

LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS, WORK/FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS, AND  
DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF WOMEN SUPERINTENDENTS  
AND ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS IN TEXAS

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A DISSERTATION

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BY

HELEN SULLIVAN, B.S., M.ED.

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TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY  
DENTON, TEXAS

October 19, 1995  
Date

To the Associate Vice President for Research  
and Dean for Graduate Studies:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Helen Terry Sullivan entitled "Leadership Characteristics, Work/Family Characteristics, and Demographic Characteristics of Women Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents in Texas." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy, with a major in Early Childhood Education.

Vera T. Gershner  
Vera T. Gershner, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation  
and recommend its acceptance:

Sara W. Lundsteen  
Howard P. Stone

Henry Kimison  
Department Chair

Michael M.  
Dean, College of Education  
and Human Ecology

Accepted  
Jessie M. Thompson

Associate Vice President for Research  
and Dean of Graduate Studies



## DEDICATION

This work is dedicated with all sincerity, to the many who have shared in my educational experiences. I would like to mention just a few of those special people beginning with my parents, Custer and Hazle Terry, who taught me the importance of an education. My aunt, Cletha Petty, worked with me to teach me correct enunciation of words in my preschool years; my first-grade teacher, Mrs. Veda Rhea Terry, instilled in me the excitement of learning; and continuing through my doctoral years, Dr. Vera Gershner reinforced the idea of not giving up until a project is completed.

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## ABSTRACT

# LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS, WORK/FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS, AND DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION OF WOMEN SUPERINTENDENTS AND ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS IN TEXAS

Helen Sullivan, B.S., M.Ed.

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The purpose of this study was twofold. First, it was designed to describe that unique minority of educational leaders who are female and who are currently superintendents or assistant superintendents in Texas public school districts. Second, the study compared the women superintendents and assistant superintendents of school districts in Texas which have a population of less than 2000 students to those districts with a population of more than 2000 students. There were 123 participants in the sample. Data were elicited via a 221-survey questionnaire addressing three rubrics: (a) leadership characteristics, (b) work/family characteristics, and (c) demographic information. Five null hypotheses explored possible differences between the two groups (large school districts, Group I and small school districts, Group II) in these areas. Data analyses addressed the five null hypotheses at a



significance level of .01. Responses in the Likert response format were examined utilizing multiple  $t$  tests, after testing the assumption of equal and unequal variances. All five null hypotheses were retained.

This study supports the notion that these women administrators are more alike than they are different since the number and type of commonalities exceed differences. It had been assumed that the size of the school districts and the variation in responsibilities might be reflected in significantly different types of administrators. However, if this is true, this study did not support such an assumption.

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

#### Background of the Problem

For the last 3 decades, the feminist movement has had a major impact on women aspiring to nontraditional roles. The Civil Rights Act passed in the sixties and other executive orders such as Title IX have succeeded in making American organizations aware of women both in blue-collar and managerial jobs (Hennig & Jardim, 1977). While law controls formal structure, the implementation of its well-intended thrust must take place through the mechanisms of the informal structure. In school administration much of that structure is populated almost entirely by men. This is an interesting dilemma. Since the majority of the teaching staff are women, why are they not in the highest levels of administration (i.e., the positions of superintendents and assistant superintendents)?

Ella Flagg Young, then superintendent of the Chicago public schools at the turn of the century, predicted that "in the near future, we shall have more women than men in charge of the vast education system" (Gotwalt & Towns, 1986, p. 13). She also stated that this is woman's natural field

and that women are no longer satisfied to do the greatest part of the work and, yet, be denied leadership (Gotwalt & Towns, 1986). Now 8 decades later, the prediction is still far from fulfilled. In fact, the number of women in school administration has declined percentage wise in the last 50 years (Gotwalt & Towns, 1986). Between 1910 and 1930, 8 women served as state superintendents, 45 as district superintendents and 213 as county superintendents. Today, only 4% of the United States public school superintendents are women (Gotwalt & Towns, 1986). However, that is a slight increase compared to a study conducted by Jones and Montenegro (1982) which showed that large inequities still remain; and that women constituted less than 2% of superintendents in the 1981-1982 school year. Some attribute this decline to the fact that school administration jobs have been redefined as management rather than teaching (Lyman & Speizer, 1980). In the state of Texas, the figures are somewhat more positive. The statistics for the 1993-94 school year reported the number of female superintendents as 6%.

