noted from the data gathered centered on the themes of preparation and professionalism. The respondents in the current study believed that women were trained in appropriate universities and that their preparation was as good as those of men competing for the same positions, unlike the response from Gupton and Slick's study. In the second study, the respondents cited that the worst experiences they had were in dealing with issues never mentioned in Gupton and Slick's study. There were stories surrounding the issues of litigation that came with the position, death within the school district community—student, teacher, or students' parents—and working with dysfunctional boards.

Perceptions and barriers encountered by today's female educational leaders regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of leadership in the profession significantly concur with the respondents from the Gupton and Slick's study and will be shared in Chapter 5. The perceptions of today's female educational leaders do compare with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s, and these findings will be discussed in Chapter 5. Chapter 5 will provide a summary of results with final conclusions and information to support the answers to both research questions. In addition, recommendations for further research will be highlighted as well as the implications for practice.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

This chapter reviews the research problem, purpose, and methodology used throughout this study. A detailed summary of the findings and discussion will follow. Finally, the results will be linked to practices which have usability in the field and recommendations for further research.

The purpose of this study was to determine the reasons for the continued under-representation of female administrators in top-level educational positions, and how the issues may have changed since the early 1990s when Gupton and Slick completed their study. In replicating this study, the researcher collected data from women engaged in the acquisition and maintenance of leadership positions in the education profession. After investigating the topic again in the 21st century this researcher discovered information to support that the same obstacles and barriers from the early 1990s still exist, and that nothing has changed in the last 15 years regarding the current perceptions of female leaders in education.

The current study replicated a study that was completed in 1992-1993 and published in 1996 in textbook form. The authors were Sandra Lee Gupton and Gloria Appelt Slick. Their research-based book *Highly Successful Women Administrators: The Inside Stories of How They Got There* included the questionnaire used to collect data from women leaders in education in the early 1990s. The current study used an adapted form of the questionnaire (Appendix A) to collect data from the group of today's female leaders in education to learn more about their experiences in acquiring and working in leadership positions in education.

"Equity in the workplace has not yet been achieved, even as families need women's equality more than ever" (Bousey, 2009, p. 35). Higher level educational administrative jobs are

116

still overwhelmingly filled with males rather than females, as noted in the 500 public schools in the state of Pennsylvania (Public School Boards Association, 2009). In 2009 there were 144 female superintendents in Pennsylvania districts according to the Pennsylvania Directory of Schools published by Pennsylvania School Boards Association (2009). Utilizing the same website, this number decreased to 135 in 2010 (the year the survey was distributed), and then increased to 140 in 2011.

The most recent formal American Association of School Administrators (AASA) study was completed in 2010. One in four respondents (24.1%) to the study were women (Kowalski, et al., 2011). According to Pascopella (2008), the most recent national statistics showed that nearly 22% of superintendents are female and, of these, 55% serve in small or rural districts, 35% are in the suburbs, and 9% are in urban areas. Many female superintendents from Pascopella's study (40%) were promoted to the position from assistant superintendent unlike their male counterparts who tended to ascend to these positions from the principal position (53%).

From the literature review it was apparent that there is a shortage of female superintendents in education because women have chosen not to evolve into this position. This research was supported by Derrington and Sharrett (2009), Harrington and Ladge (2009), and Gupton and Slick (1996). This is particularly disturbing as "Women are culturally well prepared for the role because they are more collaborative and more adept at bringing people together, which are two of the skills necessary for being a good superintendent" (Pascopella, 2008, p. 34).

The percentage of female superintendents in Pennsylvania is higher than the national statistic presented by AASA and has been for the last three years but that percentage has

remained stagnant. In 2009, females represented 29% of the superintendent positions in

Pennsylvania. In 2010, the percentage dropped to 27% and then evolved back to 28% in 2011.

Statistics reflect that the number of female superintendents has been on the rise in recent years;

however the magnitude of this increase is questionable. "At the current placement rate, three

more decades will pass before the number of women superintendents' approaches parity with

male superintendents" (Derrington & Sharratt 2009, p. 20).

The researcher provided information regarding the number of women working in

corporate America. In 2009, there were 15 Fortune 500 companies being led by female CEO's.

According to CNN Money, an on-line website, that number stayed the same in 2010 and then

dropped to 12 in 2011 (a little over 2%). There is no question that women from both the private

sector of corporate America and women from the public sector of K-12 education have

underrepresentation in their respective fields although there is even less represented in corporate

America. The literature of Harrington and Ladge (2009) reported that the same obstacles exist

for women in corporate America that exist for women in educational leadership. These obstacles

include balancing family and career, dealing with "the good ole boy" networks, and experiencing

gender differences embedded in male-dominated organization cultures – all of which can lead to

invisibility for women and their issues. Although the same obstacles are presented for both

groups of women, the question begs to be answered. How do we explain the difference in the

percentages of women holding these positions? Speculation might prompt us to see that the

business world is more institutionalized and historically been know as a "man's" job while

education (teaching) has been traditionally seen as a "woman's" job. This might explain the

slow movement and vast difference in representation between both groups.

It is important to continue to monitor the status of women in the workplace—and in this study, in educational leadership in particular—and to do more in-depth exploration of women's under-representation to ensure efforts continue to be made to address stubborn stereotypes that are not easily eradicated despite laws and policies instituted to prevent them. Failure to do so would result in the continuance of the harm and costs to everyone that such immoral, "wrong thinking" ultimately imposes. Schools in this country need the potential leadership of both men and women who have the skill, talents, education, and dedication to deal with the unprecedented complexity of issues that face education today.

In the format of the Gupton and Slick study, the current study was designed to provide formative feedback about female educational leader's experiences. Each section of the survey solicited information about women administrators' experiences with their ascent to the top, as well as their perceptions regarding such ascent (Gupton & Slick, 1993). The second phase of both studies used a component of the second survey, designed by Gupton and Slick (Appendix B), to provide prompts to interview female superintendents in Pennsylvania. These prompts were turned into questions to assist the current researcher in the interview process with the superintendents who agreed to participate in the study (Appendix F). The data received from the participants during the first phase of the study was analyzed by comparing them with the data retrieved from the initial study, and then enhanced by qualitative accounts from those women who participated in the superintendents' interviews.

The researcher identified all female superintendents (135), assistant superintendents (126), and supplemented the list with female high school principals (38) in the state of Pennsylvania in 2010 by utilizing the on-line information from the Pennsylvania School Boards Association. The female high school principals were selected randomly to complete the list of

300 after identifying the female superintendents and the assistant superintendents. In reviewing the findings from the survey, the researcher has determined the same obstacles and/or barriers still exist for women in educational administrative positions since Gupton and Slick conducted their study in 1992-93.

Finding 1: Significant Demographic Changes Between the Women from Both Surveys

The average age women reported to be when they were first hired for an administrative position made a significant shift from the first study to the second study. Gupton and Slick reported that the average age of women obtaining their first administrative position was 49 while the average age of women obtaining their first administrative position reported in the current study was 38. When comparing this finding, it is significant to realize that women are entering administrative positions earlier in their careers. The researcher entered the field of administration in her district at the age of 31 and continues to observe women entering the field at younger ages. Two of the female superintendents interviewed in the second phase of the replicated study were in their thirties. The first one interviewed was 37 and had a history of firsts. She was the first female science teacher in her district, the first female assistant principal, the first female principal, and the first female superintendent!

The majority of respondents in the Gupton and Slick study were females who were assistant superintendents while the majority of the respondents from the current study were superintendents. The percentages of respondents from Gupton and Slick regarding current position included 30% (45 respondents) superintendents, 49% assistant superintendents (74 respondents), and 21% high school principals (32 respondents). The respondents from the current study included 46% superintendents (37 respondents), 30% assistant superintendents (24 respondents), and 24% high school principals (19 respondents) illustrating a higher percentage of

120

respondents to be superintendents. The higher percentage of superintendents may indicate that women are aspiring to be the "quarterback" in their districts, which is certainly true in the Pennsylvania study.

In the Gupton and Slick study women reported being employed in rural school districts (73% or 110 respondents), suburban (21% or 32 respondents) and urban (5% or 9 respondents). In the current study women reported a more equal distribution between rural (49% or 39 respondents) and suburban (46% or 37 respondents), while urban representation (5% or 4 respondents) was identical to the first study. The four respondents who self -reported being employed in urban districts in educational administration also reported their race as African-American.

Finding 2: Underrepresentation of Women in the Field Still Exists

Women from both studies reported that underrepresentation of women in educational administrative positions still exists. The three primary reasons they concurred that this underrepresentation still exists include: 1. women's self-imposed barriers (lack of aspiration to top level administrative positions), 2. cultural stereotyping of "appropriate roles", and 3. insufficient role-modeling, networking, and mentoring among women.

The one major difference between both studies surrounded the concept of preparation. Women from Gupton and Slick's study thought females were inadequately trained for positions in educational administration, while respondents from Pennsylvania believed women were prepared for these positions thus indicating that was not a reason for the underrepresentation of women in these positions. Women from the Gupton and Slick's study indicated that an aspiring female administrator must receive her professional training at a prestigious university or they would not be hired and indicated this would hold them back. In the current study, the

121

respondents believed that women were trained in appropriate universities resulting in their preparation being as good as those of men competing for the same positions.

