

**MUNICIPAL INFORMATICS: AN ANALYSIS OF FEMALE AND
MALE CITY MANAGER SURVEY RESPONSES PERTAINING
TO SOCIAL DEMOGRAPHICS, PREPARATION
AND SOCIAL NETWORKS**

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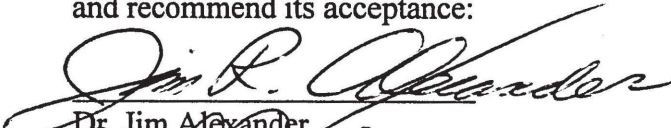
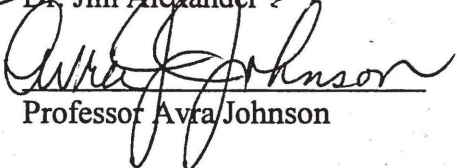
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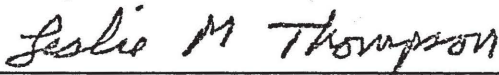
I am submitting herewith a thesis written by Lisa N. Kealer entitled "Municipal Informatics: An Analysis of Male and Female City Manager Survey Responses Pertaining to Social Demographics, Preparation and Social Networks." I have examined this thesis for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Master of Arts, with a major in Government.


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Municipal Informatics: An Analysis of Female and Male City Manager
Survey Responses Pertaining to Social Demographics,
Preparation and Social Networks

Lisa N. Kealer
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City managers are increasingly influential policy makers in a growing number of cities. While men have traditionally held the position, there is now an adequate cohort of female city managers to study. A questionnaire was sent to all female city managers in the United States, a set of female assistant city managers and a selected matched number of male city managers and assistant managers. The study compares social demographics, perceived adequacy of educational preparation and mentor relationships and perceived access to information and social networks.

This study identifies several differences among male and female city managers. Women in city management are younger and better educated than the average man in the same job. They have been with their present employer a similar number of years as their male counterparts, but are being paid less. Women are dramatically more conscious of gender in job performance and confident of the positive traits they contribute, as females, to the position of city manager. Whether or not these traits, in fact, exist or are gender related is not explored by this study, but the findings do reveal a perception of gender

differences and self worth. The women surveyed understand that it is connections and informal networks that fuel promotion and job performance, but do not perceive a women's network.

Beyond the obvious academic interest in city government and gender studies, the findings may prove relevant to: municipalities as they attempt to improve organizational policies and communication processes; universities, who may enhance curriculum based on the research findings; and women who are interested in exploring the nature of their networks and considering the implications for social network enhancement.

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INTRODUCTION

In recent years, increasing attention has been devoted to the occupational status of American women, so that an increasing amount is known about female employment and parameters women encounter such as, career opportunities and barriers (Adler and Izraeli, 1988; Bergman, 1986; Ragins and Sundstrom, 1989). But research on the occupational standing of women has almost invariably dealt with the private sector. What information is available about female public employment focuses on the federal and state level (Barber and Kellerman, 1986; Bayes, 1985; Bullard and Wright, 1993; Col, 1985; Flamming, 1984; Gay, 1994). Less is known about the employment of women in county and local governments, although in the past decade, more research has been conducted in this area (Kelly et al., 1991; Hochstedler et al., 1984; U.S. EEOC, 1990). Yet, even in the current literature, little attention has been given to the role of women as managers in the municipal government arena. This study begins to fill the research need by examining factors affecting the progress of women as city managers.

CHANGING ROLE OF THE CITY MANAGER

The recent trend in American politics has been to place additional pressures and responsibilities on municipal entities. As a result of this growth in federal and state mandates and expectations, local governments play an increasingly important role in service delivery. The city manager, as the chief executive officer of a municipal

organization, is in the pivotal position for initiating and implementing public policy at the local level (Svara, 1989).

Over the past seventy-five years, the city manager's role has evolved to reflect shifts in community policies and the changing needs of cities in general. For example, when cities were developing sewers and streets, city managers were recruited from the ranks of civil engineers. Today's managers are very different from their engineering predecessors because the political environment in today's communities has changed. Revenue shortfalls, special-interest politics, intergovernmental relations, mass media coverage and demographic shifts have altered the dynamics of contemporary local government and the role and expectations of local government professionals (Nalbanian, 1989). Current city managers may have a degree in business and most have a masters degree in public administration. He or she has probably worked in several cities, beginning with an internship and advancing to the position of city manager.

According to Nalbanian (1989), to fulfill these new duties, contemporary managers require a high level of managerial skills, problem-solving ability, interpersonal sensitivity, tolerance for ambiguity, and willingness to accept responsibility. The International City Management Association (ICMA) conducted surveys in 1973 (Huntley and MacDonald) and in 1984 (Green), comparing policy-related activities of managers over a period of time. In 1973, 1,687 city managers and chief administrative officers were asked how often they: (a) participate in the formulation of municipal policy, (b)

play a leading role in policy making, and (c) initiate municipal policies. The results indicate substantial involvement of managers in the policy-making process, including the initiation of public policy.

Several other studies examine the changing and expanding role of city managers. In a study of more than 500 municipal executives, Newell and Ammons (1987) found that 61.6 percent of the city managers indicated that their "most important" role involved policy and politics. Administrative activities were "most important" for only 38.5 percent. Renner (1989) provides additional evidence for the recent emphasis of political skills of a manager. He surveyed over six hundred local government managers and found that seventy-five percent of these managers reported that they "always" participate in the formulation of city policy.

Research (Hinton and Kerrigan, 1989; Hale, 1989) reinforces the hypothesis that a significant dimension of the manager's job involves coordinating and negotiating. In 1987-88, Hinton and Kerrigan surveyed 478 city managers and the skills rated as most important were: situational analysis, i.e., "sizing up" the community political milieu, organization and human resource management; assessing community needs; interpersonal skills; and bargaining, negotiating and other consensus-seeking techniques. Least important skills were those connected with the "nuts and bolts" administrative aspects of the manager's job. The study implied that communication skills, political savvy and ability to persuade others are critical skills for today's managers. Several

studies have also found that city managers behave as policy entrepreneurs, creating and developing policy initiatives (Morgan and Watson, 1992; Teske and Schneider, 1994).

These findings regarding the expanding role of the city manager position, necessitate a better understanding of the role of women as city managers and the increasing attention on women in decision-making positions. This paper examines current studies relating to women in government, addressing social demographics and social networks. Second, the research procedures are outlined and the questionnaire results analyzed. Last, conclusions and recommendations for future research are provided.

CHAPTER ONE

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

This paper specifically addresses female and male managers in the context of social demographics, educational preparation and influence, and social networks. The literature review will include three specific areas: first, an overview of women in local government; second, the role of gender in decisions made by men and women at work; and third, the importance of social networks in job preparation and career development.

A. FEMALE PARTICIPATION IN GOVERNMENT

A review of the literature pertaining to women in local government reveals that while great strides have been made by women in the last twenty years, few formal works have been written regarding that progress. The number of women city managers increased from seven in 1971 to more than one hundred in 1986, according to an article by James Slack in *Public Administration Review*. By 1994, that number had climbed to three hundred and seventy-nine. However, the number of localities selecting the council-manager form of government has also increased. For example, International City Management Association's (ICMA) Municipal Yearbook data reveal that between 1986 and 1994 the number of communities in the United States choosing the council-manager form of government increased from 2,680 to 2,962. If the amount of job opportunities has increased because more localities are seeking professional administrators, it would

seem that the number of women achieving the public manager's job should also increase. That, however, has not happened (Szymborski, 1996).

The percentage of women managers in the United States has not changed significantly in the past decade, according to data assembled by ICMA. For the 1987 Municipal Yearbook, ICMA surveyed 7,046 localities. Out of 4,644 officials designated as holding chief administrative officer or city manager position, 10.6 percent were women. A similar survey for the 1995 Year Book showed that out of 3,403 officials assigned top administrative duties, 11.1 percent were female. The small percentage of cities employing female city managers may account for the relatively few studies conducted regarding women as city managers (ICMA, 1987).

There have been, however, a number of studies written regarding women in government service at various levels. According to Kelly et al. (1991), studies are available regarding the structure of state salary systems in the fifty states (Lawther et al., 1989); loyalty and commitment to the public service at the state and local levels (Fox, 1997); career advancement information for men and women in federal employment (Lewis, 1992); and the integration of women in managerial ranks in the state of Oregon (Bremer and Howe, 1988). To date, however, relatively little attention has been paid to women in municipal government. Even less has been paid to female city managers.

These studies indicate that women in government bring a unique perspective to these traditionally male-dominated roles. The studies also indicate that women place a

high value on knowledge and preparation as an essential part of their obligation to the public. While the women surveyed in the majority of these studies held federal and state positions, these findings are also applicable to women in city manager positions.

Examples of municipal government studies are Lewis and Nice (1991), Renner (1990) and Saltzstein (1986). Stewart's anthology *Women in Local Politics* (1980) is one of the earliest regarding local government. It features cases pertaining to city councils (Mezey and Merritt, 1980) and commissions on the status of women (Stewart, 1980).

Two articles which review the literature regarding the recruitment, attitudes and behavior of female office holders in local and state government include *Women in Local Government*, written by Denise Antolini (1984) and *Women in State Politics: An Assessment*, written by Marianne Githens (1977). Antolini discusses the impact of local female officials on public policy and politics. She analyzes women's impact on the governing process and the practice of representation. Next, she considers the evidence for the influence of elected women on public policy. Finally, she examines the access of non-elected women to positions of power. Antolini examines assumptions that have been suggested in earlier writings, that women in power would have a radical effect on politics as they apply in today's world of politics. Her overview analyzes the influence of female office holders at the city and county levels of government, representing the most rapidly changing context for women's political experiences. She found that the women's

attitudes and behavior indicate a “growing liberal and feminist influence on this traditional bastion of male power.” (p. 40)

Other studies which shed light on women in local politics include: Susan Mezy's (1978) study of fifty female (and a corresponding sample of 50 male) Connecticut council members from 1976 to 1977 and the survey of council members in 1991 by Boles. In this study, Boles selected six stereotypical “women’s issues” and surveyed both men and women city council members on the importance those issues played in prioritizing their legislative agenda. Boles found that women were more likely to place issues of day care, domestic violence and sexual assault on their legislative agenda than their male counterparts. Schumaker and Barnes (1988) studied randomly selected issues that were before the city council of Lawrence, Kansas. They found evidence of a gender split between members of the city council on twenty of thirty various community issues. For example, issues surrounding economic development consistently received more attention from male council members than female council members. Women were more supportive than men of neighborhood preservation and social welfare programs. The issues analyzed are human relations issues and therefore not confined only to women in elected positions. Rather, the findings are relevant to women in general, regardless of job selection, job appointment or election.

Most studies which highlight the contrast of social demographics of men and women in government service emphasize salaries, education and family status. The

literature regarding these issues can be found pertaining to men and women at various levels in government (federal, state, county and local) and address aspects of career development, advancement opportunities and barriers to promotions.

Laura Vertz (1985) found that men tend to work their way up through the ranks, whereas women have entered at higher levels in the organization at a younger age with experience gained from work outside the organization. Bullard and Wright (1993) studied the career paths of men and women state executives. They state that the common perception of career advancement to the top of an agency is by spending many years working at lower levels in the organization and a gradual but progressive rise to the top post. This pattern, however, for both women and men, is the exception rather than the rule in state administrative agencies. For men, only forty percent succeeded to the top post from a subordinate position in the agency. For women executives, the proportions are somewhat less, roughly one-third. In short, they found that more women than men come in as agency outsiders to head state administrative units.

According to Guy (1992), there is no empirical evidence that women are promoted over qualified men, but there is evidence to show that women are fast-tracked when compared to men. Women are promoted from one position to another in less time than men. Women also tend to be younger and have fewer years of service within each position they have held, as contrasted with men.