A number of studies have been conducted to examine the existing situation, and many explanations have been offered (Adkison, 1981; Chion-Kenney, 1994; Funk, 1986; Hennig & Jardim, 1977; Marshall, 1988; Pavan, 1988; Shakeshaft & Nowell, 1984; Zellman, 1976). Funk's research (1986) shows



that women do indeed prepare for leadership roles. Her study included 66 female public school executives in the Dallas/Fort Worth metroplex. She found that all held mid-management certificates, many held supervision certificates as well as superintendent certificates, and 23 possessed a doctoral degree (Funk, 1986).

According to a study by Hennig and Jardim (1977), the causes can be described as internal and external barriers. Internal barriers consist of role conflict: (a) lack of aggressiveness such as waiting to be chosen, discovered, invited, persuaded, or asked to accept a promotion; (b) reluctance to take risks; or (c) a lack of self-confidence. External barriers that prevent women from high achievement in school administration include: (a) lack of sponsorship and role models, (b) resentment by others, (c) family responsibilities, and (d) perceptions of female characteristics as being incongruent with job demands (Jones & Montenegro, 1983). Jones and Montenegro (1983) also contrasted gender perspectives with men asking, "What's in it for me?", and women asking, "Can I measure up?" (p. 17).

Adkison (1981) explained another barrier which may have influenced women's underrepresentation in school administration as a result of socialization to sex role stereotypes. The structural characteristics of organizations and the problem of sex-role stereotypes compounded may



hinder women's rise in management and limit the effectiveness of those who do attain managerial positions. Zellman (1976) summarized the ways structural factors in society limit women's institutional participation.

The values and beliefs that we hold as a nation have created structures and institutions whose norms and rules create barriers to women's full and equal participation. Until recently it was generally agreed that it was up to the individual woman to deal with these barriers and find personal solutions to the often conflicting demands posed by these institutions. Increasingly these barriers are being viewed as a societal problem, and societal solutions in the form of changes in institutions are being advocated. (p. 37)

Shakeshaft and Nowell (1984) described the White male dominance in managerial positions as androcentrism. They reported that most theories and much research which have molded the thinking of today's society, were developed from the male perspective which elevates the masculine gender to the level of the universe; and, thus, the ideal.

Linguistic analysis may be a valuable tool for understanding the culture of school leadership. Marshall (1988) recognized that anthropologists have long attributed language as being a key in identifying the values and beliefs that explain cultural patterns. Her studies reported gender differences in language patterns, which have "resulted in women being stereotypically labeled as the

'weaker sex,' with weak connoting not only biological inferiority but intellectual inferiority as well" (p. 184).

One consultant for superintendent searches discusses some additional rationale for the underrepresentation of women and minorities as superintendents. The consultant suggests that "family anchors" may play a major role because mobility is an important aspect in a superintendent's career (Chase & Bell, 1994, p. 37). Therefore, if a woman has a spouse who has been the major breadwinner, she is not likely to stay in the running for maintaining a superintendent's position. In fact, Chion-Kenney (1994) found that women who succeeded in reaching the superintendent's position often adapted work patterns similar to their male counterparts (i.e., long hours, travel away from home, minimal home responsibilities, and high job priorities).

Despite the Civil Rights Act and other executive orders, search consultants acknowledge that discrimination may limit access of women to high level positions (Chion-Kenney, 1994). Pavan's study (1988) revealed that women spent more months than men looking for their first administration job, made more applications than men, and had more interviews than men.