Insufficient role-modeling, networking, and mentoring among women were presented collectively as a reason for the underrepresentation of women in education administrative positions. The studies mirrored each other on the topic of mentoring once again as in the quantitative report. Quotes and comments supported the need for strong networks and mentoring as a reason for women to stay in these high power positions. All the women interviewed revealed the importance of mentoring and being mentored linking this to Gupton and Slick's study where the women from the original study revealed the same. The majority of women from both studies said they were part of a strong network of women or they aspired to be a part of a strong network of women. Harrington and Ladge (2009) expanded on the idea that networks are critical to forging relationships with others to facilitate work effectiveness and career development. They also noted that although the "good ole boy" network was alive and well, there was no "good ole girl" network. They indicated mentoring was important, and in both studies, more than 80% of the respondents indicated they had mentored someone in their field. Another difference between the studies surrounded the topic of barriers. In Gupton and Slick's study, the respondents reported that a major barrier was either not knowing or not being encouraged to pursue careers traditionally occupied by men. This barrier was not mentioned in the current study where women evidenced strong support from both men and women who coached them to positions of power in the educational system.

Utilizing the Pennsylvania School Board Association's resources, the researcher was able to compare the number of superintendents in Pennsylvania over the last three years. When female superintendents were being identified for the purposes of receiving a survey for this

122

dissertation in 2009, there were 144 female superintendents (29%). Each year, the researcher conducted the same identification to track the changes and found that in 2010, there were 135 female superintendents (27%), and then again in 2011 identified 140 female superintendents in Pennsylvania (28%) indicating consistency over the last three years. Pennsylvania reports a higher percentage of female superintendents than 24%, the most recent national statistics (Kowalski, et al, 2011). In the Intermediate Unit where the researcher's district is a member, there are 17 school districts represented. Of those 17 districts, five of them are led by female superintendents (29%). The researcher has been an administrator in her current district since 1993. Her experience includes working for five superintendents (all male).

Finding 3: Barriers and Obstacles Exist for Women Pursuing Educational Administrative Positions

Eleven of the 14 female superintendents interviewed from the Pennsylvania study indicated their biggest obstacle in attaining educational leadership positions had been the fact they were women. This was compatible with the primary obstacle from Gupton and Slick's study where women identified that the compilation of being left out of the dominated male network and given less respect was their biggest obstacle. Sixty-one of the 80 respondents (75%) from the first survey indicated that they strongly agreed or agreed that the "good ole boy" system was alive and well. Many women who responded to the question about obstacles wrote about "working harder and smarter to be as respected by male counterparts," as well as overcoming the perception that "males were more oriented to being effective leaders than females." Comments from both studies suggested that in order to maintain and perhaps even be considered for one of the three high powered administrative positions, you had to be significantly better than your male counterpart. Women from both studies shared that they do make

123

accommodations because of their gender, which may have included issues of salary, mobility, and family responsibilities.

Thirteen of the 14 female superintendents interviewed in the Pennsylvania study denoted that in addition to having to work diligently and beating the "good ole boy" syndrome, there were other disparities and discrepancies that were gender-related. Additionally, they had to contend with salary differences, and not being afforded job offers based on gender. These significant issues correspond with the respondents from Gupton and Slick's study where they agreed their power, as well as their salaries, continued to be substantially less than those of male superintendents.

Balancing family and career remained a barrier for women in the replicated study. Sixty-one percent of the women in the current study indicated that balancing family and career had been a major obstacle—slightly down from the 67% in the Gupton and Slick study. Examples of this obstacle were congruent from both studies and relayed through both studies. "Feeling guilty" was something women from both studies had in common, stating the reason of job commitment. Many women expressed regret because they were unable to spend as much time with their children and spouses as they would have preferred. Derrington and Sharratt (2009) presented the notion that ascending to the position of superintendent and choosing not to have children go together. They claimed that because women in the superintendency are expected to meet two sets of expectations, role-related and gender-related, one set of goals is inevitably compromised suggesting women must either forgo family or limit their careers. In addition their research concluded that women without the support to integrate family obligations with the demands of the superintendency are an untapped pool of strong qualified applicants.

The following quotes were from two female assistant superintendents in response to describing major barriers experienced while balancing family and career signifying the complexity of this issue:

Since I was the only income earner, I had to earn all my advanced degrees (M.A, M.Ed., and Ed.D) while working full time, including changing jobs to climb the career ladder, shifting from 10- to 12-month employment (four times), moving (twice), and tolerating huge commutes. Just keeping everything in my life afloat was exhausting. If I had known what the demands would be at the start, I might never have begun the journey. (Assistant Superintendent)

Husband worked an hour away so I did it all—full-time work but still did all the doctor appointments, picked up sick children at school, etc. Plus I have a learning disabled child who needed much attention in the evenings with homework, etc. My husband was not able to cope with our learning disabled child's emotionality, behavioral issues or learning issues—it all fell to me. Son is now 20 years old. (Assistant Superintendent)

Derrington and Sharratt (2009) also identified another barrier when they conducted their second survey. One of the top two barriers they uncovered was the notion that women had "self- imposed" barriers because they were unwilling to put career responsibilities ahead of those that come with assuming the job of the superintendent.

Worthy of noting, 19 of the 80 (24%) respondents from the current study indicated that they did not encounter barriers when asked if they had encountered any barrier—they were either single, had very understanding spouses, or waited until their children were grown before they pursued administrative positions. In a subsequent question, when women were asked

125

specifically if they had encountered any barriers that were gender related, 28 out of the 80 respondents indicated that they did not encounter gender related barriers.

Finding 4: Perceptions of Today's Female Educational Leaders Align with Those from 1990s with the Exception of Two

When the respondents from the current study were asked to identify the highest and lowest point of their job during the interviews, there were obstacles reported that had not been mentioned in the previous study. Many female superintendents cited that the worst experiences they had were in dealing with litigation that came with the position, death of a student, death of an in-service teacher, or the untimely death of students' parents in addition to working with dysfunctional boards. Some of these experiences included suicide as the cause of death. These were experiences never mentioned in Gupton and Slick's research that now may be indicative of current societal issues. For example, a superintendent in the current study stated,

> There was a teacher who was dying of liver cancer, and he wanted to come
>
> back to teach. I wasn't sure how to handle the situation because they were
>
> elementary students. I wrote a letter to the parents asking them for approval.
>
> Two refused because they had recently experienced deaths in their family, but
>
> the rest approved. He taught the first half of the year and then went on
>
> medical leave. He called and asked if he could come in right before Easter.
>
> We made the arrangements and he came in to say "Good-Bye." I was nervous
>
> and when the first little girl said, "Mr. P, are you going to die?" I held my
>
> breath. He said, "What did I tell you in our first science class—as soon as you
>
> are born you begin to die. We will all die some day." He died on the last day
>
> of school (Superintendent 7).

The athletic director called me at 12:30 AM and many of us worked

until the next morning at 12:30 AM. One of our basketball players had

committed suicide. We orchestrated our crisis plan which included a healing

day allowing cell phones, many meetings with the basketball team, other

students, and parents. We did not plan a memorial, but we enacted all the

critical elements of our plan. After that experience, I knew my faculty would

walk through fire with me (Superintendent 5).

Finding 5: Leadership Traits and Attributes are Similar Comparing Themselves to Males in Both Studies

When comparing personal attributes of themselves to their male counterparts, the women

from both studies reported they were less motivated by power as compared to their male

counterparts. They also responded they were the same as their male counterparts regarding

aggressiveness, competitiveness, and family orientation. Verbal skills, personal relationships,

and cooperativeness were attributes which were identical to the statistics from the Gupton and

Slick study in which they identified themselves as being better than their male counterparts.

These results do support research conducted by Irby and Brown (2004) where they concluded

that women had a tendency to be collaborative, empathetic, effective communicators,

academically focused, problem solvers, interactive, accommodating, diverse, inspirational, and

influential. All of these traits encourage relationships which study participants agreed were vital

and that men and women were equally qualified

Female respondents in the replicated study reported that women were perceived to be as

powerful on the job as men as compared to the Gupton and Slick respondents. However, more

women in the first study reported that women were more sensitive to people matters than men

127

and reported they were more people oriented than men than in the current study. This indicates a shift where women and men share equality with power, sensitivity, and were both considered to be people oriented. In the replicated study where women were asked to compare their attributes to males, respondents indicated that they were as androgynous as their male counterparts. This was not the case in the first study where the percentage was much lower signifying more women said they had both masculine and feminine traits in equal proportion to their male counterparts.

This study certainly confirmed certain aspects of the theoretical framework (Social-Role Theory) explored in Chapter 1 by examining Finding 5 and Finding 6. When comparing themselves to men, the current respondents indicated they had as much of a drive to be assertive and competitive, characteristics which might be perceived as male attributes. However, this study might also suggest that differences in leadership style may be a function more of personality traits and behaviors rather than whether the leader is a man or woman. Women in the replicated study indicated they were more androgynous than their male counterparts suggesting they possess both female and male characteristics needed to be successful leaders. In Finding 6 below, you will note that the female respondents in the current study indicated that gender had nothing to do with leadership potential.

Finding 6: Leadership Traits and Attributes are Similar Comparing Themselves to Other Females in Both Studies

When comparing themselves to other female education leaders, Pennsylvania education leaders felt that all attributes were comparable but one. Many women reported they were less motivated by power than their female counterparts. This was not the case in the Gupton and Slick study where women felt that way about their male counterparts, but not their female counterparts. In other words women in the current study indicated that other women were more

motivated by power as compared to themselves whereas in the Gupton and Slick study, women strictly reported that other men were more motivated by power indicating a shift in the responses.

The respondents from the current study indicated that characteristics such as aggressiveness, competitiveness, cooperativeness, concern about personal relationships, and others were all traits represented by responses that were comparable to those in the Gupton and Slick study indicating solidarity in their responses. All respondents indicated that women have as much leadership potential as men and it was clear they did not believe gender was an influence.