In research addressing specific aspects of career advancement for men and women, "advancement" has commonly been operationalized according to salary. Research has consistently found significant disparities between the salaries of working men and women in similar positions, with women having the lower salary (Corzine et al., 1994; Stroh et al., 1992). Often these differences are found even when controlling for education, experience, age and performance (Cox and Harquail, 1991). To attempt to explain these salary differences, researchers have considered the influence of multiple roles. The theory states there is a relationship between the number of roles and gender, whereby marriage and parenthood are associated with higher salaries for men but lower salaries for women (Cooney and Uhlenberg, 1991).

An illusion of equality has been presented by government and corporations alike in an attempt to prove the glass ceiling, a tangible and intangible barrier to women's advancement, no longer exists. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 provided that equal pay should be received for equal work, regardless of gender. However, laws can easily be sidestepped by organizations. The gender gap in wages is evident today and has remained constant over the past fifty years (Unger and Crawford, 1992). According to Soloman (1990), women in middle management positions make approximately \$.66 for every \$1.00 made by men. Women receive fewer promotions and are considered to be "stuck in jobs with little authority and relatively low pay" (Morrison and Von Glinow, 1990). Organizations rationalize discrimination by saying men "deserve" more because

they are the traditional “breadwinners,” or by giving similar jobs different titles as a basis for pay differences (Bateman and Zeithaml, 1987). Many companies justify paying females lower wages for the economic reasons that women will terminate their employment sooner than men and are less likely to provide a return on the company’s recruitment and training costs (Guy and Lovelace, 1992). Women often are not offered the same training, development and experiences as men of equal status (Catalyst, 1992). This decreases their chance of receiving promotions when compared to others, and therefore women are worth less from a cost-benefit standpoint. However, research does not support the idea that women terminate their employment sooner than men or cost organizations more money in training and recruitment (Soloman, 1990).

Lewis and Nice (1991) reported on 1987 wage disparities between men and women in administrative and professional occupations in state and local governments. The salary difference was approximately twenty percentage points. That is, women in these positions earned about eighty percent of male salaries. Kelly et al. (1991) studied career advancement for men and women in managerial positions in state government in Alabama, Arizona, Texas and Wisconsin and found that salary differences were evident. Women always made less money than men, but the Kelly study found the salary gap between the men and women is narrowing.

Stanley's (1987) study of Texas state employees by gender and job status revealed patterns of gender inequity similar to those of other states and the federal government.

Her study revealed that domestic constraints, i.e., home and family responsibilities continue to impede women's career advancement more than that of men. The tendency of women to accept greater child, spouse, parent, and home responsibilities than men usually results in one or more of the following consequences for women's careers: reduction in time devoted to career (Bayes, 1985; Polacheck, 1975); reduction in job opportunities, flexibility and risk taking (Col, 1985; Epstein, 1970); increase in stress (Hall and Hall, 1980; Nelson and Quick, 1984) and reduction in wages and financial resources available for job related training (Men, 1986).

Stanley writes that women with high levels of earnings, education and commitment to their careers in public service are less likely than other women to be married and more likely to be divorced. Conversely, women at lower levels of education, job status and earnings tend to have greater family responsibilities and, if divorced or unmarried, live in the "pink collar ghetto."

Sources of conflict between work and family roles have become the subject of intense investigation in the past ten years (Beutell and O'Hare, 1987; Loerch et al., 1989). Specific factors found to influence women's work/family conflict include gender role attitudes (Izraeli, 1993), family and cooperation regarding domestic responsibilities (Wiersma and Van den Berg, 1991), and perceived gender role attitudes of the significant others in a woman's life (Tipping and Farmer, 1991).

On the other hand, Kelly et al. (1991) survey responses indicated that personal life factors were not found to cause career barriers. However, the interviews and divorce statistics conducted after the survey tell a powerful story not expressible with statistics alone. Only two of all the women Kelly interviewed had children living at home. Each had only one child. One respondent said, "All the men are married. Most of the women are divorced. I think that says something" (p. 410). In all the states Kelly surveyed, the women were more likely to be living alone, never married or divorced and living without dependents. Traditional sex roles did not interfere because, for many women, they had been abandoned. The point is that the way women reconciled conflicting demands of work and home was to abandon one role for the other. To combine both relegates women to lower ranks in the hierarchy where the job does not consume as much time or energy, leaving more for home and family.

Bullard and Wright's (1993) study examined various factors pertaining to career management in state government. Their findings regarding level of education reveal no consequential or prominent contrasts in the educational achievements of female and male state executives. Slightly less than ten percent of both groups studied had less than a bachelor degree. Approximately sixty percent held graduate degrees. The level of education is insignificant as a distinctive variable in demonstrating gender contrasts among state agency heads. Conversely, Guy (1992) states that women who achieve managerial ranks in state agencies typically hold higher degrees than men who hold

similar jobs. Generally speaking, women who have advanced to managerial positions are more likely than men to hold advanced degrees. Stanley (1989) found a similar circumstance among Texas public administrators. She found that slightly more women than men completed bachelors and masters degrees. Apparently, women must have more education to achieve upper-management ranks than men.

Bullard and Wright's (1993) study also examined the type of educational experience and educational preparation obtained by female and male executives. They found some differences existed in the content of the educational experiences of women and men executives in state governments. For example, women were far more likely to hold bachelor of arts degrees. In contrast, men held their first degree(s) in engineering and business more than did women. They found some differences in types of degrees earned pronounced. However, in the science field, for example, the percentages were roughly comparable between men and women.

Miller (1986) reports that he found no single set of strategies for gaining public service workplace advantages that worked for both men and women. Instead, he cites four different types of techniques for dealing with work settings, one for each race/gender category. For white males, a classical bureaucratic career pattern that favors official rank and high client contact positions has proven to be a successful career strategy. For white women, only age (youth) correlated positively with organizational

advantage; for non-white women, only education correlated positively with organizational advantage.

B. GENDER DIFFERENCES AT WORK

As noted, several studies have examined the ever-changing role of city managers and the increasing number of female city administrators. A second aspect of this review of literature examines research pertaining to whether or not there is a difference in attitudes and actions of men and women city managers. The question “does the participation of women in political life make a difference?” has been debated by scholars, politicians, citizens and feminists without a consensus being reached (Gillian, 1982; Kathlene, 1995; Thomas, 1991; Berkman and O’Conner, 1993). Evidence of differing perspectives between men and women office holders is found in an expanding body of psychological and political science literature (Neuse, 1978; Saltzstein, 1986; Shapiro and Mahajan, 1986). While much attention has been given to differing perspectives between women and men in elected positions, few studies focus on female and male managerial differences and even fewer pertain to male and female city managers.

Rosabeth Moss Kanter (1977), in her classic book *Men and Women of the Corporation*, identified structural and systemic characteristics that served as obstacles for women in private sector companies. Her theory focuses on organizational structure to explain why women are disadvantaged, rather than focusing on societal or individual factors. Guy (1992) describes Kanter’s theory which includes three sets of relationships:

the extent to which further upward mobility is possible; the extent to which employees possess the power necessary to accomplish their goals; and the relative number of people in a peer group of one's own social type, such as women or men. The basic assumption is that worker commitment and productivity as well as future opportunities for mobility and empowerment are enhanced when workers, at whatever level, are empowered, have mobility opportunities and are not tokens. This theory assumes that differences in women's and men's attitudes and behaviors within an organization are produced by the fact that they play different and unequal roles in the workplace; in turn, the differences produced from this enhance the likelihood that roles will be distributed differentially on the basis of gender to the continuing disadvantage of women.

Kanter's findings on "proportions" are directly related to the proportion of women in upper management. It is a quantitative matter of how many people of a kind are present, i.e., female city managers, so that "differentness" is, or is not, noticeable. She observed that people whose type is represented in very small proportion tend to be more visible. They feel more pressure to conform and to make fewer mistakes, find it harder to gain credibility, are more isolated, are more likely to be excluded from informal peer networks and thus, are limited in their source of power through alliance. On the other hand, people whose type is represented in very high proportion tend to be seen as "fitting in" and find it easier to gain credibility for high uncertainty positions. They are more likely to join the informal network, form peer alliances and learn from

their peers. They are also more likely to be sponsored by higher-status organization members and to acquire new mentors easily. A decade later, Kanter (1987) revisited her original findings and concluded that they were as sound as when she first enumerated them. Kanter's work in corporations is germane to this work in municipal government because both relate to the status differential between men and women.

Regarding managerial differences, early research conducted by Denmarke and Diggory (1966) indicated, "It is clear that on the average men are more authoritarian than women with respect to the leader's exercise of authority and power in the matter of group goals and control of the behavior of individual members" (p. 867). Philip Sadler's study has direct implication on sex differentials in leadership style. Sadler's (1970) study revealed that, out of his sample of 319 women, only fifteen percent indicated a preference for "authoritarian" (tells or task-oriented) leadership. The implication from this study is that women tend to be relationship or participative oriented as opposed to task oriented.

Thirty years after Denmarke and Diggory's (1966) study, the debate regarding the behaviors and attitudes of men and women at work continues. Not all studies find gender differences. Rehfuss (1986) studied top career executives in California and found that women shared a "managerial ideology" and other attitudinal and demographic characteristics that were quite similar to their male counterparts. Harriman (1996) concluded that differences between men and women are situational-based, not based on

gender. These two studies find gender a nonsignificant factor and suggest that gender is not relevant pertaining to management style.

Today scholars continue to discuss whether or not there are "female" managerial traits and if so, if these behaviors contribute to a productive work environment and leadership style. As noted, studies have shown notable differences in male and female behavioral styles (Sadler, 1970; Kanter, 1977; Gillian, 1982). Others point out that it would seem evident that managerial styles would differ between genders due to the diverse backgrounds, career paths and experiences prior to achieving leadership positions.

It remains to be seen whether or not significant managerial differences do indeed occur based on gender. The scholars who argue that women exhibit "female" behaviors of inclusion and cooperation also state that women are more effective managers than their male counterparts (Daley and Naff, 1997). Others have taken the stance that leadership is gender neutral and leadership behaviors depend on the individual, not the sex of the individual.

As to whether or not women exhibit special traits which, in turn, make them more effective as managers, the study results are conflicting. Women's managerial style is considered more flexible, open and inclusive than the traditional male style (Herkelman et al., 1993). Female managers were rated as more interpersonally warm during their first interactions with their employees (Goktepe and Schneider, 1989; Spillman, 1981).

Female managers provide unique qualities that men do not possess or have yet to develop and male managers have often been discharged due to lack of sensitivity in dealing with subordinates (McCall and Lombardo, 1983). Female leaders are frequently praised for their ability to work more effectively with subordinates. Female managers communicate more openly and are more easily understood due to their clear communication style (Pearson et al., 1985). While many working women take time from employment to care for young children, women in leadership positions are no more likely to have exited and reentered the work force than men (Lewis, 1992). These women would appear to be placing a greater priority on their career than do other women.

According to Chaffin et al. (1995), there is a “glass ceiling” that prevents women from easily climbing the corporate ladder. Even when women gain access into an organization, they are considered “outsiders” by the men of the organization. It is difficult, if not impossible, for a woman to be accepted into the “old-boys network,” which is predominately white male. Chaffin et al. (1995) found that men feel more comfortable with other men and, therefore, are malevolent toward women who they usually perceive as intruders. Women also are at a disadvantage because they lack access to female “mentors,” since most senior level executives are male. Males generally prefer other males as their proteges, because such relationships usually feel more comfortable. They have difficulty taking on female proteges because they fear allegations of

harassment, which would endanger their credibility and integrity, and perhaps seriously derail their careers (Chaffin et al., 1995).

Women have a more arduous task in proving their ability because their success is generally attributed to luck whereas men's achievements are credited to ability (Deaux, 1976). Women have been socialized to develop less confidence, less independence, and lower self-esteem and therefore tend to devalue their own skills and intelligence, just as others do (Herkelman et al., 1993). At the same time, Pearson's research indicates that male managers feel confident that they perform better than female managers due to superior abilities and higher intelligence. Male leaders consider their jobs more difficult than female leaders who occupy the same positions (Pearson et. al, 1985).