### Purpose

The purpose for this study was twofold. First, it was designed to describe that unique minority of educational

leaders who are female and who are currently superintendents or assistant superintendents in Texas public school districts. Second, the study was concerned about the differences in the women administrators in school districts with a student population of less than 2000 and those in school districts of more than 2000 students. The leadership characteristics, the work/family characteristics, and the demographic information for both groups were examined by survey (see Appendix A). These superintendents ( $n=60$ ) and assistant superintendents ( $n=200$ ) form the census sample of 260 female educational leaders who represent 197 school districts identified by the Texas Education Agency. These women are described by leadership characteristics and their work/family characteristics.

Their demographic data and the size of the district they lead provide possible correlates to their life experience and achievement. Responses on Leadership Characteristics reflected their image of themselves, their ability to influence others, and how those who report directly to them perceive them.

The Work/Family Characteristics section assesses the dedication of the participants to their career, the degree of conflict which may exist between work and family responsibilities, and factual information concerning the family and the school district where they are employed. The

Demographic section pertains strictly to personal characteristics.

#### Definition of Terms

Androcentrism is the elevation of the masculine to the level of the universe and the ideal: it is an honoring of men and the male principal above women and the female (Shakeshaft & Nowell, 1984).

Demographic Information includes age, hours worked per week, marital status, salary, spouse's salary, education, and personal information (see Appendix A, Section III of survey questionnaire).

"Good ole' boys group" is a phrase used to refer to male administrators, board members, and other organizations that might be predominantly male who play golf or meet together informally outside of business sessions (Schmuck, 1986, p. 97).

Leadership Characteristics are the characteristics identified in section I of the survey questionnaire (see Appendix A), and which elicit the self-perceptions of the sample in relationship to themselves and how others perceive them.

Title IX of the Educational Amendments Act of 1972 is a regulation that prohibits sex discrimination in programs and activities of educational systems under the threat of



cutting federal funds to educational agencies and institutions that do not comply (Stromquist, 1993).

Transactional Leader is defined as one who specifies clearly what is expected of subordinates and identifies the subsequent rewards related to the successful completion of tasks (Rosener, 1990).

Transformational Leader is defined as one who motivates by empowering their subordinates to transform their self-interests into the achievement of the organization's results, desires, and goals (Rosener, 1990).

Work/Family Characteristics are identified in section II of the survey questionnaire (see Appendix A), and elicit the self-perceptions of the sample's relationship of themselves and their job, of themselves and family, and of themselves and family life. Organizational information is elicited from this section, also.

### Assumptions

It was assumed that the women surveyed in this study were very satisfied in their present position, and being in this position was the result of aspiring toward it. The study also assumed that one of the primary goals of the women in this study was to benefit the students in their respective school districts regardless of any necessary personal sacrifices. A third assumption of this study was that differences in small and larger school districts would

be reflected in the perceptions of the superintendents or assistant superintendents from those districts. The literature suggests that small rural districts differ from urban districts in their acceptance of non-traditional roles for women (Jones, 1994). For these reasons the data were also grouped to compare leaders in districts of 2000 or more ADA (Group I) to leaders of districts with less than 2000 ADA (Group II).

### Limitations

The sample was delimited to women superintendents and assistant superintendents for the state of Texas since this sample has not been specifically described before. The study is limited by self-report data, and by the necessary utilization of non-standardized questionnaires. The questionnaire used was a modification of a form that the Department of Business and Economics of Texas Woman's University, Denton, Texas used to collect data for the monographs "Executive Women in the Dallas/Fort Worth Metroplex" and "Gender Differences in Career Attitudes for Female Dominated Professions."

### Null Hypotheses

Ho 1. Self-perceptions of administrators in large school districts (Group I) and small school districts (Group II), as measured by the survey questionnaire, will not differ significantly.