Finding 7: E-mail Surveys—While Easier and Faster—May Not be the Best Form of Conducting Surveys

The electronic survey (Appendix A) utilized in the replicated study generated only 27% return rate which prompted the researcher to investigate reasons why it wasn't as high as Gupton and Slick's survey which was issued through United States Postal mail and generated a 51% return rate. Future researchers should conduct an analysis of their instrument as well as their procedures in hypothesizing their return rate of e-surveys. Analyzing survey length to ensure the time allotment is manageable will assist with a high return rate. Pre-notification and follow up procedures of dispensing the survey and collecting the results should be analyzed to provide respondents with the communication that serves as enhancements of return rate. In addition the researcher must be cognizant of server filters they may encounter when communicating with respondents. The salience of the subject matter to the recipient is vital to the return rate. Knowing that e-mail is used frequently for asking people to respond to surveys, respondents must have confirmation that the survey issued is important to them.

Go For It

When the concept of this dissertation began several years ago, the researcher was in the midst of her educational administrative career and in her early 40s balancing family and career. Handling gender and leadership issues were concerns that prevailed in her daily life. Constantly having to deal with issues that conflicted with a perceived male-dominated field led her to begin the search to learn more about the prevailing issue. As the topic and study began to develop, it was apparent that there were parallels between the researcher and the respondents. Dealing with the "good ole boys," networking issues, the "second shift" as described by Arlie Hochschild, the lack of mentoring, being the primary caretaker of two children (one with special needs), and other similarities perpetuated the need to continue this research. One thing was apparent to the researcher. She would have to work very hard to prevent bias while conducting this study and accomplished this through phrasing her questions carefully, conducting her interviews as meticulously as possible, and transcribing the results quickly to diminish the correlations the researcher shared with the respondents.

It was clear that women were still underrepresented in these high powered educational administrative positions in Pennsylvania although the statistics indicate that Pennsylvania is slightly ahead of the national statistics. Noting that the percentages of female superintendents leading Pennsylvania School districts remains virtually unchanged over the last three years is indicative of this issue and further supported by the stagnant number of women leading the Fortune 500 companies. During the time this study was conducted, the researcher would have indicated that self imposed barriers kept her from applying for superintendent positions, however after conducting this study, she has been inspired to consider her options of further career advancement.

The stories portrayed from the female superintendents in Pennsylvania both impressed and inspired the researcher. She felt an instant connection to these women although she hadn't ever met them. Each of them told a different story, but many were about the obstacles and barriers they had to overcome in order to acquire and maintain these educational positions of leadership. From the superintendent who spoke sadly of losing her husband to a brain tumor while in his thirties leaving her with two small sons to raise, to the superintendent who has been involved in a multi-year legal battle because of a whistle blowing incident in her former district and the destruction it has caused, to the superintendent who dealt with the battles of her own sexual orientation all her life particularly as a high-ranking public servant, to the superintendent who married at 19 and the battles she and her husband faced as they climbed their respective career ladders (his early, hers in her thirties) each of which provided the researcher with strength and gumption that truly stirred her. Their stories showcased strong, resilient women who had to overcome many different barriers to succeed in their roles and there is no question that these women would serve as role models to other women acquiring and maintaining educational leadership positions.

In both studies, the overwhelming reason why women went into administration was so that they could make positive changes in education for young people and they collectively shared overwhelming positive comments. Every woman from Gupton and Slick's study and from the replicated study shared the same consistent theme when asked to share advice to other women contemplating these high powered positions in education administration. There were many quotes from both studies where respondents felt the need to give advice that bolstered the self-esteem of aspiring female administrators. "Go for it," "Never give up," "Just do it," "Believe in yourself," "Everything is possible," "Follow your dreams" are just some examples of the

131

cheerleading-like quotes that were repeatedly stated. However, in addition to be motivating, they also provided litany of responses that cautioned young aspiring females to be careful about "being too aggressive," "being willing to take risks," "knowing what to do when you hit obstacles," "working harder than you ever have," and "staying focused on children regardless of the consequences politically." The message was very clear – forge ahead because "you can do it", but "be careful!"

This dissertation was written for all women aspiring to positions in educational administration, hoping that it will prompt them to forge ahead and provide them with the information they need to consider when obstacles and barriers present themselves along the way. Table 11 presents the researcher's key lessons that have been emulated from Gupton and Slick's key lessons from Chapter 1. The following information, gleaned from the current study, will hopefully challenge women to seek leadership positions and believe in their capacity to be top-level administrators. Go for it!

Table 11

Ten Key Lessons Learned by M. Holly Morrison, the Researcher

Lesson 1	Preparation Only Gets You So Far - The Rest is a Willingness to Take Risks
Lesson 2	The "Good Ole Boys" Network is Alive and Well - Rely on Your Mentors (Network with both women and men)
Lesson 3	Obstacles Exist - Get Over it and Persevere
Lesson 4	Be Androgynous - Male and Female Characteristics are Needed to Be a Great Leader
Lesson 5	Gender Doesn't Make a Leader - The Person Does
Lesson 6	Be a Professional - Always be Politically Correct—Others are Watching
Lesson 7	Mentor Young Administrators - You Owe it to Them
Lesson 8	Wear a Velvet Glove on an Iron Fist (Superintendent 9)
Lesson 9	Never Let Them See You Sweat!
Lesson 10	"Go for It!"

Final Conclusions

The research findings of this study are important for the several reasons. First this study presents the same obstacles and barriers for women today as those from the study conducted in the 1990s indicating that there has been little change in the hiring and treatment of female leaders in the workplace. Secondly, the perceptions encountered by today's female leaders regarding their experiences are similar to those women who responded in the 1990s in acquiring and maintaining positions with regard to equality and fairness. This perception suggests that changes are slow and continued efforts must be made for individuals, organizations, and society in an effort to provide recommendations to ensure the change in perceptions for women in the future.

Next, this study implies that mentoring systems are a necessity for women to succeed in high power educational administrative positions and should be organized at local, regional, and state levels to provide support to aspiring women.

In addition, this study provides an impetus for research to continue in the United States that explores the reasons for the underrepresentation of women in these high powered positions in educational administration. Finally, this study provides incentive for leaders involved in education to take action to address the issues stated in this study proactively to overcome discrimination and communicate with each other in an effort to have access to equitable treatment of both genders in the workplace.

Limitations

Gupton and Slick's study was originally conducted from Mississippi and the 151 respondents were from a stratified, random sampling by regions of the United States. The current study was replicated in Pennsylvania, limiting the respondents to one state and thus reducing the generalizability of the study's results. At the time the study was conducted, there were 144 female superintendents and 126 Assistant Superintendents in Pennsylvania which meant strategic contact needed to be made with all of those women and supplemented with high school principals identified as women to receive the survey. The researcher questioned the number of women that needed to respond to the survey to test its reliability and validity. Three hundred surveys were distributed through e-mail utilizing the e-mail list from the School Directory from the Pennsylvania School Boards Association and school websites. There was no guarantee that the results from the survey would include 300, just as there was no guarantee that 25 superintendents would participate in the follow-up phase of this study. Ensuring credibility

by triangulating the qualitative data using categorizing and coding to identify themes presented limitations to this study as well.

As with any study there were limitations to the findings it produced. There were three areas within this study that presented obstacles for the researcher. First the study was limited by the number of females who participated in the quantitative survey. In the study being replicated, 51% of the surveys were returned which was the minimum goal for this study. Three hundred were distributed and the researcher's goal was 151 respondents. It should be noted that there were 80 respondents to the electronic survey (27%). The researcher did not anticipate that the response rate would not be what it was in the original study. In the original study, the quantitative data were secured by paper and pencil and sent and returned through the postal mail. In reviewing information that explains reasons why the return rate may be lower, there appears to be many reasons that support the lower response rate in 2011. Sending information through e-mail saves time and money and the researcher thought it would increase the response rate of return. However there were issues hypothesized by the researcher and supported by Sheehan (2001) that presented obstacles including e-mail lost in cyberspace or sent to junk mail. Server filters may have prevented e-mails from even arriving to the desired e-mail address. People have suspicions and concerns about confidentiality and the number of e-mails received each day is increasing making it difficult for respondents to participate in every survey.

In addition, the study was limited by the number of female superintendents who participated in the interviews. In Gupton and Slick's study, they contacted 25 female administrators inclusive of women representing all three high power positions and 15 women returned their personal stories. In the current study, the researcher identified 20 superintendents from the initial group of respondents to participate in the telephone interview and secured 14

135

interviews after contacting them. In the first study, Gupton and Slick selected 25 female administrators while in the current study, the researcher strategically chose the female superintendents who responded favorably from the initial study. Limiting the second phase of the study (telephone interviews) to female superintendents may have limited the results of the study.

As previously noted, the study presented the researcher the opportunity to triangulate data by coding qualitative data. The challenge was reducing the data to a manageable form. The researcher developed a process that worked in order to compile the data into themes and then compared them to the themes which emerged in Gupton and Slick's study.

Finally, each researcher brings to a setting a highly individual background and set of experiences, and perspectives, which in turn affect not only what and how she observes, but also her personal reflections and interpretations of the situation. The qualitative researcher runs the risk of identifying with one or more participants and of being judgmental toward others (Gay, et al., 2006). The researcher was aware of this and brought to a conscious level the idea of bias as data were being identified and coded. The two areas of bias that could impede this study included a bias toward the results from the previous study while trying to make the information fit into their themes and the second is bias in interpreting the questionnaires and conducting the interviews. In addition, the researcher pondered over the idea of self-imposed barriers discussed so thoroughly in this dissertation. This had been a long struggle for her in her position as Curriculum Director as she contemplated the idea about being certified for the position of superintendent, yet truly not aspiring to that position. The qualitative interviews and the women she spoke with prompted her to revisit that decision again, and perhaps as her doctoral program comes to a close, she will have the opportunity to consider the position of superintendent again.