C. THE IMPORTANCE OF SOCIAL NETWORKS

Social networks are extremely important in preparing men and women for future leadership positions. Several studies have been conducted which indicate the significant impact a mentor can make on career decisions, self-esteem and potential future promotions. A number of studies have stressed the importance of mentoring in career advancement (Vertz, 1985; Dreher and Ash, 1990; Hale, 1992; Catalyst, 1992) as well as the relevance of the gender of one's mentor (Kanter, 1977; Hunt and Michael, 1983; Dreher and Ash, 1990). For example, Kanter has noted that men often have difficulty envisioning women as younger versions of themselves, and therefore do not serve as effective mentors for women. By the same token, women may have difficulty seeing

men as role models in whose footsteps they can follow. Data show that a woman executive is three times more likely than a man to have a woman as a mentor (Henderson, 1985). Dreher and Ash (1990) state that mentors often facilitate advancement for their proteges. Since men more often hold powerful positions in organizations, they can often provide greater opportunity for their proteges than women mentors can (Hale, 1992). Perhaps it is not surprising then, that women with male mentors have a more positive view of their own opportunities than women with female mentors or no mentor at all.

According to Naff (1995), the findings on mentors, together with studies pertaining to supervisors, suggest that women who have female supervisors, mentors (male or female) or both are less likely to perceive discrimination against women in their organization. While this may present a quandary for organizations lacking senior women to meet all of these supervisory and mentoring needs, it speaks to the importance of programs geared toward advancing women more rapidly. These studies suggest what Kanter theorized, that once women reach a critical mass in organizations, their presence can enhance the confidence of lower level women and reduce the likelihood that they will experience subjective discrimination. The finding that women are less likely to feel personally discriminated against if they are mentored by men is no doubt related to men's more powerful role in organizations. Rather than rely on these men to continue to serve as mentors to women, particularly given the other difficulties involved in cross-sex

mentoring relationships (Hale, 1992), it is clearly important to open up opportunities for more women to increase their relative power in organizations (Naff, 1995).

Kelly et al. (1991) researched the integration of women into the managerial ranks of state government administrations. Their six-state study reveals that men continue to hold disproportionately more elite positions in state administrative systems, but progress has been made on including women in higher echelons. They also find gender factors to be important in the mentoring process that is so important to the development and advancement of managers. Men tend to have male mentors, and women are as likely to have male mentors as they are to have women mentors. Nevertheless, women who found female mentors gained considerably from that relationship.

According to Kelly et al. (1991) and Stanley (1987), mentoring includes teaching proteges how to make decisions, guiding, advising, helping to fit events into the broad picture, serving as an advocate, role modeling, giving constructive feedback, motivating and protecting. Mentors are critically important for helping men and women climb the career ladder. Although it is possible to reach the top of career ladders without benefit of mentors, it happens only rarely. A female administrator in the Alabama Department of Archives relates the importance of role models:

She encouraged me to go to organizational and professional meetings. She helped me get active. Also, a high school teacher who was my English teacher for my senior year in high school. She was young, enthusiastic, just out of graduate school, and one of the first women I had met who held a graduate degree. I still think of her often. She gave me a positive example. (Kelly et al., 1991, p. 408).

Several things are known about mentoring and women's career advancement.

First, women develop positive attitudes about their administrative skills when exposed to women managers and mentored by them. Second, women in advanced positions have more nontraditional attitudes toward the role of women in employment than do men in similar positions (Vertz, 1985). Female mentors are more likely than male mentors to encourage their female proteges to enter traditionally male-dominated fields of employment. In fact, men have more traditional attitudes toward the role of women, regardless of their organizational location. Laura Vertz (1985) also reports that women in advanced positions within an organization have no preference for the sex of their supervisor, whereas men in similar positions are more likely to prefer male supervisors.

The relationship between mentor and mentee is reciprocal, a "power relationship of equal support between two persons of unequal rank" (Melia and Lyttle, 1986). The collegial network becomes a complex set of relationships linking superiors and subordinates, through mutually beneficial interaction. An individual's network is not simply a support system, but the "sum total of all those people with whom he/she barter" for personal power (Melia and Lyttle, 1986). The information and support gleaned from this interaction provides the personal power necessary to qualify for advancement in formal power and status, i.e., promotion. Tysl (1993) investigated the career progression of fourteen successful management level women and their participation in mentoring relationships. She concluded that women do not have the same kinds of mentoring

relationships as men because of gender-based and contextual issues that arise in the workplace. The women in her study reported risk associated with cross-gender mentoring relationships, such as jealousy by coworkers, rumors of sexual involvement and double standards. Despite these resulting problems, the respondents recommended mentor relationships, both male and female.

Researchers seem to disagree about whether female managers recognize the importance of having a mentor. While several researchers report this is not a problem (Collins 1983; Graddick 1984; Keown and Keown 1982), others (Reich 1986) believe that women fail to recognize the importance of gaining a mentor and “may naively assume that competence is the only requisite for advancement in the organization” (Ragins 1989, p. 6). Regardless of the contradictory literature, researchers agree women are less likely than men to develop mentoring relationships (Brown 1985; Burke 1984; Farris and Ragan 1981). Guy et al. (1992) state that two possible explanations for this conclusion are that women may not seek mentors, or that mentors may not select female proteges. Whichever is the case, the fact remains that there is some sort of barrier between women and the mentoring process.

While the aspect of mentors has been studied, it could be considered a subset of a larger body of work concerning perceptions pertaining to a woman's role in an organization. Robert K. Merton (1973) has written extensively on the aspect of a woman's role in social dynamics. In discussing the development of groups and the

boundaries between different groups, Merton identifies the concept of group-based truth from the perspective of “Insiders” and “Outsiders.” Insiders have special privileged access, sometimes monopolistic access, to truth, and Outsiders are shunned. He emphasizes that a special role of the Outsider is to cause conflict and intellectual exchange across group boundaries with one result of the conflict being a higher level of intellectual achievement.

The concept of women as Outsiders or different beings was also noted by Simone de Beauvoir (1952). In her classic work on the status of women, *The Second Sex*, she wrote: “the category of “the other” is as primordial as consciousness itself. In the most primitive societies, in the most ancient mythologies, one finds the expression of a duality - that of Self and the Other.” Today women are faced with the task of doing what it takes to “fit in” in a predominately male working environment and maintaining their personal sense of female identity. Because of their differences, real or perceived, women are often excluded from certain high prestige areas of masculine endeavor.

Gillian (1982) contrasts men’s description of “self” based on individual achievement to women, who define their identity in a context of relationship. For men, great ideas or distinctive activity define the standard of self-assessment and success. Women, on the other hand, judge by a standard of responsibility and care.

These studies would indicate that social networks and attitudes regarding gender can have a significant impact, not only regarding the career selected but also on the

upward mobility of a career after the profession has been chosen. Also, women are less likely to actively seek a mentor and their perceptions of the reasons for advancement, i.e., abilities as opposed to connections, may hinder their ability to become a part of the social network in the organization (Reich, 1986).

This review focused on a number of studies pertaining to men and women in government, specifically, the issues of social demographics, perceptions regarding whether or not gender impacts organizational decisions and the role social networks, including mentor and influential persons in a woman's careers. While research has been conducted regarding women in local government, the studies pertaining to female city managers are few. The analysis of these aspects as they relate to local government is important for a number of reasons:

1. Public managers spend most of their time accumulating and assimilating information (Kaufman, 1981). They need information about the problems in their organization and potential solutions to solve those problems (Starling, 1993).
2. Inadequate research has been conducted in the arena of local government relating to gender comparisons.
3. City managers influence policies that directly affect large communities of people and this study will examine information features of the process in which their decisions are made.

The central questions of this study include: first, social demographics: are age, marital status, race, education, years with organization, and income comparable between the female and male managers?. Second, influence and preparation: did the educational

institutions attended by the managers adequately prepare them for their chosen profession and did someone influence them to become a city manager? And, third, social networks: is there a perceived difference in female and male managers regarding access to information and does a network exist for female and male managers to gather information?

CHAPTER TWO

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

A. Statement of the Problem

In the past, researchers have gathered data about the role of men and women in government, specifically focusing on elected officials at various levels of government. Much has also been written regarding public administrators at the national, state and even county level (Guy, 1992; Hale, 1986; Havens and Healey, 1991). The traditional research has focused on the political aspects of women in government and politics, the differing communication styles of men and women in general, and the effect of a mentor regarding the selection of an occupation. To date, there is a paucity of information about men and women city managers in the United States. In addition, there has been little data collected regarding the perceived differences in attitudes in men and women city managers relating to preparation for their chosen field or information sources and networks after they have entered the field. Therefore, this study will make three comparisons. First, a social demographic comparison will be made between male and female city and assistant city managers in the United States. Comparisons will be made in the following categories: age, marital status, race, education, years with the organization and present income. Second, a comparison will be made between the male

and female city and assistant managers regarding their perceived adequacy of educational preparation and mentor relationships. Finally, a comparison will be made between the male and female managers' social networks, including perceived access to information and the availability of information.

The potential scope of an exploration of concepts of women and communication systems in government organizations is extensive. This study limits the research of social networks to managers in a municipal setting, I am excluding elected officials and research in private settings. Little will be said concerning inanimate systems and interactions at lower levels of employees in organizations. Also, the focus of technical details of information design, processing and retrieval is limited. Each of these aspects of information has a large literature (Sproull and Keister, 1991; Chase, 1984).

The purpose is to be exploratory rather than definitive. This study will be viewed from the aspect of male and female city and assistant city managers in the United States. This research deals with the social aspects of the communication process, including, but not limited to, interpersonal communication and social networks.

B. Methodological Procedures

The data for this study was gathered utilizing a mail survey technique. This method of data collection allowed analysis of the entire population of female city managers and assistants in the nation in a relatively short time frame and with anonymity of the respondents. The survey sample was drawn from the International City

Management's (ICMA) 1991-92 membership survey from cities with a population of 20,000 or more. The ICMA compiles data on virtually all cities in the United States, including the type of government structure, the name of the city manager and the city's location and size. As the number of female city managers in this list is small, the entire population of female city managers was chosen. The number was still small and the decision was made to include assistant city managers as well. Assistant managers often function in the role of a manager when he/she is absent from work, they regularly are appointed to serve as interim managers when a vacancy occurs and they serve in the capacity of the city manager when he/she is unable to perform the duties. The total number of managers surveyed was two hundred and nine.

A list of the male counterparts, both managers and assistant managers, was then developed by matching each female city manager with a corresponding male manager from the same geographic region of cities with a population of 20,000 or more. The questionnaires were sent to a total of 394 city and assistant city managers (185 male and 209 female) across the United States. Surveys were sent to city managers in thirty-eight states. Twelve states did not have any female city or assistant city managers for matching purposes. (See Appendix A for a listing of city locations and number of surveys distributed.)

In surveying the managers, a four-page questionnaire was developed combining both open and close-ended questions (Appendix B and Appendix C). The objective of

the questionnaire was to understand how female and male managers perceive access to information. Several questions regarding demographics were also asked. In addition, a set of four questions, utilizing a four-point Likert scale, were asked regarding perception of networks and social connections.

Standard mail techniques were followed in administering the survey. First, a copy of the instrument, with a cover letter asking each city manager's anonymous participation in the study, was mailed. The questionnaires contained a "f" or a "m" to indicate gender for coding purposes. Six weeks after the initial mailing, a reminder letter and a copy of the questionnaire was sent to the managers who had not yet returned the completed questionnaire. Both mailings contained a self-addressed, stamped envelope for return purposes.

Of the 394 subjects who were given the questionnaire, 199 managers responded. This is an acceptable return rate of 50.5%. This total consists of 110 women and 89 men. Of the 110 females who completed and returned the surveys, 83 were included in the study. Seventy-seven male surveys were used from the 89 returned. The survey data eliminated (34 total) was due to change of employment or an inability to reply by the survey deadline.