Ho 2. Self-perceptions of the ability to influence others of the administrators in large school districts (Group I) and small school districts (Group II), as measured by the survey questionnaire, will not differ significantly.

Ho 3. Self-perceptions of how supervised personnel perceive the administrators themselves in large school districts (Group I) and small school districts (Group II), as measured by the survey questionnaire, will not differ significantly.

Ho 4. The reported degree of dedication to career or work of the administrators in large school districts (Group I) and small school districts (Group II) will not differ significantly.

Ho 5. The degree of conflict which may exist between work and family responsibilities of the administrators in large school districts (Group II) and small school districts (Group I) will not differ significantly.



### Summary

This study was designed to describe a unique population of women, those in the top position of educational leadership. The study compares women superintendents and assistant superintendents in Texas public districts with 2000 or more ADA to those in districts of less than 2000 ADA. The study is based on their perceptions of themselves as they relate to leadership, perceptions of others, personal sources of influence, dedication to their careers, and conflicts between work and family responsibilities.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Introduction

The educational periodicals are filled with articles addressing the shortage of women in the peak leadership positions of education despite their prominence in the profession. Since 1950 the number of women in education administration has declined as administrative jobs have been redefined as management rather than teaching (Lyman & Speizer, 1980). A management title is linked with more prestige, higher salaries, and more males. Lyman and Speizer (1980) discuss Estler's (1975) rationale for the scarcity of women in leadership positions which she ascribed to one of three models: a woman's place model, a discrimination model, or a meritocracy model.

The woman's place model is based on the assumption that the absence of women in leadership positions is due to the differential socialization of women and men. As they grow up, women learn to be nurturant rather than aggressive, to defer to the opinions of men, and to prefer the leadership of men to women. Schmuck (1976), in her article "The Spirit of Title IX: Men's Work and Women's Work in Oregon Public

Schools," discusses how this may be attributed to sex stereotyping which she defines as a process by which society assigns characteristics to individuals on the basis of their sex. She gives an anecdotal illustration of sex role stereotyping at work in the educational setting. She was on a plane trip and her male seat partner asked what kind of work she did. She told him she was a teacher. He proceeded to express his beliefs concerning the importance of the elementary years, and after a rather lengthy discourse on elementary school, he asked her what age she taught. When she said "about 20 years old", he was embarrassed and laughed at his mistake. Because she was a woman, he assumed she taught elementary school. She points out that had this been a male, he probably would have assumed that she worked with older students. She mentions that it has only been in the last few decades that elementary school teaching has been viewed as an appropriate masculine activity. At the writing of her article there had been an 8% increase in the past decade of men as elementary school teachers in the Oregon schools (Schmuck, 1976).

The discrimination model points to those institutional patterns in the training and hiring of administrators that encourage the promotion of men rather than women. Edson (1987) discusses her findings of a study involving 142 women actively pursuing administrative careers. She began this

study in 1979-1980 addressing the following areas: (a) who these women were, (b) why they pursued administrative goals given the well-documented barriers in the field, and (c) what their experiences in the field were. In the initial study, the women admitted feeling hindered in their attempts to advance in educational administration chiefly by discrimination against women in the field. The women concluded they had to be far superior to male candidates just to be considered for an administrative position.

In the 1984-85 follow-up of these same women, it was found that many had returned to graduate school to enhance their career opportunities. "They believed that a doctorate would give them an edge in the job market and would help to compensate for their relatively low levels of experience when compared with typical male aspirants" (Edson, 1987, p. 267). One teacher is quoted as saying that women had to have a doctorate whereas a man with a master's degree would get the same job. It was stated that over qualification is the key to the door. "And women definitely have a harder time just getting in that door" (Edson, 1987, p. 267). At the beginning of the study 8% had doctorates, and 5 years later, 17% held either a Ph.D. or an Ed.D. (Edson, 1987).