Avenues for Further Inquiry

Suggestion 1

Derrington and Sharratt (2009) conducted their study in 1993 and then again in 2007which provided data to determine shifts in research. Studies like the one conducted in Washington should be administered every 10 to 20 years to continue to see how these issues evolve over time. This subject needs national attention followed by the attention of all 50 states with a strategic plan to conduct similar studies every 10-20 years. Credit should be given to those authors highlighted in Chapter 2 who replicated their study in the same state. There were other studies cited within the literature review, which were conducted more than once within their state producing important data and setting an example for others. It would be a valuable opportunity to pursue a study like this by utilizing the same nationally produced instrument and then synthesizing the national data to determine if obstacles that are present to women in their ascent to powerful positions in education are congruent by a larger sampling or congruent within the state in which the research is being conducted.

Suggestion 2

While exploring the self-imposed barriers women report as being obstacles, there seem to be many that are keeping women from aspiring to these high-powered positions including but not limited to societal, characteristic traits, family responsibilities, and lack of support. Societal barriers or the environmental issues women face may be enough of an obstacle that women are not willing to risk the consequences of the job. Family responsibilities are one of the top reasons women cite as being reasons they shy away from educational leadership positions. They are choosing families over careers indicating they are unable to do both well. Personality types or characteristic traits of women may be keeping them from applying to these positions of power.

Courage, resiliency, and doubt are all issues women may be struggling with as they contemplate submission of an application. One barrier in particular is overshadowed with the need to have organized mentoring groups and networks in an effort to provide support to women aspiring to become educational administrators. The researcher has not found local or regional organized mentoring programs; however, Pennsylvania Association of School Administrators does provide a Women's Caucus held annually that highlights relevant workshops and topics. Further research to explore these self-imposed barriers is necessary to determine how important these barriers are and how women might challenge themselves to explore the option by studying the reasons behind their self-imposed barriers. Each of these barriers are different and have different consequences associated with them. Perhaps having the opportunities to hear from others who faced the same self-imposed barriers would be helpful in their decision making.

Suggestion 3

It is apparent that women in these three high-powered positions sometimes reach them by first serving in jobs that are in other educational administrative positions (i.e., Elementary Principal, Special Education Director, Director of Curriculum, Director of Elementary or Secondary Education). It is the researcher's opinion that if opportunities present themselves for further study, all female administrators be considered to take part in the study perhaps by even redefining the top positions in educational leadership**.** The researcher believes that the results from this study were limited by including only the three defined positions of power including the superintendent, assistant superintendent, and the high school principal. Exploring the area of educational administration including all administrative positions should be a more global representation of administrators in general. The answers from all women in administrative

138

positions might hold the key for identifying reasons for underrepresentation of women in the three high-powered positions.

Suggestion 4

"With the minority populations emerging toward a majority, it would appear that a more equitable representation of women among the various ethnic groups should be forthcoming" (Gupton & Slick, 1993, p. xxxix). This quote from 1993 would have insinuated that the population of race in the current study would have been more equitable since many years have passed; however, the statistic from the replicated study conducted in Pennsylvania does not concur. Only four of the 80 respondents reported their race as being African-American and there was zero representation from races other than Caucasian and African-American. Remembering that Gupton and Slick's study was conducted throughout the nation, their percentage of women with race other than Caucasian was more than the replicated study in Pennsylvania which provides a recommendation that this should be explored among all the states. In addition, there was significant underrepresentation from women in both studies serving in urban school districts which provides an impetus for further study at the national and state level. The researcher speculates that there may be less representation of women of all races serving in urban school districts.

Suggestion 5

One significant issue became clear throughout this study that prompts further investigation. The researcher kept asking herself, "What happened to women once they acquired these positions?" There needs to be further study that addresses the question of once they got there, did they stay? Maintaining the position was not really something this replicated study researched but the researcher suggests that as contracts of superintendents become less than five

years, the significance of whether or not women are maintained in these positions is crucial to the topic of gender and leadership.

Suggestion 6

There may need to be a fundamental shift in the mindset of all leaders by exploring whether there are common personality traits identified that provide a foundation for women to be successful in these positions. Throughout the two studies, women were asked to compare themselves to men and other women with regard to characteristics. It is possible that further research would provide new research on leadership characteristics and personality traits suggesting the type of person deemed to be most successful in those positions of leadership.

Suggestion 7

Today, many women are told as little girls that they can do anything. The question that implies further research is, "Can they do anything and have a family?" Does marriage status or child rearing have anything to do with the resiliency in acquiring or maintaining these leadership positions? The researcher heard stories of personal conflict throughout the replicated story that had women torn between their families and their careers. Additionally, many women cited regrets as being unable to fulfill their responsibilities to both. Women who reportedly did not have children or waited until their children were older did not seem to have as many regrets or stories of personal conflict. In fact, they didn't seem to report any regrets at all. Dealing with both positions, mother and boss, may in fact be the number one self-imposed barrier to explore.

Suggestion 8

Although the same obstacles exist for both women in educational leadership positions and women in corporate America, there is disparity even in those numbers. Only 2% of the Fortune 500 companies are led by women – a much lower representation even than those is

140

educational leadership. Perhaps further exploration of this group of women will provide us with information needed to answer questions of why this inequality exists between the women from private and public industry and how those barriers may be too difficult to overcome. The barriers reported from both groups are the same, but the difference in statistics is staggering. The numbers of women in both groups have been reported in this study to be stagnant over the last three years, but with better representation in the educational field (27% of women in superintendent positions in the state of Pennsylvania) while there was only 2% of women in CEO positions in the Fortune 500 companies.

Summary

The purpose of this study was to determine the reasons for the continued under-representation of women administrators in top-level educational positions. These reasons, when revealed were self-imposed barriers, lack of female support systems, and cultural stereotyping of appropriate roles. In addition the researcher was to determine by investigating this topic again in the 21st century, whether the same obstacles and barriers from the early 1990s still exist, and how—in the experiences and perceptions of female leaders in education today—they may have changed in the last 15 years. The perceptions of today's female educational leaders do compare with the perceptions of women in similar positions in the early 1990s, and virtually remain unchanged regarding their experiences in seeking, acquiring, and maintaining positions of educational leadership. This was verified with several comparisons listed in Chapter 4 and in the findings from Chapter 5 which produced a summary of results and final conclusions to support the answers to both research questions. Educational leadership, as seen and reported through feminine eyes, remains unchanged over the last 15 years. The question, now in the 21st century, is "why?"

Speculating on the question "Why?" may be overwhelming to answer. The researcher is inclined to believe there may be several reasons why nothing has changed. Many years ago there was a book on the best sellers list for 121 weeks called *Men are from Mars, Women are from Venus.* This was a book written by American author, John Gray, and was written to describe the differences between the genders as if they were from two different planets. The book suggested that women and men were astute in understanding their own characteristics and gender more so than that of the other. In other words, they just did not understand each other but suggested that there was a way to understand each gender particularly as they responded to stressful situations. There are many books, articles, research, and dissertations that contain information about the differences between males and females. If there weren't, the answer to the question "Why?" would have been answered by now.

The first reason the researcher speculates for the lack of "change" are the barriers that society places on women. There are deep-rooted issues in society that continually repress women from aspiring to top-level positions. Two days ago, a prominent figure made a controversial comment regarding a 30-year-old law student from Georgetown University for speaking in front of Congress requesting health care support of contraceptives for women in college. Another example occurred in the researcher's home four years ago when during dinner one evening, her 14-year-old son said, "Mom, I am pretty sure that America is just not ready for a female president." His father slapped him on the back and said, "Good luck, son!" Forty-five minutes later, the researcher and her son were still at the table discussing that issue. This was an example of teaching this son a valuable lesson, but in many families there are deep-rooted beliefs that are hard to break regarding the treatment of women. One more example of deep-rooted societal influences comes to mind when the researcher challenged her coworkers and family to

picture in their mind a great leader - 75% named a male. This certainly indicates that the mindset has to change to provide a vision that includes females as leaders.

Although this study indicated things have not changed over the last 15 years, it was also apparent that there was even disparity among careers for women. Chapters 4 and 5 reported there was more representation of females in high-powered positions in education than of those in corporate America. Although the identified barriers were the same for both groups of women, the institution of education may be more accepting of female leaders, because at its entry level positions, the professionals are female teachers. Entry-level positions in business may have a more equitable number of males and females, or even be dominated by males. It is possible that the educational field is kinder to female leaders than that of the corporate world traditionally run by men.

Percentages of women maintaining the position of superintendent has not changed much in the last three years. Perhaps this is due to the self-imposed barriers relating to personality and character traits that play a role in why women have not advanced to these positions. Middle-level management may not see themselves as leaders and may doubt their credibility. Character traits that include issues of resiliency or courage may be what stands in the way of women unknowingly holding themselves back. The lack of mentoring or networking systems may be why more women are not encouraged in the direction of leadership. Perhaps with more structured mentoring programs, there would be more support to motivate and foster "a willingness to try." Other reasons stated by Warrell (2011) included the notion that women doubted themselves more than men, underestimated their ability and second guessed their decisions more than their male counterparts. These are all reasons that support the notion of self-imposed barriers due to women's lack of confidence and self doubt.

The researcher recently attended the PA inspired leadership training in Indiana, PA hosted by PASA. The "Superintendent of the Year 2010" was a female who hosted the first session on becoming a superintendent. She indicated that, in order to be resilient, you needed a solid foundation of good physical, mental, emotional, and spiritual health. This isn't something that comes naturally but rather a skill that is developed as we increase our capacity to cope.