Descriptive statistics allow the investigator to compare the male/female and city manager/assistant city manager responses, as well as examine the effect of education, experience and other demographic variables on survey items. After the data were

collected the measures were organized, coded and analyzed for statistical significance using the chi-square. A significance level was set at .05.

C. Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There will be no significant differences between female and male managers in the following social demographics: age, marital status, race, education, years with organization and present income.
2. There will be no significant differences between male and female city managers regarding perception of mentors.
3. There will be no significant differences between male and female city managers regarding the way in which they have access to, gather and analyze data.
4. There will be no significant differences between male and female city managers responses to the following statements:
 - a. Your advancement in city government depends as much on your connections as on your abilities.
 - b. More useful information travels on the informal networks than through formal channels.
 - c. Women in city management positions have to be better informed and work harder than men to make it.
 - d. One is more likely to find men with "inside connections" than women.

In the following section, an analysis of the results will be provided, including the chi square analysis and the relationship of the findings to the review of the literature.

CHAPTER THREE

RESULTS

This study is designed to make comparisons between certain factors affecting the male and female city and assistant city managers. The first comparison regards social demographics, specifically addressing age, marital status, race, education, years with organization and present income. Second, a comparison is made regarding perception of mentors and adequacy of educational preparation for a position in the field of public administration. Third, the perceptions of female and male managers are analyzed pertaining to social networks in the city management field, specifically as they relate to information access and methods of information gathering. Last, managers indicate the intensity of their agreement or disagreement to the statement regarding networking. Below is a discussion of the research findings.

SOCIAL DEMOGRAPHICS

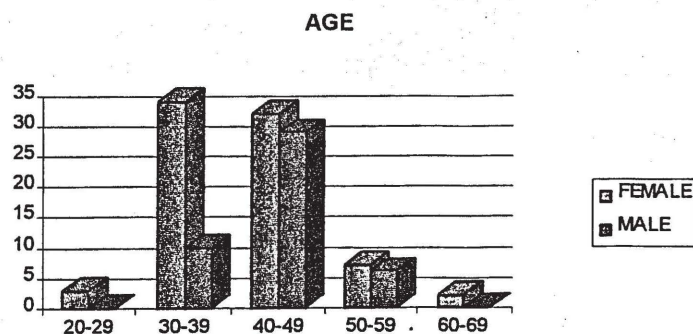
Hypothesis 1: There will be no significant differences between female and male managers in the following social demographics: age, marital status, race, education, years with organization and present income.

Table 3.1: Age Ranges of Female and Male Managers

AGE RANGES	FEMALE		MALE	
20-29	3	3.80%	0	0
30-39	34	43.03%	10	22.22%
40-49	33	41.77%	29	64.44%
50-59	7	8.86%	6	13.33%
60-69	2	2.53%	0	0
Total	79		45	

$$\chi^2 = 10.20$$

$$p > .05$$

Graph 3.1: Age Ranges of Female and Male Managers

Forty-six percent of female city managers are age 39 and younger compared to only 22.2% of males. Males (64.4%) tended to cluster in the 40-49 range compared with significantly fewer females (41.77%). Consistent with findings from other research regarding public executives (Kelly et al., 1991; Stanley, 1987), this study found that female city managers are younger than their male counterparts.

These findings may be related to the relatively recent entry of women into the city manager position. As noted in the review, as of 1994, there were only 397 women

city managers in the United States (Szymborski, 1996). The inclusion of assistant city managers in the female population surveyed may also have an impact on the greater number of females being under the age of 40.

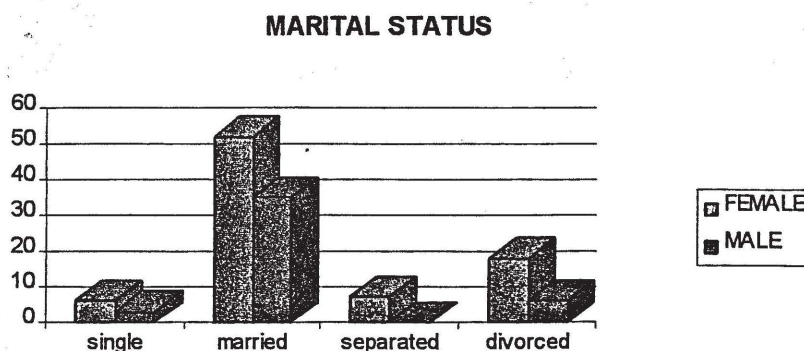
Table 3.2: Marital Status of Female and Male Managers

MARITAL STATUS	FEMALE		MALE	
Single	6	7.22%	3	6.82%
Married	52	62.65%	35	79.55%
Separated	7	8.43%	0	0
Divorced	18	21.69%	6	13.64%
Total	83		44	

$$\chi^2 = 5.90$$

$$p < .05$$

Graph 3.2: Marital Status of Female and Male Managers



Most of the city managers in this sample, male and female, are married. Seventy-nine percent of the responding male managers are married, compared to 62.65% of the females. Fewer women are married, which is to say a larger percent of the women are either single, divorced or separated. The findings in the present study are consistent with

Stanley (1987). Her study revealed that women with high earnings, education and commitment to their public service careers are less likely than other women to be married or more likely to be divorced.

Johnson and Duerst-Lahti (1990) found that conventional arrangements of a working husband, with a wife at home to take care of the children, benefits a man in his attempts to build a career. With a wife to tend to meals, laundry and other family commitments, this arrangement surpasses even a single lifestyle. They contend that conventional career structures, working husband with wife, correlates to a successful career. It is less common for women to imitate the conventional patterns than it is for men (Guy, 1992).

As noted in the literature review, one way in which women overcome the obstacle of family versus work is to abandon the traditional roles of wife and mother. Much research on women and careers documents this tendency. Research data confirm this finding. More female managers than male managers have never been married and a smaller percentage of women are currently married. Perhaps this is a statement attributed to the difficulties for women of maintaining a high pressure position and a successful marriage. While over half of both men and women managers are married, perpetuating the conventional family arrangement, female respondents are also more likely than men to have been divorced or separated. These findings possibly confirm that the traditional family structure is less conducive to a city manager position for females than for males.

Studies have indicated that family obligations (spouse, children) tend to serve as hindrances to women's advancement while they seem to have less effect on men's advancement (Stanley, 1987).

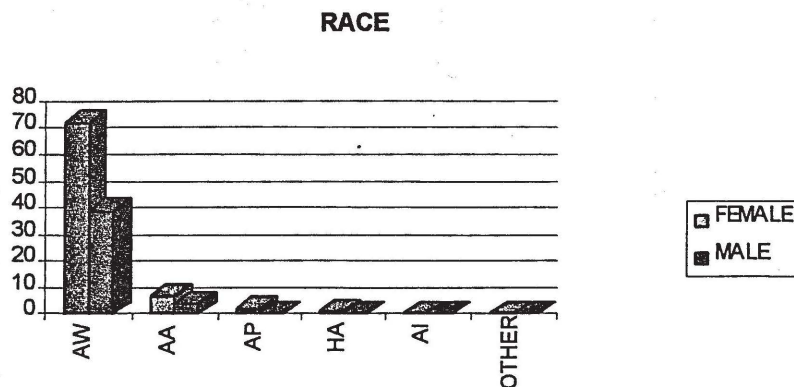
Table 3.3: Race of Female and Male Managers

RACE	Female		Male	
Anglo/White	72	87.80%	39	90.69%
African American	7	8.54%	4	9.30%
Asian Pacific	2	2.44%	0	0
Hispanic	1	1.22%	0	0
Total	82		43	

$$\chi^2 = .57$$

$$p = .99$$

Graph 3.3: Race of Female and Male Managers



AW = Anglo/White
AP = Asian Pacific
AI = American Indian

AA = African American
HA = Hispanic American

There is no significant difference between females and males in the degree of diversity. The overwhelming percentage of both male and female managers are

Anglo/White. While many local governments across the United States have attempted to increase the minority representation, it appears that at the top administrative position, the efforts have not been successful in the surveyed cities. As the Chaffin et al. (1995) study revealed, it is difficult for white women to make connections and easily form mentor/protégé relationships because of the comfort level men feel with other men. It is likely that the problem is compounded when a minority male or female attempts to become enough of an “insider” to be appointed city manager.

Table 3.4: Highest Degree of Education Attained

HIGHEST DEGREE	Female		Male	
No Bachelors	8	9.64%	0	0%
Bachelors	29	34.94%	41	53.25%
Masters	45	54.22%	33	42.86%
Doctorate	1	1.21%	3	3.90%
Total	83		77	

$$x^2 = 11.64$$

$$p > .01$$

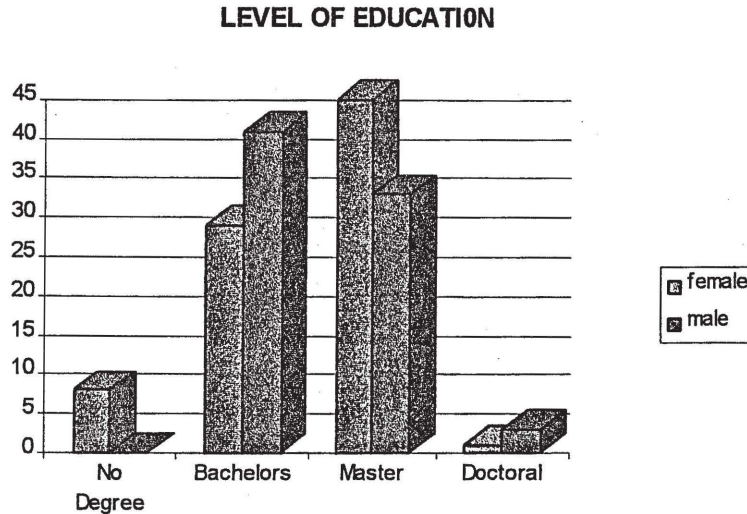
Graph 3.4: Highest Degree of Education Attained

Table 3.4 indicates that these survey findings are consistent with Fox and Schumann (1997) who indicated that female and male city managers in their survey revealed a difference in education. The Fox and Schumann survey indicated that more male managers had Masters degrees and more women had only completed high school. Approximately 6% of the female managers surveyed do not have a college degree, as opposed to zero percent of the men. But in the present study, surveyed female managers are more likely to have advanced degrees (55.4%) than the male managers (47%). While a doctorate is infrequent for either gender, men are approximately three times more likely than their female counterparts to have a doctorate (1.21%).

Gwen Moore (1987) interviewed men and women managers in two New York state agencies and found similar results. The women were more likely than men to hold

graduate degrees. My findings are also consistent with Stanley (1989) and Guy et al. (1992) who found that women typically hold higher degrees than men who hold similar jobs. They found that, generally speaking, women who have advanced managerial positions are more likely than men to hold advanced degrees.

The questionnaire asked both men and women managers if they felt adequately prepared by their educational background to deal with information requirements of their job and if not, what would have prepared them better? The female responses included the following comments:

- obtain work experience and internships, if at all possible
- the education should have included less theory and more “real-life” scenarios
- computer experience was needed.

The men responded with similar suggestions, stating the education would have been more beneficial to have had a better mix of application instead of mostly theory. They also emphasized, as did the women, that more computer experience is needed.

There were few differences pertaining to the advice to students considering entering the city management profession from the women and men. Female comments included, “take an internship,” “obtain a masters degree from a reputable university,” “enhance your computer skills” and “improve your communication skills.” The men recommended “become well-versed in many areas.” They also emphasized the importance of obtaining a masters degree, attending Kansas University, and taking an

internship, if offered. Several of the male respondents stated they would offer the same advice to both male and female students considering a career in city management. Both the women and men mentioned the necessity of learning “how to get along with people.”

As listed above, when asked if their education adequately prepared them for their current positions, the women and men stated common concerns. However, more women commented that their college education did not adequately prepare them for positions as city managers. This may relate to the fact that they did not perceive their professors as attempting to influence them to pursue a city manager position as the men did. The questionnaire did not ask the females or males to indicate the type of degree obtained.