Many rural women expressed concern about discrimination saying they hardly knew when administrative positions were available. In 1985, they reported that discrimination was



still a major concern. Actually, informants reported greater concern about discrimination than they had in the beginning of the study. They attributed greater discrimination to the political climate and to the emphasis on fiscal rather than equity, issues. The women in the study speculated that the further they moved up the administrative career ladder, the more resistance they were likely to experience in this typically male profession (Edson, 1987).

Respondents noted that the "good ole boys' network" was alive and well; that women still had to work doubly hard to get half the distance and half the credit; and that male administrators still felt threatened by female leaders in various districts (Edson, 1987, p. 270).

The meritocracy model maintains that the most competent people are chosen to move up the administrative ladder; therefore, men must be more competent than women because they are chosen so often. Nevertheless, there is no evidence to suggest that men perform better than women. In fact the literature suggests just the opposite. In her 1986 study of 66 female public school executives in the Dallas/Fort Worth metroplex, Funk found that all held mid-management certificates, many held supervision certificates as well as superintendent certificates, and 23 possessed a doctoral degree. Little support exists for the meritocracy model. According to Lyman and Speizer (1980), the women's

place model and the discrimination model together provide the best framework for understanding why women remain in teaching while men move into administration.

Albine (1992) cites a study conducted by Ludwig on the perceptions of female administrators in which her participants described what they considered to be the most important characteristics or abilities of women who achieve success in academic administration. The responses fit into four categories:

1. Women must have a strong sense of self which means they are able to be insensitive to criticism and not take it personally. They must be able to give away the credit for their accomplishments to their superiors, to their subordinates, and to the faculty committee involved in an issue. They must be able to convince others they know what they are doing.

2. Women must be dedicated to hard work and able to prioritize. Women seem to feel the necessity to work through every little detail, when men can identify the important items and just let the others sit.

3. Women must be able to listen, mediate, and generally get along well with people. According to this study, women tend to hold on to anger rather than return to business as usual.

4. Women must have the ability to strategize. Making decisions about what is and what is not worth doing well means taking risks and thinking ahead to the next job the way men do.

However, although many explanations have been offered for the disproportionate participation of women in top leadership roles, there are still no concrete answers. The question still remains why? In this study encompassing the 1,046 school districts in Texas, only 197 reported by the Texas Education Agency (TEA) have female superintendents or assistant superintendents. Although the literature is universal and does not pertain to Texas per se, obviously some conclusions can be made that are applicable to the staffing dilemma in Texas.

#### Historical Foundations

History documents significant contributions of women to education in the past. Seller (1994) has done a superb job in assembling a Bio-Bibliographical Sourcebook Women Educators in the United States 1820-1993. Sixty-six of the leading women who have made significant contributions to American education are discussed in this book. Many of them have similarities to the women in this 1995 study.

Most began as teachers; and, regardless of later accomplishments, some continued to see themselves as teachers throughout their lives. Many saw their profession



as that of servitude; an opportunity to promote learning to some who were less fortunate. Many were influenced by mothers, older sisters, and others to teach.

Alice Freeman Palmer became president of Wellesley College at the age of 26 in 1882. Her mother was a teacher. She overcame many obstacles, but her zeal to learn was observed by many of the elite in education who were an encouragement during the rough times. During her interim as president at Wellesley, she built the institution into the modernized and respected institution that the founder had envisioned. She served as the first dean (of women) in the Graduate Colleges of the University of Chicago in 1892. She was definitely a forerunner in educational advancement for women reflecting conventional gender doctrines of her times. She believed that women's character was "so delicately organized as to be fitted peculiarly for the graces and domesticities of life" (Seller, 1994, p. 353). Her accomplishments were reflections of her belief that women had to make their own way in the world and that they had the same rights as men to higher education. However, it should be noted that a number of men were influential in supporting Palmer's climb up the career ladder (Seller, 1994).