Self-imposed barriers that present obstacles around family issues suggest that women feel like they are forced to make a choice between the two. Women who choose both often feel like they are in some kind of vicious circle where demands are pulling at them in every direction. As young women we learned that we can do anything, but the question still remains "Can we do everything at one time?" Women place unusual demands upon themselves striving to be the best mom, employee, co-worker, and wife.

What might happen in the future? Fifteen years is such a short period of time, but the researcher believes that equality will continue to evolve but for many years to come. After taking 73 years to be granted the right to vote, women have only had this right for 92 years. Reflecting on that pivotal change and the time it took, the researcher believes there are more to come. We have come a long way baby, but we still have a long way to go.

References

Adams, K. L., & Hambright, W. G. (2004). Encourage or discouraged? Women teacher

leaders becoming principals. *The Clearinghouse*, *77*(5), 209-211.

American Psychological Association. (2010). *Publication manual of the American*

Psychological Association (6th ed.). Washington, DC.

Belkin, L. (2003, October 26). The opt-out revolution. *New York Times*, available

at http://www.nytimes.com/2003/10/26/magazine/26WOMEN.html?pagewanted=all

Blount, J. M. (1999). W.W.II and the great gender realignment of school administration. Paper

presented at the April 1999 annual meeting of the American Educational Research

Association, Montreal, Quebec.

Boushey, H. (2009, October). The new breadwinners. The Shriver Report: A woman's

nation changes everything. *Center for American Progress*, 31-67.

Coleman, M. (2003). Gender and the orthodoxies of leadership. *School Leadership &*

Management, *23*(3), 325-339.

CNN Money. (2011). *Women CEOs*. Retrieved from

http://money.cnn.com/magazines/fortune/fortune500/2011/womenceos/

Dana, J. A., & Bourisw, D. M. (2006). *Women in the superintendency: Discarded leadership*.

Lanham, MD: Rowman and Littlefield Education.

Derrington, M. L., & Sharratt, G. C. (2009). Female superintendents: Breaking barriers

and challenging life styles. *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin, 75*(2), 8-12.

Derrington, M. L., & Sharratt, G. C. (2009). Self-imposed barriers. *The School*

Administrator, *66*(8), 18-21.

Discrimination. (n.d.). *Dictionary.com Unabridged*. Retrieved April 13, 2012, from

      Dictionary.com website: http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/discrimination

Duncan, P. K., & Skarstad, K. (1995). *How women administrators are perceived by others:*

      A case study examining the relationship between leadership temperament, use of

      power, and success. Paper present at the annual meeting of the Mid-western

      Educational Research Association, Chicago, IL.

Eagly, A. H., & Carli, L.L. (2009). Navigating the labyrinth. *The School Administrator*,

      66(8), 10-16.

Eagly, A. H., Wood, W., & Diekman, A. B. (2000). Social role theory of sex differences and

      similarities: A current appraisal. In T. Eckes & H. M. Trautner (Eds.), *The developmental*

      social psychology of gender (pp. 123-174). Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum. Retrieved from

      http://search.ebscohost.com/login.aspx?direct=true&db=psyh&AN=2000-03764-

      005&site=ehost-live

Ford, A., & Van Dyk, D. (2009, October 26). Then & now. A statistical look back, form the

      1970s to today. *TIME*.

Gay, L. R., Mills, G. E., & Airasian, P. (2006). *Educational research: Competencies for*

      analysis and applications. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

Gibbs, N. (2009, October 26). What women want now. *TIME*. *174*(16) p. 26-31.

Goldman, J. P. (2009). Women on the move. *The School Administrator*, *66*(8), 5.

Good Ole Boy. (n.d.). *Dictionary.com Unabridged*. Retrieved April 13, 2012, from

      Dictionary.com website: http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/Good Ole Boy

Gupton, S. L. (2009). Women in educational leadership in the U.S.: Reflections of a

      50 year veteran. Forum on Public Policy, Summer 2009 edition., 1-20. Retrieved from

      http://forumonpublicpolicy.com/summer09/papers09summer.html

146

Gupton, S. L., & Slick, G. A. (1996). *Highly successful women administrators: The inside stories of how they got there.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.

Harrington, B., & Ladge, J. J. (2009, October). Got talent? It isn't hard to find. The Shriver Report: A woman's nation changes everything. *Center for American Progress*, 190-231.

Hochschild, A. (2003). *The second shift.* New York, NY: Penguin Books.

Hudson, M. B., & Williamson, R. D. (2002, Fall). Women transitioning into leadership: Gender as both help and hindrance. *Advancing women in leadership.* Retrieved from http://awinstitute.advancingwomen.com/awl/fall2002/HUDSON.html

Irby, B., & Brown, G. (2004). Women leaders creating equitable schools. *Kappa Gamma Bulletin*, *70*(4), 5-8.

Johnson B., & Christnesen, L. (2008*). Educational research quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (3rd Ed.). Los Angeles, CA: Sage.

Kennedy, A, Nagata, E, Mushenski, B. P., & Johnson, D. L. (2009). Wage discrimination based on gender and race. *The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin, 2*(75), 13-19.

Kowalski, T. J., McCord, R. S., Peteren, G. J., Young, I. P., & Ellerson, N. M. (2011). *The American school superintendent: 2010 decennial study.* American Association of School Administrators. Lanham, MD: Rowman & Littlefield Education.

Lee, V. E., Smith, J. B., & Cioci, M. (1993). Teachers and principals: Gender-related perceptions of leadership and power in secondary schools. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 15*(2), 153-180.

Lincoln, Y. S., & Guba, I. G. (1985). *Naturalistic inquiry.* Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

Logan, J. P. (1998). School leadership of the 90's and beyond: A window of opportunity for women educators. *Advancing Women in Leadership Journa*l, *1*(3), 1-11.

Manning, T. T. (2002). Gender, managerial level, transformational leadership and work

     satisfaction. *Women in Management Review*, *17*(5), 207-216.

Marklein, M.B. (2005, October 19). College gender gap widens: 57% are women. USA TODAY.

     Retrieved April 13, 2011 from http://www.usatoday.com/news/education/2005-10-19-

     male-college-cover_x.htm

Marzano, R. J., Waters, T., & McNulty, B. A. (2005). *School leadership that works*. Denver,

     CO: Mid-continent Research for Education and Learning.

Maxwell, J. A. (2005). *Qualitative research design an interactive approach* (2nd ed.).

     Newbury Park, CA: Sage.

McGrath, S. T. (1992). Here come the women! *Educational Leadership*, *49*(5), 62-65.

Merrill-Sands, D., Kickul, J., & Ingols, C. (2005). Women pursuing leadership and power:

     Challenging the myth of the "opt out revolution." *CGO Insights.* Retrieved from

     http://www.simmons.edu/som/docs/centers/insights_20.pdf

Network. (n.d.). *Dictionary.com Unabridged*. Retrieved April 13, 2012, from Dictionary.com

     website: http://dictionary.reference.com/browse/network

Northouse, P. G. (2004). Chapter 9. In *Leadership Theory and Practice* (3rd ed., pp. 169-199).

     Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Parent, K. D. (2004). *Women in the Oregon superintendency* (Unpublished doctoral

     Dissertation). University of Oregon, Eugene, OR.

Pascopella, A. (2008, February). State of the superintendendency. *District*

     *Administration,*32-36.

Pennsylvania School Boards Association. (2009). *Pa school directory*. Retrieved

     from http://www.psba.org/men.asp.

Pennsylvania Department of Education. (2010). *Pennsylvania education directory*.

Lebanon, PA: Applied Arts Publisher.

Rosener, J. (1990). Ways women lead. *Harvard Business Review, 68*(6), 119-25.

Shantz, D. (1995). Women supervisors have a greater understanding of what takes place

in classrooms than men. *Education, 116*(2), 210-215.

Sharp, W.L., Malone, B.G., Walter, J.K., & Supley, M.L., (2004, March). A three-state study

of female superintendents. *Education Research Quarterly, 27*(3). p. 22-37.

Sheehan, K. (2001, January). *E-mail survey response rates: A review*. School of Journalism

and Communication, University of Oregon. Retrieved

http://jcmc.indiana.edu/vol16/issue2/sheehan.html

Shriver, M. (2009). *The Shriver report: A woman's nation changes everything*.

Center for American Progress. Washington, DC.

Swiss, D., & Walker, J. (1994). *Women and the work/family dilemma: How today's

professional women are finding solutions*. NY: John Wiley & Sons.

Tannen, D. (1994). *Talking from 9 to 5: How women's and men's conversational styles

affect who gets heard, who gets credit, and what gets done at work*. New York: W.

Morrow.

Waldfogel, D. (1998). Understanding the 'family gap' in pay for women and children,

The Journal of Economic Perspectives, 12(1), 137-156.

Warrell, M., (2011). Can women do more to make their way to the top? [Washington Women's

Weekly]. *Women's Weekly*. Washington DC. Retrieved http://www.womensweekly-

wdc.com/2011/09/can-women-do-more-to-make-their-way-to-the-top.

Webster's New Collegiate Dictionary. (1975). Springfield, MA: G & C Merriam Co.

Wickham, D. (2008). Female *superintendents' perceived barriers and successful*

strategies used to attain the superintendency in California. Paper presented at the

annual meeting of the American Educational Research Association, New York, NY.

Wolverton, M. (1999). The school superintendency: Male bastion or equal opportunity?

Advancing Women in Leadership, *2*(2), 1-7.

Appendix A

Women in Education Questionnaire

I. Beliefs About Women's Issues In the Workplace

This section is concerned with the issues affecting the number of women in top-level administrative positions in education. Indicate whether you agree or disagree with each state and to what extent by circling the appropriate indicator.