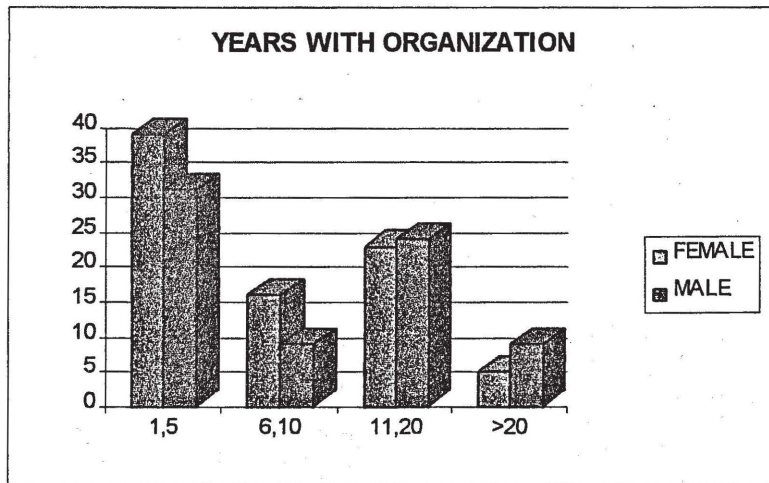
Table 3.5: Number of Years with Current Organization

YEARS WITH ORG.	FEMALE		MALE	
1-5	39	47%	31	42.5%
6-10	16	19.3%	9	12.3%
11-20	23	27.7%	24	32.8%
21 and over	5	6.0%	9	12.3%
TOTAL	83		73	

$$\chi^2 = 3.07$$

$$p < .30$$

Graph 3.5: Number of Years with Current Organization



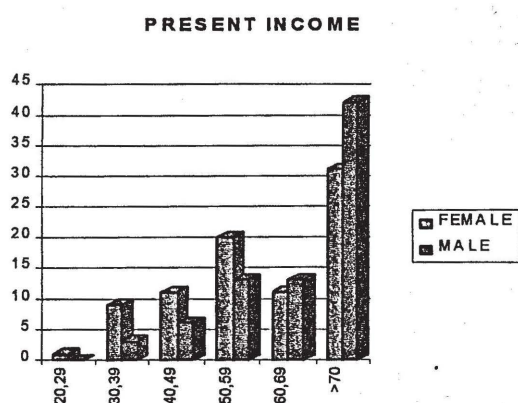
While there is no significant difference between the years men and the years women have been employed by their current organization, the females have been with the organization for shorter periods of time. Almost half (45%) of the men have been with their current employer for over ten years, as opposed to 33.7% of the women. It may be consistent with Guy et al.(1992) who found that women are “fast-tracked”, promoted within an organization at a faster rate than men. There are limited comparisons, however, between city managers and respondents in other public administrative studies. Managers, are at the top executive position within a city and therefore have to move to another, probably larger, city for promotional opportunities. Female executives within the state or federal government, may have opportunities for advancement within the organization in which they are employed.

Table 3.6: Present Annual Income of Female and Male Managers

PRESENT INCOME	FEMALE		MALE	
20- 39,000	10	12.05%	3	3.90%
40-59,000	31	37.35%	19	24.70%
60-69,000	11	13.25%	13	16.88%
70 AND ABOVE	31	37.35%	42	54.55%
TOTAL	83		77	

$$\chi^2 = 8.57$$

$$p > .01$$

Chart 3.6: Present Annual Income of Female and Male Managers

Nearly half (49.40%) of the female managers earn \$59,000 or less annually compared to 28.60% of the men while over 54.55% of the men earn over \$70,000 per year with only 37.3% of the women reaching that salary level. These findings are consistent with all of the former studies relating to salary of executives and administrators in all levels of government (Kelly et al., 1991; Lewis and Nice, 1991; Stanley, 1987). Consistently, despite comparable education and time with employer, the male employees earn higher rates of income. As noted, this could be indicative of

internal biases against females or in this study, it could be related to the fact that the men entered the profession earlier than women and have received salary adjustments annually for longer periods of time than their female counterparts.

While the Equal Pay Act of 1963 provided that equal pay should be given for equal work, regardless of gender, this might be questioned for the managers surveyed. Still, female managers surveyed tended to be younger and have less time with the organization. Another factor to be considered is that a number of the women surveyed are assistant managers, whereas more of the men are city managers. Managers from cities with a population of 20,000 or more were included in the survey, so it is possible that a larger number of male respondents are employed by larger cities, creating a more competitive salary market.

Hypothesis 2: There will be no significant differences between male and female city managers regarding perceptions of mentors.

Table 3.7: Perceptions Regarding Who/What Most Influenced Career Choice of Female and Male Managers

WHO INFLUENCED?	FEMALE		MALE	
PROFESSOR	15	19.23%	13	28.89%
CITY MANAGER	4	5.12%	6	13.33%
H.S. TEACHER	6	7.69%	1	2.22%
SUPERVISOR	8	10.25%	3	6.67%
OTHER	7	8.97%	6	13.33%
NO ONE	38	48.72%	16	35.56%
TOTAL	78		45	

The perceptions differed among the men and women surveyed regarding who most influenced their career choice. As noted in Table 3.7, 64% of the men perceived that someone influenced them to enter the field of city management and only one third (35.56%) stated that no one influenced them regarding their chosen profession. Forty-nine percent of the female managers perceived that they decided on their own, or had no outside influence, to pursue a career in the city management field. According to these survey results, city managers were more likely to influence men than women to pursue a career in city management. These findings are consistent with the studies relating to mentors and social networks in organizations. Often the influence begins before the person enters the chosen field of employment. For instance, high school teachers and college professors or supervisors, early in one's career development, can have a profound impact on the selected field of study. But, women are more likely to feel that no one served as a mentor for them.

These findings also relate to the Kanter (1987) theory of the "proportions" of men and women in an organization and the level of "differentness" perceived by the persons in the minority. Due to the demographics of local government city managers in general, predominately white males, it is more likely that the male managers would be influenced by a city manager or a supervisor than the female managers.

The questionnaire did not ask the respondent to identify how he or she was influenced or to what extent. Neither male nor female respondents gave specific

examples regarding specific type of influence or how intense the perceived influence was.

Hypothesis 3: There will be no significant differences between female and male managers regarding the way in which they have access to, gather and analyze data, i.e., social networks.

Both the female and male managers were asked: “Are there situations where you are unable to gain information you need? If yes, what are the circumstances and why is the information unavailable to you?”

Table 3.8: Perceptions Regarding Information Gathering Effectiveness.

UNABLE TO GAIN INFO. NEEDED?	Female		Male	
Yes	43	54.43%	36	46.75%
No	34	43.04%	41	53.25%
Don't Know	2	2.53%	0	0
Total	79		77	

Table 3.9: Perceptions Regarding Reasons for Not Being Able to Gain Information

WHY UNABLE	FEMALE		MALE	
DATA FORMAT/STORAGE	15	30.61%	11	31.43%
PERSON WITH THE INFO. WON'T SHARE	7	14.29%	9	25.71%
TIME CONSTRAINTS	9	18.37%	4	11.43%
OUTDATED MATERIAL	2	4.08%	1	2.86%
DON'T KNOW WHERE TO GO FOR THE INFO.	3	6.12%	3	8.57%
OTHER	13	26.53%	7	20.00%
TOTAL	49		35	

Approximately one-half (54.4%) of the female and male (46.7%) respondents indicated there are some situations in which they feel they are unable to gain needed information. When asked to list the circumstances that contributed to being unable to obtain the needed information, the responses were similar between men and women with the two exceptions: time constraints and the person with the information will not share it. Only 11.43% of the men listed time as a factor in obtaining needed information as opposed to 18.37% of the women. Without additional data it is difficult to surmise the reasons for the perceived time constraints differences between men and women. Perhaps, the women, due to the multiple roles they have (wife, mother, and employee) perceive that their time is limited when specific information is needed. Another possible explanation relates to the management style of men versus women as it relates to task-delegation. Men may be more likely to delegate assignments, therefore allowing time for

other work tasks. Women, may tend to work as an equal team member with her staff and therefore have less time for additional tasks. As noted in the literature, according to Stanley (1987), women perceive family obligations as a hindrance and obstacle to career progression. Dealing with family issues during the work day, in addition to their city manager responsibilities, may place stricter time constraints on the female managers than men. Men were more likely (25.71%) to perceive that the person with the information will not share it. Fourteen percent of the women perceived this to be a factor in their inability to gain information.

A second question relating to social networks asked women managers, "Does being a woman shape the procedures by which you gather information relevant to your work as a city manager? If yes, how?" The men were asked, "Does being a man shape the procedures by which you gather information relevant to your work as a city manager? If yes, how?"

Table 3.10: Perceptions Regarding Gender Shaping Information Gathering Procedures

GENDER SHAPE PROCEDURES?	FEMALE		MALE	
YES	37	44.60%	3	3.89%
NO	46	55.42%	74	96.10%
TOTAL	83		77	

This question resulted in an almost even split among the female managers as to whether they perceive gender as a factor in the way they gather information. The 44.4% who do feel gender makes a difference responded that the following items shaped their information gathering abilities: concern with details, willingness to go to the source, intuition, ask questions, not part of the network, and good people skills. Almost all of the men (96%) responded they do not perceive that being a man shaped their information gathering abilities. The few men who responded "yes" did not list specific reasons for "how?".

Several women added specific comments regarding their perceptions. Their comments included:

- It's difficult to be part of the "good old boy" network
- I am more likely to try to get help from an inanimate source before asking
- Other department heads may not relate to a woman as well as a man
- I'm not autocratic or paternalistic
- Generally, men are leery of giving females information they consider to be outside of female authority
- Women have an easier time gathering information because women are more instinctual and grasp attitudes and perceptions
- I am more willing to ask people for help.

Their comments generally related to one of two things: the men in the organization being a barrier or obstacle to the needed information or the fact that their perceived feminine tendencies, generally stated in positive terms, affected their information-gathering procedures. The comments from the women who perceived

gender as making a difference are consistent with the findings of Chaffin et al. (1995). Chaffin et al., found that men feel more comfortable with other men and therefore tend to perceive women as intruders. This would relate to the women's perceptions of men being barriers to obtaining information. In *Women and Men of the States* (Guy, 1992), Sally Helgesen (1990) states that "women executives (as opposed to males) tend to see themselves as located in the center of a "web of inclusion" rather than at the top of a hierarchy" (p. 134).

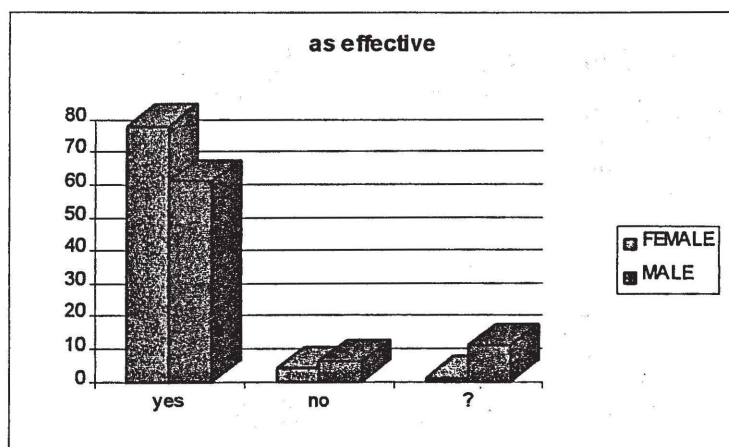
The Pearson et al. (1985) findings support the statements that female managers are perceived as being more open and easily understood than their male counterparts. This is consistent with statements made by women who perceive gender to have a positive impact regarding gathering information. On the other hand, the men who stated gender does not impact information gathering procedures did provide specific written comments on the questionnaire. Comments included:

- I believe a woman would gather information through similar procedures
- A woman would have the same resources
- Gender is irrelevant
- I acknowledge that I may be unaware that being a man has shaped my procedures for gathering information.