The emergence on the public scene of women as educators took place when it did because of two simultaneous and interdependent developments--the opening of higher education

to women and the popular acceptance of teaching as an important and desirable "female" occupation. Underlying both was an ideological development, the emergence of a widespread belief that women were naturally more religious and more virtuous than men and, therefore, had a special, moral, and educational mission (Seller, 1994).

Mary Lyon. Banister and Lyons' work in education stemmed from their Puritan heritage and their passion for saving souls and fitting young Americans for useful lives in a democratic society. Mary Lyon launched in 1837 the first fully endowed institution of higher education for young women. Mount Holyoke Seminary in South Hadley, Massachusetts. Her 12 years of leadership at Mount Holyoke offered to a skeptical public the best proof to that date of women's ability to master college-level subjects. It was this success that offered inspiration to founders of virtually every woman's college begun in the latter half of the 19th century. Yet, she faced the same problems of discrimination when the two largest state organizations of Congregationalist ministers failed to endorse her project, after endorsing several new male colleges. She shook her head over good men's fear of "greatness in women."

Nannie Helen Burroughs was the founder of the National Training School for Women and Girls in Washington, D.C., and one of the leading Baptist women organizers, club women, and

social feminists of her generation. She served as its first president for 52 years, from 1909 to 1961. Self-described as "the first united effort of the part of Colored Women to found an institution for the mental, moral, and spiritual culture of their sex" (Seller, 1994, p. 71). The school adopted as its motto: "We specialize in the wholly impossible" (Seller, 1994, p. 71).

Emma Hart Willard was elected superintendent of common schools which was probably the first woman to hold such a position. She actively supervised the four schools, organizing their activities and curriculum. She founded the first scientific female seminary in the country in 1821. It was written in her obituary by the New York Times that Emma Willard was "the best known teacher in America," who has well been termed the pioneer of female education. She specialized in geography and history and other subjects that were believed by many to be "beyond the purview of women" (Seller, 1994).

Celestia Susannah Parrish (1853-1918) noted pioneer of progressive education in the South, largely self-educated in her early years, taught school and college to pay for her formal education which culminated in a Ph.D. from Cornell University. She served as one of Georgia's first three state supervisors. She contributed greatly toward improving the academic standards of women's colleges and to open the doors



of southern tax-supported universities to women students. Parrish was barred from regular admission and enrollment in a correspondence course at the University of Virginia because of being a woman. She felt that women of intelligence and character had made far better mothers than those who were ignorant and timid. In the November 1901 Education Review, Parrish rephrased the question that President M. Carey Thomas of Bryn Mauer College asked, "Should the Higher Education of Women Differ from that of Men?" to "Shall the Higher Education of Women be the same as that of Men?" (Seller, 1994, p. 361). Although Parrish did not play a direct role in the opening in 1918 of the University of Georgia to White women, she was committed to the campaign to make it coeducational and influenced others through her educational and civic associations (Seller, 1994).

Catharine Beecher was a woman of her time and must be understood in the context of her time, a period of change. She saw the growing need for a common type of schooling for all people in response to the many changes that were taking place. Her obituary characterized her as a person focused on instruction and improvement. She was not a part of the feminist movement, but rather saw a parallelism in the role of motherhood and teaching. She saw in the common school movement an opportunity for women that had not been open to

them before. Women's role would be to promote national unity through their influence on children as their teachers (Seller, 1994).

Cora Stewart. Adult education was conceived by Cora Wilson Stewart (1875-1958) who lived in Rowan County, Kentucky. Cora was encouraged to run for the county school superintendent where no woman had ever had the job before. She was elected and did a good job as superintendent. She was responsible for bringing educational reforms to Kentucky. She became the first woman president of Kentucky Education Association (KEA) in 1911. Cora recognized the need for adults to read and write and because they worked days, it was necessary for them to attend school at night. The classes were scheduled to meet on nights when the moon was bright so the students could see to travel. For this reason Cora Stewart called the classes the "Moonlight Schools." Due to lack of books on adult level, it was necessary for Cora to write her own reading lessons and to motivate her students to read, she wrote news about their community. The success of the "Moonlight Schools" spread around the state from Kentucky on into Tennessee, Virginia, W. Virginia, North Carolina, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Texas, and Oklahoma. She became known around the world as the "Moonlight School Lady" (Crowe-Carraco, 1989, p. 34).