> SA = Strongly Agree
> A = Agree
> U = Undecided
> D = Disagree
> SD = Strongly Disagree

1. Many women are seeking administrative positions in education. SA A U D SD

2. Women are supportive of other women in the profession. SA A U D SD

3. Women are perceived to be as powerful on the job as men. SA A U D SD

4. Women are more sensitive to people matters than men. SA A U D SD

5. Women are more concerned about process than the end result. SA A U D SD

6. Women are not as effective in their decision-making as men. SA A U D SD

7. Women are incapable of financial finesse. SA A U D SD

8. Women lack delegation skills. SA A U D SD

9. Career women are frequently torn between family and work responsibilities. SA A U D SD

10. Women often lack freedom of geographic mobility which impedes their career advancement. SA A U D SD

11. Women are frequently perceived in stereotyped roles. SA A U D SD

12. Women lack political savvy. SA A U D SD

13. Women work harder than men for less money SA A U D SD

14. Many women receive token placement at the assistant superintendent level. SA A U D SD

15. Women are more capable than men at managing team
    (Collaborative) work efforts.   SA A U D SD

16. Women in administration are more people-oriented than
    men in administration.   SA A U D SD

17. Women are not good mediators.   SA A U D SD

18. Women are good manipulators of people and the tasks that
    Need to be completed.   SA A U D SD

19. The "good 'ole boy" system is alive and well in educational
    administration.   SA A U D SD

20. Women are good organizers and can keep focused on what
    needs to be accomplished.   SA A U D SD

21. Women are more dedicated to the education of children than
    in doing what is politically advantageous.   SA A U D SD

22. Women value personal relationships more than power.   SA A U D SD

23. Women are more interested in process than pecking order. SA A U D SD

24. Innate gender differences account primarily for the ways men
    and women function on the job.   SA A U D SD

25. No amount of training or acculturation will make the genders
    think or administer alike.   SA A U D SD

II. Career Paths

A. Career Motives and Beliefs: Another important area of research deals with tracing women's paths to the top. Please respond to each of the following questions by circling one response or filling in the blank that best describes your personal experiences or perceptions.

1. When did you decide to become an administrator?
    a. As a child
    b. As an undergraduate student
    c. After several years as a teacher
    d. After my children were grown
    e. Other_____

2. What is the primary reason you decided to become an administrator?
    a. For career challenge and satisfaction
    b. For improved salary
    c. To make positive changes in education for young people
    d. Encouragement from others
    e. Other_____

3. Did you continue to work as you pursued the advanced degree?
    a. Yes—worked fulltime
    b. No—did not work
    c. Worked part-time

4. After you earned the necessary credentials, how long did it take you to get an administrative position?_____months/years

5. Did you get promoted to your first administrative position within the system in which you were currently employed at the time?
    a.   Yes—promoted within
    b. No—obtained position within the state
    c. No—obtained position out of state

6. How old were you when you got your fist administrative position?
    _____years

7. Have you ever assumed an administrative position that had never been held by a female?_____What was the position?_____

B. Professional Career Experiences: In order to have a complete picture of your career path to the top, it is important for a record of your professional experiences to be given.

1. Current Position:
       a. Title:_____

b. Type of District (check one) _____Rural;_____Urban;_____Suburban;

_____Other

c. District Enrollment #:_____

d. Why do you think you were hired for this position? Check all responses that apply.

_____Token female
_____Potential leadership qualities
_____Affirmative action compliance
_____Longevity
_____Best qualified for position in terms of experience
_____Best qualified for position in terms of formal preparation
_____Reward for loyalty
_____Next step in upward mobility (of positions)
_____Reward for hard work
_____Expert in community relations/good mediator
_____Effective manager
_____Other_____

C. Career-related barriers: In the evolution of your career, you may have encountered several obstacles in attaining your goals. With this in mind, please list or describe the major barriers you experienced in each of the following steps of your career.

1. Advancing in your career

2. Balancing family and career.

3. Encountering barriers that were gender-related.

D. Career Assessment: As you advanced your career you may have reflected on the costs and trials of traveling the path to the top. In this section, please respond by indicating whether you agree or disagree with each statement and to what extent by circling the appropriate indicator.

SA = Strongly Agree
A = Agree
U = Undecided
D = Disagree
SD = Strongly Disagree

1. I would pursue my career if I had to do it all over again. SA A U D SD

2. I feel I have had to make substantial personal sacrifices to
Advance my career. SA A U D SD

3. For the most part, I believe claims by women concerning
gender discrimination in educational administrators are
justified. SA A U D SD

4. I feel alienated or psychologically separated from the rest
of the immediate work group as a result of my executive
status. SA A U D SD

5. I feel that affirmative action laws have helped to open doors
for career advancement for me as a woman. SA A U D SD

6. I feel my femininity has been diminished as a result of my
career as an executive. SA A U D SD

7. I affiliate more with men than women on the job. SA A U D SD

8. I am comfortable with my level of power in the
organization. SA A U D SD

9. I feel my subordinates are comfortable with my power
in the organization. SA A U D SD

III.   **Significant Life Influences Affecting Your Career:**

1. Mentoring Behaviors: This section is designed to determine what types of supportive behaviors were most manifested by your mentor(s). Circle the response which best represents the degree to which your mentor exhibited the following behaviors.

AA - Almost Always
F - Frequently
ST - Sometimes
S - Seldom
AN - Almost Never

   BEHAVIORS

a.	Teaching	AA	F	ST	S	AN
b.	Guiding	AA	F	ST	S	AN
c.	Advising and counseling	AA	F	ST	S	AN
d.	Sponsoring (opening doors, providing					
	Opportunities	AA	F	ST	S	AN
e.	Role modeling (exemplar)	AA	F	ST	S	AN
f.	Validating (reassuring)	AA	F	ST	S	AN
g.	Motivating (encouraging growth					
	And risk-taking)	AA	F	ST	S	AN
h.	Protecting (defending, admonishing,					
	Buffering)	AA	F	ST	S	AN
i.	Communicating (responding, listening,					
	Informing	AA	F	ST	S	AN
j.	Being subtle and not expecting credit					
	(quietly supportive)	AA	F	ST	S	AN
k.	Other_____	AA	F	ST	S	AN

A. Have you ever been a mentor to someone in the profession?
   1. Yes
   2. No

B. Are you part of a strong network of supportive women in the profession?
   1. Yes
   2. No, don't see a need for it.
   3. No, but would like to be.

C. Please describe any additional influences that you feel significantly contributed to your career attainment. Briefly explain how.

IV.   Leadership Characteristics

A. Compared to your male counterparts in similar positions, do you feel that you are MORE, SAME, or LESS as they in each of the following attributes?
   Circle your chosen response:

1. Aggressive		More	Less	Same
2. Competitive		More	Less	Same
3. Verbally oriented		More	Less	Same
4. Spatially oriented		More	Less	Same
5. Cooperative		More	Less	Same
6. Motivate by power		More	Less	Same
7. Concerned about personal relationships	More	Less	Same
8. Career oriented		More	Less	Same
9. Family oriented		More	Less	Same
10. Androgynous		More	Less	Same

B.   Compared to other females in general, do you feel that you are MORE, SAME, or LESS as they in each of these attributes? Circle your chosen response.

1. Aggressive		More	Less	Same
2. Competitive		More	Less	Same
3. Verbally oriented		More	Less	Same
4. Spatially oriented		More	Less	Same
5. Cooperative		More	Less	Same
6. Motivate by power		More	Less	Same
7. Concerned about personal relationships	More	Less	Same
8. Career oriented		More	Less	Same
9. Family oriented		More	Less	Same
10. Androgynous		More	Less	Same

C. Please comment briefly on whether you believe women have as much leadership potential as men:

_____
_____
_____
_____

V.   Demographics

The information requested below will assist us in ascertaining data that are highly pertinent to the overall questionnaire. Please fill in the blank or circle the letter of your response to each of the following questions. Thank you for your assistance in this area.

A. Personal Data
1. Race_____   Ethnic origin_____

2. Marital Status: (circle the appropriate response)

        a. Married   b. Single   c. Divorced   d. Widowed

3. Children: _____   Ages:_____

B. Community Affiliations (current)

 1. Community type: Circle the word that best describes the type of   community in which you live.   a. rural b. urban c. suburban

C. Family and Relationships

    1. Spouse (fill in the blank)
        a. Current job_____
        b. Level of education_____

    2. Your siblings (fill in the blank)
        a. No. of children in family _____
        b. No. of brothers_____
        c. No. of sisters_____
        d. Your position in the family: (circle appropriate response)
            1. Oldest
            2. Middle
            3. Youngest
            4. Only child

Please Consider: We realize that through personal interaction, valuable information could surface in relation to the issues addressed in this questionnaire. Therefore we are suggesting the possibility of personal interviews. Please response to the following query.

A. Would you be interested in being interviewed concerning the issues presented in this questionnaire? If so, please indicate your preference in facilitating a possible interview by circling the appropriate number

1. Name - _____
2. Telephone interview – Phone # (   ) _____
3. Face to face Interview—Date preferred_____
4. Other_____

VI.   Final Comments

A. The following is a list of the more frequent explanations for women's lack of equitable representation in education administration. Please react by prioritizing them in rank order from #1 (most important reason) to #5 (least important reason.)

_____ a. Women's lack of aspiration to top-level administrative posts
_____ b. Innate, biologically programmed differences in how the sexes think, what they value, and how they function.
_____ c. Cultural stereotyping of "appropriate roles" for men and women
_____ d. Insufficient role-modeling, networking, and mentoring among women.
_____ e. Inadequate training and educational opportunity

B.   Please share your best advice to other women aspiring to positions similar to yours.

I sincerely thank you for your time and effort to complete this questionnaire in a candid and timely manner. We are hopeful that the data collected will serve to assist all women in educational administration as well as those aspiring to be administrators in the profession.