Female managers were asked, "Do you believe that women, in general, are as effective at information gathering as men?" The male managers were asked, "Do you believe that men, in general, are as effective at gathering information as women?"

Table 3.11: Perceptions Regarding Information Gathering Effectiveness

AS EFFECTIVE AS OPPOSITE GENDER	FEMALE		MALE	
YES	77	92.77%	59	76.62%
NO	6	7.22%	7	9.09%
DON'T KNOW	0	0	11	14.28%
TOTAL	83		77	

Graph 3.11: Perceptions Regarding Information Gathering Effectiveness

The female respondents feel confident (94%) that they are as effective at gathering information as their male counterparts, but the men were not as confident. Almost one quarter (23.37%) of the men do not perceive men to be as effective at gathering information as women or were unsure as to whether or not they were as effective.

These findings are especially interesting when considered with the report by Ragins and Sundstrom (1989) which reveal that women, compared to men, have less access to supplies, information and support. At the interpersonal level, Ragins and Sundstrom point to the critical role of perceptions in fulfilling the hypothesis of "power begets power" for men. Ragins and Sundstrom (1989) write in Guy's *Women and Men of the States*,

Through conflicts in expectations and roles, the prevalence of male prototypes (idealized mental images or cognitive categories that specify expectations of someone in a role) in organizations, and differential gender attributions of success, women managers are not expected to be as competent or as powerful as men. As a result, relationships relevant to power - those with supervisors, subordinates and peers - become interdependent and mutually reinforcing. In other words, male interpersonal relationships provide advantages (p. 151).

This statement sheds a new light on the survey findings in that men and women "perceive" their abilities to gather information so differently. In theory, due to the men's perceptions regarding information gathering, men who felt they are not as effective as women gathering information or do not know, are increasing the female's ability to do so.

The next question asked managers, "Are there special traits that you feel, as a woman/man, have affected your ability to have access to information important to your work as a city manager? If yes, please list".

Table 3.12: Perceptions Regarding Special Traits

SPECIAL TRAITS?	FEMALE		MALE	
YES	38	45.78%	9	11.69%
NO	45	54.22%	68	88.32%
TOTAL	83		77	

Some of the traits listed by the women included: good listener, less threatening, patience and honesty, willingness to ask questions, compassionate/caring, and responsive/fair. Many of the female respondents added specific comments including:

- Been "one of the guys" but retained my woman's identity
- Tenacity - I have no reservations about asking for information
- Women are very direct
- Being a good listener and more compassionate
- Some citizens are less threatened by a woman
- Ask a lot of questions but careful not to appear too pushy
- As a woman, I appear less threatening; easier to get good answers
- Genuine interest in individuals
- Sensitivity to others
- Patience
- Ability to draw others into the conversations.

The men who added comments wrote:

- Men in general have more tendency to learn how to use personal computer software
- Networking is very important, but it is not a sexual trait
- Not demanding and a good listener without dictating my personal opinions
- A woman with my background would have the same abilities and opportunities experience and education
- Questions asking is important as a trait
- Excellent interpersonal skills are paramount
- I've not observed gender-specific traits in information accessing

- Gender is irrelevant; either sex can develop skills
- I like to communicate
- I listen and I follow up
- Ability to converse, one-on-one in predominately male workforce
- Well versed in computer use
- Not as a man, rather as an individual utilizing my own skills
- Willingness to talk and listen to anyone
- Advantage of being a man is being more direct, whereas a woman tends to be tentative
- Gender is neutral
- Patience
- Clear thinking
- Perseverance.

Several of the men's comments related to the perception that being a man does not make a difference. A number of the female's statements pertained to their ability to get along with others, emphasizing their effectiveness of making others feel comfortable and not being perceived as threatening.

Questionnaires sent to female managers asked, "Do you think an "old girls" network exists in local government?" The male managers were asked, "Do you think an "old boys" network exists in local government?"

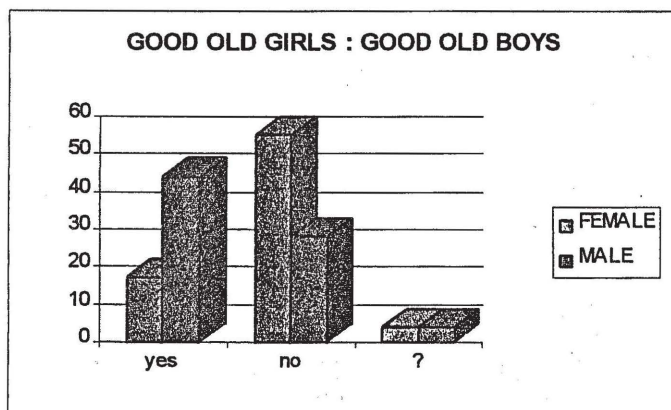
Table 3.13: Perceptions Pertaining to "Old Girls/Boys" Network

"OLD GIRLS/BOYS NETWORK?"	Female	Male
Yes	18	23.38%
No	55	71.43%
Don't Know	4	5.19%
Total	77	76

$$x^2 = 20.73$$

$$p > .05$$

Graph 3.13: Perceptions Pertaining to “Old Girls/Boys” Network



The vast majority of women (71.43%) do not feel that an “old girls” network exists. When the male manager were asked if they believed an “old boys” network exists, the majority (57.89%) responded “yes”. These findings are statistically significant and confirm earlier studies regarding this topic.

Guy and Lovelace Duke (1992) state that women have long been excluded from the “old boys club.” These all-male, informal relationships seem to control the power and resources of an organization, sharing vital information and reaching prior consensus on important decisions, while excluding all of the women from full participation in organizational activities (Harriman, 1985). Powell (1988) maintains that until recently there have not been enough women managers to constitute separate “old girls” networks or if they have, they do not recognize it as such. Evidently, this is the case for female city managers, based on their questionnaire responses. De Wine and Casbolt (1983)

explain that women's networks are the result of a deliberate strategy of linking women with other women to expand contacts, provide successful role models for each other, generate solutions to problems and disseminate information. Almost a quarter (23.38%) of the women say there is an "old girls" network. This is, of course, fewer than the male responses, but a beginning when one considers how few women there are at this level in city government. While still a low percent, these findings are consistent with Guy and Lovelace (1992) who state that women have begun to form their own networks. As the results indicate, some of the female managers (23.28%) have already formed strong ties with other women.

Not all scholars agree that women's networks have a positive impact on career advancement. Brass (1992) argues that for women, same-sex ties can have a negative impact. He asserts that "encouraging women to form networks with other women may be unnecessary, or, at worst, nonproductive. In terms of acquiring influence both men and women should be encouraged to build contacts with members of the other gender" (p.67). Unfortunately, women may not recognize the importance of establishing informal networks (Brown, 1985). By not actively perpetuating an "old girls" network, women may not reap the benefits associated with the formation of this type of social network. Neither men nor women wrote comments regarding the "old girls/boys" network or indicated if they were a part of a gender-neutral network. Although, one

would speculate that a network of city managers does exist and can impact references pertaining to advancement opportunities.

Hypothesis 4: There will be no significant differences between male and female city manager responses to the following statements:

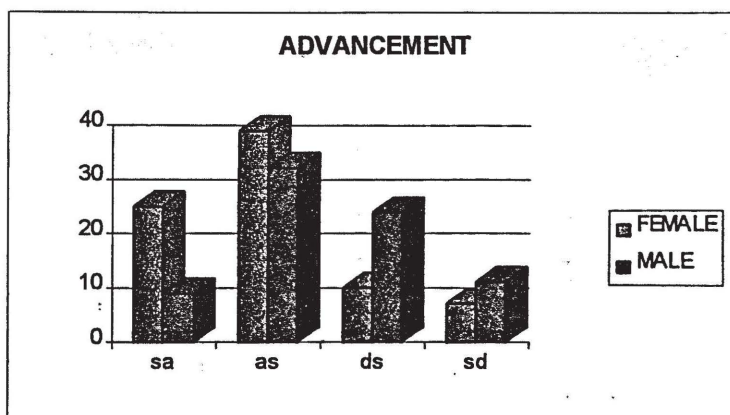
Table 3.14: Your advancement in city government depends as much on your connections as your abilities.

ADVANCEMENT DEPENDS ON CONNECTIONS	FEMALE		MALE	
STRONGLY AGREE	25	30.86%	9	11.84%
AGREE SOMEWHAT	39	48.15%	32	42.11%
DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	10	12.35%	24	31.58%
STRONGLY DISAGREE	7	8.64%	11	14.47%
TOTAL	81		76	

$$\chi^2 = 8.03$$

$$p > .05$$

Graph 3.14: Your advancement in city government depends as much on your connections as your abilities.



Approximately eighty percent (79.01) of the female respondents agree with this statement while only 53.95% of the men agree. At the same time, 46.05% of the males and only 20.99% of the females disagree. The results are statistically significant and reveal a perception difference between men and women. Although women believe that connections are important to career advancement, they do not feel that an “old girls” network exists, and according to studies by Brown (1985), may not realize the significance of the social networks. It could seem that while they do not perceive the existence of an “old girls” network, they do perceive an importance in making connections.

The response differences may reflect that men feel they obtained their position as a result of their hard work and education as opposed to their connections (Pearson et al., 1985). Women, on the other hand, may perceive the connections made a significant difference in their ability to obtain their positions as managers or see that to be true in others.

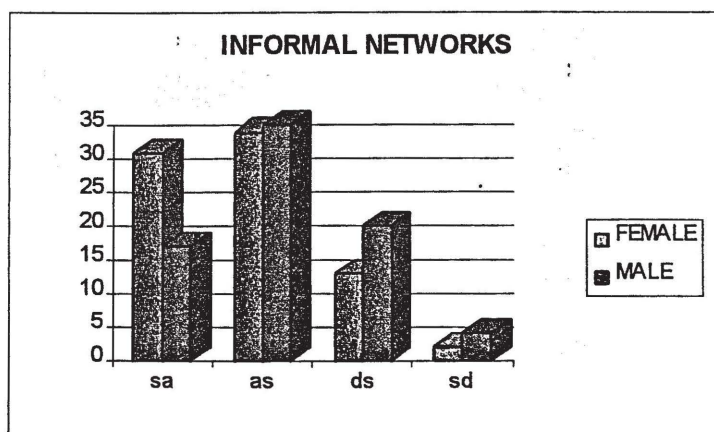
Table 3.15: More useful information travels on the informal networks than through formal channels.

INFORMAL NETWORKS V. FORMAL CHANNELS	FEMALE		MALE	
STRONGLY AGREE	32	39.51%	17	22.37%
AGREE SOMEWHAT	34	41.98%	35	46.05%
DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	13	16.05%	20	26.32%
STRONGLY DISAGREE	2	2.47%	4	5.26%
TOTAL	81		76	

$$\chi^2 = 4.28$$

$$p < .30$$

Chart 3.15: More useful information travels on the informal networks than through formal channels.



Over two-thirds of both male and female respondents agree with this statement.

While women do not feel that an “old girls” network exists, they do recognize the importance of developing social networks. These differences between males and females are not statistically significant in this instance.

The perception by both men and women regarding informal networks highlights the fact that while information does travel through formal channels in an organization, more useful information travels through informal channels. This perception poses a problem for women because the majority of managers are men and it is difficult for a woman to be accepted as one of the boys and become part of an informal information network. Men are more likely to form relationships, both formal and informal, with other men (Chaffin et al., 1995).

The importance of social networks has been noted in several studies (Tysl, 1993; Melia and Lyttle, 1986). The studies show that an individual's network is not simply a support system, rather the "sum total of all those people with whom he/she barter" for personal power (Melia and Lyttle, 1986). The information and support gleaned from the informal social networks provides the personal power necessary to qualify for advancement in formal power and status and to satisfactorily get work done. One would surmise that at some point, the women occupying manager positions did use the influence of their social networks to assist them with promotions, job performance, recommendations and job opportunities. If informal channels of communication are the primary means of communicating, women might be at a disadvantage due to the "old boy" network and the men's tendency to converse with and include others like themselves, i.e., other men. On the other hand, women at lower levels in the organization have traditionally been the keepers of a great deal of information.