Appendix B

Gupton & Slick's Survey No. 2

Follow-up to previous survey, Education's Women Administrators: Their Paths to the Top

The interview will consist of four parts including Demographics, position information, vita or resume and interview questions to assist with the reflection of your success story.
Demographics

Name_____

Address (Work)_____

_____

Telephone Number
Work_____

Home_____

Fax No's_____

e-mail_____

I.   Position Information

Name of District_____

Address_____

_____

Position Title_____

Years of Service in present position_____

Years of Service in present position_____

Current Annual Salary_____

Degrees, Institutions, Dates:

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

_____ _____ _____

No. of Hours on Job per week_____

Age when first in administrative position_____

Years of Teaching prior to assuming administrative position_____

Level of Teaching_____

II. Please enclose a copy of your vita or resume.

III. Your Success Story

The purpose of our proposed book is to give a few successful women school administrators the opportunity to share your stories of professional achievement with others. We are particularly interested in your personal account of how you made it to a top-level position in education. Please make your story as personal and poignant as possible so that others will be able to identify with and be encouraged by your struggles and triumphs.

Below are several prompts to assist you in reflecting on your story:

Chronicle of your path to the top
Experiences with preparation programs in ed. Administration
Your experiences (as a student) with school in general…particularly relating to the females' perspective
Personal and professional landmarks
Highest and lowest moments or times
Best and worst experiences
Sources of strength and motivation
How women's status has changed since you entered the profession
Barriers encountered
Role models, mentors, or sponsors
Your experiences compared to male counterparts
Any accommodations or compromises you feel you have had to make because you gender (personal and professional)
Strategies to improve communication between the genders
Specific mentoring strategies
Personal leadership style…how acquired?...how it enhances, impedes job performance?...any differences based on gender?
Advice for women aspiring to educational administration
Advice for men, women, organizations, and political leaders to improve gender relations and insure equitable treatment of men and women
What you would do differently in pursing your career
Any regrets
Future career plans

Holly Morrison
1013 Market Street
Berwick, PA 18603

Appendix C

Letter Requesting Permission to use the Survey

-----Original Message-----
From: Holly Morrison [mailto:hmorrison@berwicksd.org]
Sent: Mon 8/24/2009 9:51 PM
To: Gupton, Sandra
Subject: FW:

Good Morning Dr. Gupton

My name is Holly Morrison and I am the Director of Curriculum in the Berwick Area School District in Berwick, Pennsylvania, and I am a doctoral student at East Stroudsburg University in conjunction with Indiana University of Pennsylvania. I began my doctoral program four years ago and have completed my three years of classes and am working on my dissertation. My experience has provided me the opportunity to serve as a teacher, guidance counselor, principal, and director of curriculum in all three levels of education. I also serve as an adjunct professor for several local colleges. I am married and have two teen-age children one with special needs and one ready to drive--I am not sure which one gives me more gray hair!

I came upon your book and was truly moved since my passion was studying and researching issues with gender and leadership. Of all the research I had read, yours and Dr. Slick's was by far the most inspirational. In my cohort of classmates, I was one of six women in a class of twenty five and the only current female administrator. I quickly became the one who was always being asked to respond through feminine eyes.

My reason for contacting you is two-fold. I was actually wondering if you are aware of any other research conducted since yours? I can't help but wonder if anything has changed since 1996 when your book was published. The lessons presented as told by you and Dr. Slick certainly celebrated female leadership through insightful, interesting, and emotional stories. Of all the literature that I have read, I was most moved by your book.

I have contemplated my research question until I was blue in the face and finally I have one. In its most simplistic terms, my question is "Have things changed over the last ten years?" I am wondering what the possibility would be for me to replicate your study in Pennsylvania. Would you be kind enough to tell me the process for which I should go through to request permission to use your survey questionnaire if that is even an option. Any guidance that you might give to me would most definitely be appreciated and valued.

Thank you for your time and consideration of this request. I look forward to hearing from you.

This message (including any attachments) is intended only for
the use of the individual or entity to which it is addressed and

Appendix D

Letter of Permission to use Survey

Hi Holly,

   What a wonderful surprise to receive your note of affirmation for our book and study. Your timing is really good, actually. I have just returned from a week's conference in Oxford, England, where the focus was Women's Careers. It was a wonderful opportunity for me to revisit the study that Slick and I conducted back in 1993. My presentation there was a paper of reflection on that study and what has changed since then and now. I wish we could sit and chat about this topic and our views, my recent data on it. I am delighted that you'd like to focus your study on revisiting and using parts of our study. I think it would be most timely. I fear some major issues need addressing for women in leadership today, and I don't see much written about it anymore.

Bottom line, yes . . .feel free to use and adapt any part of our study as you see fit. All you need to do is reference us in the credits. And, I'd love to hear from you as you progress.

I am taking a leave of absence from UNF this year to do some work at Sam Houston State University in Texas, so just now I'm in tailspin trying to adjust to a new setting, new assignment. You can reach me now at either the address at UNF which is this one, or the one here at SHSU, SLG037@shsu.edu. My office phone is 936-294-3346. I look forward to hearing more from you.

Very best wishes,

Sandra

Sandra Lee Gupton, Ed.D.
Professor of Educational Leadership
Department of Educational Leadership, Counseling, and Technology College of Education & Human Services University of North Florida Schultz Building #9 UNF 1 Jacksonville, FL 32224 Office Phone: 904 620 1747 Home Phone: 904 220 4446

Appendix E

Letter of Introduction for Survey No. 1

November 1, 2010

Dear Colleague:

Please allow me the opportunity to introduce myself. My name is Holly Morrison, and I am a doctoral candidate with East Stroudsburg University. I am very excited to begin the process of collecting data for my dissertation where I am replicating a study conducted in 1996 around the topic of female leaders in Public education.

Currently I am the Director of Curriculum in the Berwick Area School District, and I know how many requests you receive each year for participation in doctoral dissertations. Please say "yes" to mine.

The purpose of this study is to replicate a study that was completed in 1992-1993 and published in 1996 in a textbook, <u>Highly Successful Women Administrators: The Inside Stories of How they Got There</u> by Sandra Lee Gupton and Gloria Appelt Slick. More than ten years has passed since the results of that study were shared. This current study will again gather information about other women's experiences in their quest to acquiring leadership positions in education and determining what has changed since 1996.

Enclosed for your review is the link to the electronic survey which was originated from Sandra Gupton and Gloria Slick. This study will entail two phases with the first being a survey of 300 selected Pennsylvania top-level administrators in the public school system. The women surveyed will hold positions as superintendents, assistant superintendents, and high school principals, which are perceived to be the power positions in public school according to Gupton & Slick. The questionnaire solicits information women administrators' experiences with and the perceptions about their ascent to the top. Would you please take fifteen minutes to complete the survey?

The second phase of the study will be to present twenty five current female superintendents with the opportunity to be interviewed utilizing a second survey to generate a reflection of their ascent to the top. Those superintendents who agree to participate in the interview will be able to share their stories more thoroughly and will have the opportunity to express their willingness in this first survey.

You may reach me at 570 759-6400 Ext 3517 so that I may answer any questions you might have regarding this research. Would you please be kind enough to e-mail me at the address below indicating your participation in the study? I would like to thank you in advance for responding to this letter of request.

Respectfully yours,

M. Holly Morrison
hmorrison@berwicksd.org

http://www.berwicksd.org/169310824212649870/blank/browse.asp?A=383&BMDRN=2000&BCOB=0&C=54969

Name_____

School_____

Telephone Number_____

Theme	Question	Answer
Preparation	Please tell me about your path to your most current position.	
Preparation	What has your experiences with preparation programs in educational administration….Your experiences (as a student) with school in general…particularly relating to the females' perspective?	
Perseverance, Diligence, Professionalism	What were your personal and professional landmarks?	
Perseverance, Diligence, Professionalism	What have been your highest and lowest moments or times in your ascent to your current position? or What have been your best and worst experiences?	
Perseverance, Diligence, Professionalism	What are your sources of strength and motivation?	
	What barriers have you encountered along the way?	

Evolution of issues related to leadership shift with gender	How have women's status changed since you entered this profession?	
Evolution of issues related to leadership shift with gender	What do you think your experiences have been compared to your male counterparts?	
Evolution of issues related to leadership shift with gender	Do you think you have had to make any accommodations or compromises because of your gender (personal and professional)?	
Evolution of issues related to leadership shift with gender	What strategies do you use to improve communication between the genders	
Evolution of issues related to leadership shift with gender	What is your advice for men, women, organizations, and political leaders to improve gender relations and insure equitable treatment of men and women?	
Mentoring	Who have been your role models, mentors, or sponsors?	
Mentoring	Do you have specific mentoring strategies?	
Leadership	What is your personal leadership style…how was it acquired?...how does it enhance or impede your job performance? Are there any differences based on gender?	
Lead by Example	What is your advice for women aspiring to educational administration?	

Personal	What would do differently in pursing your career?	
Personal	Do you have any regrets?	
Personal	What are your future career plans?	

Appendix G

Follow up E-mail to 300 Participants

Greetings Fellow Colleagues

At the beginning of this month you received a letter requesting your participation in a study focusing on Female Leaders in Education. There was information in that e-mail that discussed the contents of my doctoral dissertation and the survey that I was hoping could be completed. Thank you to all that were able to take the time to complete the survey. To date I have received 70. In order for my study to be validated, I need 151 responses to the electronic survey. With all of your busy schedules, I know these requests can fall on the back burner. The original request with the link for the survey can be found below to complete the on-line survey. It will take about 10 minutes. Thanks again to all of you--I look forward to contacting those of you interested for the second phase of the study. I will be in touch soon.

November 1, 2010

Dear Colleague:

Please allow me the opportunity to introduce myself. My name is Holly Morrison, and I am a doctoral candidate with East Stroudsburg University. I am very excited to begin the process of collecting data for my dissertation where I am replicating a study conducted in 1996 around the topic of female leaders in Public education.

Currently I am the Director of Curriculum in the Berwick Area School District, and I know how many requests you receive each year for participation in doctoral dissertations. Please say "yes" to mine.

The purpose of this study is to replicate a study that was completed in 1992-1993 and published in 1996 in a textbook, <u>Highly Successful Women Administrators: The Inside Stories of How they Got There</u> by Sandra Lee Gupton and Gloria Appelt Slick. More than ten years has passed since the results of that study were shared. This current study will again gather information about other women's experiences in their quest to acquiring leadership positions in education and determining what has changed since 1996.

Enclosed for your review is the link to the electronic survey which was originated from Sandra Gupton and Gloria Slick. This study will entail two phases with the first being a survey of 300 selected Pennsylvania top-level administrators in the public school system. The women surveyed will hold positions as superintendents, assistant superintendents, and high school principals, which are perceived to be the power positions in public school according to Gupton & Slick. The questionnaire solicits information women administrators' experiences with and the perceptions about their ascent to the top. Would you please take fifteen minutes and complete the survey?

The second phase of the study will be to present twenty five current female superintendents with the opportunity to be interviewed utilizing a second survey to generate a reflection of their ascent to the top. Those superintendents who agree to participate in the interview will be able to share their stories more thoroughly and will have the opportunity to express their willingness in this first survey.

You may reach me at 570 759-6400 Ext 3517 so that I may answer any questions you might have regarding this research. Would you please be kind enough to e-mail me at the address below indicating your participation in the study? I would like to thank you in advance for responding to this letter of request.

Respectfully yours,

M. Holly Morrison
hmorrison@berwicksd.org

http://www.berwicksd.org/169310824212649870/blank/browse.asp?A=383&BMDRN=2000&BCOB=0&C=54969

Good Morning and welcome to the COLD season:

I hope that you are still interested in being interviewed for my study. As you may remember, you completed a survey right before Christmas regarding Women in Education. I am writing to begin making arrangements for the second phase of the study.

The purpose of this study is to determine the reasons for the continued under-representation of women in top-level educational positions, and how the issues may have changed since the early nineties when Gupton & Slick completed their study. Investigating this topic again in the 21st century, data should provide information to facilitate better understanding about whether the same obstacles and barriers from the early nineties still exist, and how—in the experiences and perceptions of female leaders in education today—they may have changed in the last fifteen years.

This study is a replication of one conducted nationwide in 1993 and published in 1996 and will provide new information about other women's experiences in their quest to acquire leadership positions in education. This information will be shared with participants if requested and hopefully other females aspiring to administration in education through the researcher's dissertation.

Participation in this study is completely voluntary. Participants may discontinue or withdraw from this study at any time. There is minimal risk to participating in this study and there is no cost.

You have indicated that you would like the interview to occur by telephone, or that it didn't matter which venue we used. Would you please review the options below and select a date and time that is most appropriate for your schedule; I will call you at the number you send to me with your choice of date and time. The interview will take approximately thirty minutes. If there is a better date and time to talk, please let me know and I will make other arrangements.

February 11, 2011 (time slots are as follows)

8:30-9:15
9:45-10:30
10:45-11:30
12:15-1:00
2:00-2:45
3:15-4:00
4:15--5:00
5:30--6:15
6:30--7:15

February 17, 2011 (time slots are as follows)

12:00-12:45
1:00-1:45
2:00-2:45
3:00-3:45
4:00-4:45
5:00-5:45

February 25, 2011 (time slots are as follows)

8:30-9:15
9:45-10:30
10:45-11:30
12:15-1:00
2:00-2:45
3:15-4:00
4:15--5:00
5:30--6:15
6:30--7:15

In addition there is an attachment which is a request for you to consent to the participation in this interview process. I wanted to forward a copy for your review. Would you be kind enough to sign the document and send it back to me. You can either sign it and scan it and send it back via e-mail or print the document, sign, and send it back in post office mail—I will reimburse the postage. The address would be:

Holly Morrison
1013 market Street
Berwick, PA 18603

Appendix I

Follow up E-mail Sent on February 2, 2011 to Superintendents
Requesting Interview Dates and Times

Hello to all—

Thank goodness the groundhog did not see his shadow! I wanted to update you on the times that are available now on the dates listed below. If these times do not work, please e-mail me and I will make arrangements that fit with your schedule.

February 11 at 12:15

February 17, 2011 (time slots are as follows)

12:00-12:45
1:00-1:45
2:00-2:45
3:00-3:45
4:00-4:45
5:00-5:45

February 25, 2011

8:30
10:45
12:15
2:00
3:15
4:15

Appendix J

Thank You Letter Following Telephone Interview

February 17, 2011

Mrs.
Coudersport Area School District
698 Dwight Street
Coudersport PA 16915

Dear:

I wanted to take this opportunity to say thank you for participating in my dissertation study. I truly enjoyed our conversation on Friday and wanted to share my appreciation with you. It was exciting to hear everyone's stories and to learn of the similarities and differences between each of the superintendents I interviewed.

Coudersport is lucky to have you at the helm. There is no doubt that your instructional leadership is valued and that you will leave your mark with the school community. I have no doubt that your leadership team has much to learn from you and that you serve as a great mentor.

I certainly hope that our paths will cross again sometime soon. In the meantime, thank you again for your time and commitment to helping me with my interviews. I hope that the rest of your year is great. Good luck with the PSSA's and all your future endeavors.

Respectfully,

M. Holly Morrison

Appendix K

Women in Education Questionnaire Instruction Protocol

1) Send letter of introduction (Appendix E) to the 144 superintendents identified by
   PSBA in their School Directory

2) Study is explained in the letter which will be forwarded on to other females in those districts
by their superintendent

3) Identify females in assistant superintendent positions and high school principals in school
district that are not governed by women to send a letter of request for survey completion

4) The survey has been imported into electronic survey tool for ease of the respondent.

Appendix L

Women in education survey No 2 instruction protocol for interview

1. Call Superintendent to confirm participation in the second phase of the study and decide on a date and time for a face to face interview or a telephone interview.
2. Define rationale (as read from abstract)
3. Explain the benefits to the superintendent
4. Explain the potential risks to superintendent
5. Explain withdraw or discontinue at any time of interview of superintendent
6. Superintendents shall bear no expense in this research study
7. Explain the protocol for interview and the time expected to complete the interview
8. Ask superintendents if they have any questions or need clarification

Appendix M

Male/Female Superintendent Breakdown by County in Pennsylvania

County	Male	Female	Total
Adams	5	0	5
Allegheny	30	13	43
Armstrong	3	1	4
Beaver	13	2	15
Bedford	5	0	5
Berks	15	3	18
Blair	6	1	7
Bradford	5	2	7
Bucks	9	4	13
Butler	5	2	7
Cambria	7	5	12
Cameron	1	0	1
Carbon	2	3	5
Centre	3	1	4
Chester	7	5	12
Clarion	5	2	7
Clearfield	7	2	9
Clinton	1	0	1
Columbia	5	1	6
Crawford	3	0	3
Cumberland	3	6	9
Dauphin	5	5	10
Delaware	10	5	15
Elk	3	0	3
Erie	10	3	13
Fayette	6	0	6
Forrest	1	0	1
Franklin	4	1	5
Fulton	2	1	3
Greene	3	2	5
Huntingdon	3	1	4
Indiana	4	3	7
Jefferson	2	1	3
Juniata	1	0	1
Lackawanna	8	2	10
Lancaster	12	4	16
Lawrence	5	3	8
Lebanon	3	2	5
Lehigh	5	4	9

Luzerne	10	1	11
Lycoming	4	4	8
McKean	3	2	5
Mercer	10	2	12
Mifflin	1	0	1
Monroe	3	1	4
Montgomery	15	7	22
Montour	0	1	1
Northampton	4	4	8
Northumberland	5	1	6
Perry	3	1	4
Philadelphia	1	0	1
Pike	0	1	1
Potter	5	0	5
Schuylkill	8	4	12
Snyder	2	0	2
Somerset	8	3	11
Sullivan	0	1	1
Susquehanna	6	0	6
Tioga	3	0	3
Union	2	0	2
Venango	4	1	5
Warren	1	0	1
Washington	8	6	14
Wayne	3	0	3
Westmoreland	10	7	17
Wyoming	2	0	2
York	8	7	15
TOTAL	355	144	500

Appendix N

Qualitative Interviews—Coding for Participants

Participant Code	Age	Marital Status	Children	Race	Geographic Region	Enrollment
Superintendent 1	60-	Married	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	3,001-4,999
Superintendent 2	60-	Married	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	1,001-3,000
Superintendent 3	40-49	Married	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	Under 1000
Superintendent 4	50-59	Single	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	1,001-3,000
Superintendent 5	30-39	Married	No	Caucasian	Rural	Under 1,000
Superintendent 6	50-59	Married	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	1,001-3,000
Superintendent 7	50-59	Married	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	1,001-3,000
Superintendent 8	50-59	Separated	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	1,001-3,000
Superintendent 9	60-	Married	No	Caucasian	Suburban	1,001-3,000
Superintendent 10	50-59	Married	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	1,001-3,000
Superintendent 11	40-49	Single	No	Caucasian	Suburban	5,000-10,000
Superintendent 12	30-39	Married	No	Caucasian	Suburban	5,000-10,000
Superintendent 13	50-59	Divorced	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	1,001-3,000
Superintendent 14	50-59	Married	Yes	Caucasian	Rural	1,001-3,000