Executive women may not perceive these women to be an information source, but a large part of organizational communication is generated and disseminated at lower levels in the city. If there is indeed an advantage to same sex communication, women in executive positions would well be advised to network with women at all levels even as they progress to higher levels in the organization.

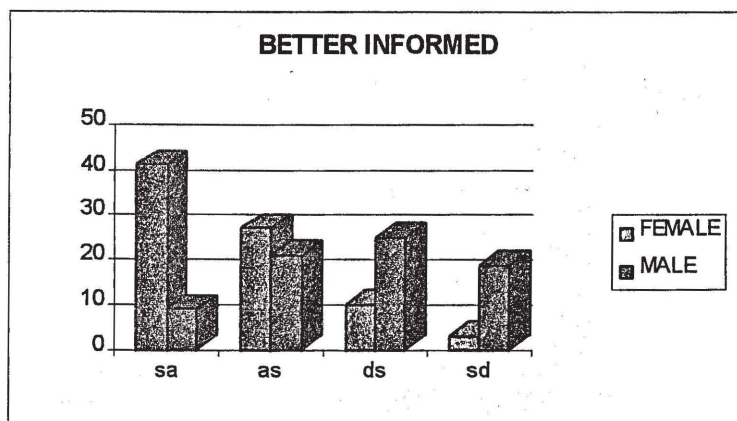
Table 3.16: Women in city manager positions have to be better informed and work harder than men to make it.

WOMEN HAVE TO BE BETTER INFORMED AND WORK HARDER	FEMALE		MALE	
STRONGLY AGREE	41	50.61%	9	12.16%
AGREE SOMEWHAT	27	33.33%	21	28.38%
DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	10	12.34%	25	33.78%
STRONGLY DISAGREE	3	3.70%	19	25.68%
TOTAL	81		74	

$$x^2 = 31.19$$

$$p > .001$$

Graph 3.16: Women in city manager positions have to be better informed and work harder than men to make it.



A statistically significant 83.94% of the females agreed or agreed somewhat to this statement compared to less than half (40.54%) of the men. The perception on the part of the women is that they have to be better informed and work harder to be successful city managers. This perception may relate to the female survey respondents having a higher level of education than the males. This is consistent with Deux (1976) findings which state that women have a more difficult time in proving their abilities because their success is generally attributed to luck, as opposed to men's achievements, which are credited to ability. Pearson et al. (1985) found that men consider their jobs more difficult than female leaders who occupy the same position. These findings conclude that men do not perceive women having to work harder or be more informed to be successful. Of course, the question only deals with perceptions, but it is interesting that while fewer men than women agreed, forty percent perceived the adage to be true.

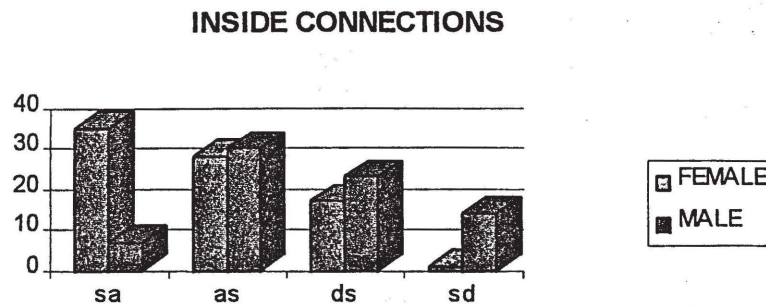
Table 3.17: One is more likely to find men with "inside connections" than women.

MORE MEN WITH INSIDE CONNECTIONS THAN WOMEN	FEMALE		MALE	
STRONGLY AGREE	35	43.21%	7	9.46%
AGREE SOMEWHAT	28	34.57%	30	40.34%
DISAGREE SOMEWHAT	17	20.99%	23	31.08%
STRONGLY DISAGREE	1	1.24%	14	18.92%
TOTAL	81		74	

$$\chi^2 = 29.12$$

$$p > .001$$

Graph 3.17: One is more likely to find men with "inside connections" than women.



This statement relates to the earlier responses regarding informal connections and networks. Women tend to recognize the importance of connections and perceive that who you know is as important as ability and skills. Seventy-seven percent of the females agree with this statement as opposed to fifty percent of the men. As earlier findings report, men have more role models, mentors and professional networking relationships than women. According to Reich (1986), women are less likely than men to value

networking as critical to their advancement so, the perception that men are more likely to have perceived inside connections is not surprising. These findings also relate to Kanter's (1977) theory regarding "proportions." It may be difficult for women to be included in the "inside connections" as long as they are perceived as not making a significant impact by men, due to the smaller number of female managers in the workplace.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCLUSIONS

A growing body of literature regarding women in public administration is available. However, there has been limited research concerning women in local government and nearly none specifically citing females as city managers. To better describe the few women who are city managers today and to compare them to their male counterparts, a questionnaire was sent to all female city managers, a set of assistant managers and a selected matched number of male city managers and assistants. There were 160 usable returns. The questionnaire also attempts to determine if there are differing understandings of how gender relates to such complex organizations as city government.

Based on the survey findings, several conclusions can be drawn regarding the social demographics. The female city managers tended to be younger than their male counterparts (Table 3.1). Most men and women surveyed were married, but a larger percentage of women managers were single, separated or divorced (Table 3.2). The Kelly et al. (1991) comparative study reveals that while progress has been made regarding women moving into elite state positions, it has been at a high personal price. Equality in elite positions has not been achieved, even when fast-tracking occurs.

More women hold advanced degrees than did men (Table 3.4). These demographics are consistent with earlier studies as noted in the review of literature (Stanley, 1989; Guy, 1992). Both men and women responded similarly to the question regarding educational preparation. They stated that additional computer skill training is needed and that less theory and more practical application would have been beneficial. According to Guy (1992), the issue of education also relates to the notion of social networks since friendships that are developed in college often serve as important links to jobs in the future. Even if the person-to-person links are lost through geographic relocation, the relationships that are developed through advanced education, along with the skills necessary to handle top-level posts, translate into a greater likelihood that friends will assist other friends, if needed, at some point in the future.

This connection between higher education and networks became evident when a number of male managers in this survey advised prospective city managers to attend Kansas University. Evidently, they felt that the education received, as well as the connections made at Kansas University, would be beneficial to students entering the field of public administration. No female respondents made the same or similar statements.

There was no significant difference regarding years with the organization. The most notable difference pertained to men (45.1%) being employed with their current organization for eleven years or more compared to 33.7% of women (Table 3.5). It will not be possible for women to move into city manager positions until the men relocate,

terminate or retire. This could account for the large number of female assistant managers, but not managers. Perhaps the women are unable to progress to the highest post in the city because the men are already there and have been for a number of years.

Consistent with earlier research (Kelly et al., 1991; Lewis and Nice, 1991; Stanley, 1987), the female managers earn less than the men. Almost half (49%) of the female managers earn less than \$59,000 per year compared to 28.6% of the men, while 54% of the men earn over \$70,000 annually. Since the men have been in the positions longer periods of time, they would be at a higher rate due to the annual pay adjustments and merit increases. But, overall there was no significant difference in the number of years with the current organization between the men and women, and the female managers had more education. However, additional research could examine whether this difference may also be a result of gender bias in the workforce. As earlier studies indicate, organizations may pay a man more than a woman in a similar position for a number of reasons, all unrelated to performance or experience.

The second hypothesis pertained to mentors and influential persons in the manager's life (Table 3.7). The results indicate that 48.22% of the women and 35.56% of the men perceive that no one influenced them to enter the field of city management. However, of those who did state that someone influenced them to enter public administration, men (28.9%) and women (19.2%) most often identified a professor

provided the influence. The questionnaire did not ask participants to indicate the gender of the person who influenced them.

Earlier studies indicate that both men and women benefit from being mentored (Vertz, 1985; Dreher and Ash, 1990; Hale, 1992). Women benefit in at least three ways when they have access to women in top level positions. They not only benefit from learning organizational skills, due to their improved communication and rapport; they also learn that their sex need not preclude them from achieving higher ranks. And, the increasing number of female mentors in high positions demonstrates to men that women are capable of serving as role models for employees at lower levels in the organization. Nevertheless, more women than men did not ascribe a mentor.

The third hypothesis related to social networks, specifically access to information and information gathering techniques. Approximately one-half of both men and women indicated that there are some situations in which they are unable to gain needed information (Table 3.8). When asked to state the perceived reasons, their responses were similar, but women more often mentioned time constraints and men more often find people unwilling to share information.

Nearly half of the women (44.6%) and almost none (3.89%) of the men applied a gender consciousness to methods of information retrieval (Table 3.10). Generally, the women who said gender does make a difference, stated that the positive attributes that women tend to exhibit, such as listening, seeking information and asking questions

shaped their procedures. The men (88.32%) did not have the same positive vision of their gender stating that being a man does not shape their information gathering procedures.

An overwhelming majority of female managers (94%) perceive that women are as effective as men at gathering information (Table 3.11). The men were asked if they perceive men as being as effective as women at information gathering and 76.6% agreed with the statement. However, almost a quarter of the men (23.4%) stated that they disagree or don't know. Women are confident of the abilities of their gender, more so than men are confident of theirs.

When managers were asked if, as a man or a woman, there are special traits which affect their ability to access information important to their work as a city manager, their responses were quite different (Table 3.121). Females (45.8%) stated yes, as opposed to only 11.8% of the men. Several women listed their effective listening skills and their non-threatening demeanor as perceived special traits. Several men stated that gender is irrelevant in accessing information.

The questions regarding "old girls" and "old boys" networks elicited significant differences in the male and female responses (Table 3.13). Seventy-one percent of the women do not feel that an "old girls" network exists, while over half (57.89%) of the men perceive an "old boys" network does. This may relate to the small number of female city managers across the nation. However, the majority of secretaries and

administrative staff in municipal government are women. So, the female managers may not be taking advantage of a possible network of women that already exists within their organizations. The 23.38% who perceive an “old girls” network exists are either more perceptive of an interpersonal reality or in the vanguard of women building a power structure with other women.

The men gave advice regarding education which included attending Kansas University. This may indicate that an “old boys” network exists between those managers who graduated from the same educational institution. While more women held post graduate degrees than men, they did not mention attending a specific university as advice to prospective managers, and therefore, may not perceive it as advantageous, as the men did.

The final hypothesis pertained to four statements which the managers responded to indicating their degree of agreement or disagreement. Seventy-nine percent of the women agreed with the first statement, “Your advancement in city government depends as much on your connections as your abilities.” (Table 3.14) The men, on the other hand, were divided on their response, 53.9% agreed and 46.1% disagreed. Regarding the second statement, a large majority of the women and men agreed that, “More useful information travels on the informal networks than through formal channels.” (Table 3.15)

Statement number three, “Women in city manager positions have to be better informed and work harder than men to make it,” resulted in significant differences in the female and male responses (Table 3.16). An overwhelming 83.9% of the women agreed with the statement while less than half of the men (40.6%) agreed, but that is a remarkable observation for these men to make..

The final statement, “One is more likely to find men with “inside connections” than women,” also resulted in statistically significant differences in male and female responses (Table 3.17). Over three-fourths (77.8%) of the women agreed with this statement. The men were divided with 50% in agreement and 50% disagree.

Recommendations for Future Research

Several paths in the study of female city managers deserve further investigation: First, has female access to city manager posts continued to increase? If so, as the number of females increase, what changes, if any, are occurring in the gender similarities and differences among male and female city managers? Kanter (1987) would predict significant changes, additional research could confirm her earlier predictions. We might expect that the well-established similarities in attributes, achievements, and activities would continue. Have the gender differences in age, mobility, mentors and routes to the top altered? Next, beyond the arena of local government, several possible research opportunities exist. What are the access patterns and opportunities for women executives in national, state and local governments? Are

the access avenues or barriers to executive posts similar or different from those we have found in local government? Does greater access to administrative posts by women precede or follow the increased presence of women in elected political posts?

Based on the number of women continuing to enter the field of local government, the survey could be redistributed to solicit responses from current female managers. Specific survey changes and additions might include, asking the females if they think an "old boys" network exists and ask the male managers if they feel an "old girls" network exists. It might also be interesting to ask the women if they are part of the "old boys" network and vice versa. Also, examining the family status, as opposed to marital status, of both the male and female managers would be an interesting addition. And, determining the gender of the person who influenced the manager to enter the field of public administration and the type of degree he or she received could enhance the effectiveness of the survey.

As is often the case with surveying and perhaps with targeted interviewing, the self-reported behaviors and responses may be very different from the actual behaviors exhibited by male and female managers on the job. In order to determine whether gender makes a difference in the actual day-to-day operations of city administrators, an in-depth, over-time analysis of selected managers and actual policy is needed. Some of these and related political perceptions might best be expanded through selected interviews.

The women who have attained city manager level positions are to be commended. We can learn from their efforts and ability to circumvent the real and perceived barriers

which exist for women in local government. This study started with the realization that there was little data available regarding city managers and very few women to study.

The women who responded to the questionnaire have succeeded in a traditionally male position and are aware of the gender implications. They have the gender consciousness to perceive positive “feminine” traits and to perceive “outsider” status. At the same time, they are either not politically astute enough to utilize an “old girls” network, or, perhaps more likely, have not put the label on the one that already exists.

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APPENDIX A
LIST OF CITIES AND FEMALE
ASSISTANTS AND MANAGERS

Number of City and Assistant Managers Surveyed from Each State

88

(Total of female city and assistant managers in each state)

Northeast Region

Connecticut	5
Delaware	1
Maine	1
Maryland	0
Massachusetts	6
New Hampshire	1
New Jersey	6
New York	2
Pennsylvania	12
Rhode Island	1
Vermont	0
Total	35

Southeast Region

Alabama	3
Florida	5
Georgia	1
Kentucky	2
Mississippi	0
North Carolina	7
South Carolina	1
Tennessee	2
Virginia	4
West Virginia	2
Total	27

Midwest Region

Illinois	10
Indiana	7
Iowa	5
Michigan	8

Minnesota	6
Missouri	6
Ohio	7
Wisconsin	1
Total	50

Mountain-Plains Region

Arizona	3
Arkansas	2
Colorado	8
Idaho	0
Kansas	3
Louisiana	5
Montana	0
Nebraska	3
New Mexico	1
North Dakota	1
Oklahoma	2
South Dakota	0
Texas	9
Utah	1
Wyoming	1
Total	39

West Coast Region

California	54
Nevada	3
Oregon	1
Washington	2
Total	60

APPENDIX B
FEMALE QUESTIONNAIRE

CITY MANAGER QUESTIONNAIRE

(f)

General Background

1. Your name (please print): _____
(last) (first) (middle/maiden)
2. Age: _____
3. Marital Status: _____ Single _____ Separated
_____ Married _____ Divorced
_____ Widowed
4. Race: (optional) _____ Anglo/White American _____ Hispanic American
_____ African American _____ American Indian
_____ Asian Pacific American _____ Other (specify)
5. Information about educational attainment:

	Year awarded	Major Field	College/Univ.
Bachelor's:	_____	_____	_____
Master's:	_____	_____	_____
Doctorate:	_____	_____	_____
Honorary:	_____	_____	_____
Professional (Law, Medicine, etc.):	_____	_____	_____
6. Did any person have a major influence on your professional life during your formal education? ____yes ____no
If yes, please describe the nature of the relationship and the type of guidance provided:

Work History

7. Approximately how many people do you supervise for your organization? _____
8. How many years have you been with this organization? (Please attach a resume detailing your work history) _____
9. What is your present income? \$30-39,999 _____ \$40-49,999 _____ \$50-59,999 _____ \$60-69,999 _____ \$70 or more _____
10. When did you first decide to become a City Manager?
11. Who/what most influenced your career choice?

Information Gathering

12. List and prioritize your information gathering sources. Here, an information source is understood to be the types of people you talk to on a regular basis to obtain information that helps you function effectively as a City Manager.

(Most Important): _____
 (2nd Most Important): _____
 (3rd Most Important): _____
 (4th Most Important): _____
 (5th Most Important): _____

13. In what ways do you feel technological advances (i.e., computers, software, faxes, modems) have enhanced your ability to gather information?

14. Are there some situations where you are unable to gain information you need? ☐no ☐yes
If yes, what are the circumstances and why is the information unavailable to you?

15. When you want to gain accurate information fast, to whom (specify position and working relationship) or to what (specify method/source) do you turn?

TOPIC (topic that you want to gain gain information about)	POSITION (position of the person you refer to for information)	METHOD/SOURCE (be specific)
--	---	--------------------------------

a.

b.

c.

d.

e.

16. Does being a woman shape the procedures by which you gather information relevant to your work as a City Manager?
☐no ☐yes If yes, how?

17. Do you believe that women, in general, are as effective at information gathering as men?
☐women are as effective as men
☐women are not as effective as men

18. Does being one of the few female City Managers in the United States have any affect upon your ability to gather information? ☐no ☐yes If yes, how?

19. If there were more female City Managers, in the United States, would your information gathering ability be improved?
☐no ☐yes If yes, how?

20. How many hours per week do you personally obtain information by use of: a facsimile machine ☐
a personal computer ☐ a telephone ☐ a car phone ☐ personal face-to-face conversation ☐

Information Access

21. Are there any special traits that you feel, as a woman, have affected your ability to have access to information important to your work as a City Manager? ____no ____yes If yes, please list:
22. (optional) Do you think an "old girls" network exists in local government? ____no ____yes
Are you part of it?
How do you become part of it?
23. Next, several statements will be presented. Based on your observations, state whether you tend to: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree Somewhat (AS), Disagree Somewhat (DS), or Strongly Disagree (SD) with each statement.
- ____a. Your advancement in city government depends as much on your connections as on your abilities.
____b. More useful information travels on the informal networks than through formal channels.
____c. Women in city manager positions have to be better informed and work harder than men to make it.
____d. One is more likely to find men with "inside connections" than women.

Please respond to three hypothetical situations. I realize that your answers are also hypothetical answers. For each scenario, I will ask you to list **who** or **what** positions inside or outside your organization would be involved and to describe the nature of their involvement: (Feel free to attach your responses)

24. The City council directs you to cut each department budget by 10% within a month. In your experience, list who or what positions you would turn to to help you gain the information required to make such decisions and describe the ways in which each would be involved. Upon whom would you rely for the most critical and accurate information about these decisions? What would be your role in the process?
25. It's your first day as the City Manager and you want to establish yourself quickly. What information decisions did you make prior to your first day? (i.e., Who will you see on your first day? What do you want to know about the organization? The employees?)
26. Your Chief of Police has been accused of wrong-doing by the media and by outspoken members of the community. From whom would you seek information to authenticate the reports?

Executive Preparation

27. What is your personal definition of a successful executive?

28. Have you felt adequately prepared by your educational background to deal with information requirements of your job? ____ Yes ____ No If not, what would have provided you a better preparation?

Future Preparation

29. What advice would you give to women college students preparing for city management roles?
Concerning education:

Concerning networking (professional groups, mentors):

Concerning the management of information:

Other:

30. Any additional comments or information about the job of City Manager that you add will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you for your participation.

APPENDIX C
MALE QUESTIONNAIRE

CITY MANAGER QUESTIONNAIRE

(m)

General Background

1. Your name (please print): _____
(last) (first) (middle)
2. Age: _____
3. Marital Status: _____ Single _____ Separated
_____ Married _____ Divorced
_____ Widowed
4. Race: (optional) _____ Anglo/White American _____ Hispanic American
_____ African American _____ American Indian
_____ Asian Pacific American _____ Other (specify)
5. Information about educational attainment:

	Year awarded	Major Field	College/Univ.
Bachelor's:	_____	_____	_____
Master's:	_____	_____	_____
Doctorate:	_____	_____	_____
Honorary:	_____	_____	_____
Professional (Law, Medicine, etc.):	_____	_____	_____
6. Did any person have a major influence on your professional life during your formal education? _____ yes _____ no
If yes, please describe the nature of the relationship and the type of guidance provided:

Work History

7. Approximately how many people do you supervise for your organization? _____
8. How many years have you been with this organization? (Please attach a resume detailing your work history) _____
9. What is your present income? \$30-39,999 _____ \$40-49,999 _____ \$50-59,999 _____ \$60-69,999 _____ \$70 or more _____
10. When did you first decide to become a City Manager? _____
11. Who/what most influenced your career choice? _____

Information Gathering

12. List and prioritize your information gathering sources. Here, an information source is understood to be the types of people you talk to on a regular basis to obtain information that helps you function effectively as a City Manager.

(Most Important): _____
 (2nd Most Important): _____
 (3rd Most Important): _____
 (4th Most Important): _____
 (5th Most Important): _____

13. In what ways do you feel technological advances (i.e., computers, software, faxes, modems) have enhanced your ability to gather information?

14. Are there some situations where you are unable to gain information you need? ☐ no ☐ yes
If yes, what are the circumstances and why is the information unavailable to you?

15. When you want to gain accurate information fast, to whom (specify position and working relationship) or to what (specify method/source) do you turn?

TOPIC (topic that you want to gain gain information about)	POSITION (position of the person you refer to for information)	METHOD/SOURCE (be specific)
--	---	--------------------------------

- a.
b.
c.
d.
e.

16. Does being a man shape the procedures by which you gather information relevant to your work as a City Manager?
☐ no ☐ yes If yes, how?

17. Do you believe that men, in general, are as effective at information gathering as women?
☐ men are effective as women
☐ men are not as effective as women

18. If there were more female City Managers, in the United States, would your information gathering ability be impacted?
☐ no ☐ yes If yes, how?

19. How many hours per week do you personally obtain information by use of: a facsimile machine ☐
a personal computer ☐ a telephone ☐ a car phone ☐ personal face-to-face conversation ☐

Information Access

20. Are there any special traits that you, as a man, bring to your job that increase your ability to have access to information important to your work as a City Manager? ☐ no ☐ yes If yes, please list:

21. (optional) Some people say there's an "old boys" network within city government. Do you think this is true? ____no
 ____yes Are you part of it?
 How do you become part of it?
22. Next, several statements will be presented. Based on your observations, state whether you tend to: Strongly Agree (SA), Agree Somewhat (AS), Disagree Somewhat (DS), or Strongly Disagree (SD) with each statement.
- ____a. Your advancement in city government depends as much on your connections as on your abilities.
 ____b. More useful information travels on the informal networks than through formal channels.
 ____c. Women in city manager positions have to be better informed and work harder than men to make it.
 ____d. One is more likely to find men with "inside connections" than women.

Please respond to three hypothetical situations. I realize that your answers are also hypothetical answers. For each scenario, I will ask you to list who or what positions inside or outside your organization would be involved and to describe the nature of their involvement: (Feel free to attach your responses)

23. The City council directs you to cut each department budget by 10% within a month. In your experience, list who or what positions you would turn to to help you gain the information required to make such decisions and describe the ways in which each would be involved. Upon whom would you rely for the most critical and accurate information about these decisions? What would be your role in the process?
24. It's your first day as the City Manager and you want to establish yourself quickly. What information decisions did you make prior to your first day? (i.e., Who will you see on your first day? What do you want to know about the organization? The employees?)
25. Your Chief of Police has been accused of wrong-doing by the media and by outspoken members of the community. From whom would you seek information to authenticate the reports?

Executive Preparation

26. What is your personal definition of a successful executive?
27. Have you felt adequately prepared by your educational background to deal with information requirements of your job? ____Yes ____No If not, what would have provided you a better preparation?

Future Preparation

28. What advice would you give to men college students preparing for city management roles?
Concerning education:

Concerning networking (professional groups, mentors):

Concerning the management of information:

Other:

29. Any additional comments or information about the job of City Manager that you add will be greatly appreciated.

Thank you for your participation.