Ella Flagg Young (1845-1918) was the first female superintendent of a major city school system in Chicago 1900-1915. She earned her Ph.D. under John Dewey's teaching. Her administration was regarded as one in which many progressive reforms were achieved. She taught herself to read and write. She had no formal schooling before the age of 10. She was the first female president of National Education Association (NEA). Ella Flagg Young was the archetypical progressive: intelligently altruistic, open to change, always learning, democratic, and human. She had the progressive notion that every one should work for the good of the group. For women, she opened the tightly locked door to educational administration and the superintendency. For children she brought the fresh air of progressive reform into the state and stifling atmosphere of rote memorization and harsh discipline.

Zilpah Polly Grant Banister (1794-1874) was one of the major forces in promoting the education of women in the U.S. The strength of religious belief and the teachings of the Rev. Joseph Emerson was most influential on Zilpah Grant's ideas on education. Her close relationship with Mary Lyon was another influencing factor on her life. One of her strong points was that she insisted on the mastery of material before moving on to other material (Seller, 1994).

Christa McAuliffe. One cannot think of women educators without thinking of one who gave her life in space, Christa McAuliffe. In a presentation to the National Education Association convention on July 4, 1986, Christa's husband Steve said:

her mission was to do everything she could to give education a worthy personification . . . a personification that would be effectively heard when she spoke of the critical needs for adequate educational resources--in the national interest and when she demanded salaries in order to keep the best and brightest in the classroom.  
(Corrigan, 1993, p. 151)

Corrigan's book, A Journal for Christa (1993), contains many letters written to Christa's mother after the tragedy of the Challenger liftoff. Two notes have been included which basically sum up the influence that Christa had on education:

Christa McAuliffe was a gentle woman of grace who displayed all the virtues of humanity, courage and self-sacrifice, but most particularly, it was so beautiful to see how this great lady inspired the school children of our country. I thank you for providing her to all of us. (Haverford, Pennsylvania) (Corrigan, 1993, p. 142)

From the mother of a teacher:

When the tragedy occurred, my daughter vowed she would teach. . . . Her first week in teaching, she wrote a note to herself that sits on her desk. It reads, "I touch the future; I teach for Christa and for me." (Berryville, Arkansas) (Corrigan, 1993, p. 142)

Shannon Lucid. Another lady astronaut Shannon Lucid prefaced a theme on rocket research which she wrote in

eighth grade, "If the science shortage is in such dire status as they claim, they'd let women in on the same grounds as men" (Fox, 1987, p. 54). She relates how she applied for jobs as a pilot all over the country but says she was 10 years too early for women in flying. She said she "used to tell herself that I only wanted the job because I was qualified, not because I was a woman" (Fox, 1987, p. 56).

Sally Ride who was the first female astronaut was a teacher. She was athletic, believed in herself, had the will of a winner, willing to take risks, and had the support and encouragement of her parents in growing up (Behrens, 1984).

#### Characteristics of Women Administrators

Gotwalt and Towns (1986) conducted a study of 176 women superintendents a few years prior to this reporting in which they sought some of the same information the present study sought such as: (a) who are the women who occupy the top management positions in public schools today, (b) what career paths did they follow to get where they are, (c) what factors contributed to their success, and (d) how do they see their leadership role.

Many aspects of the two studies were similar; yet, there were notable differences. The ages of Gotwalt and Towns' (1986) 176 participants ranged from 36 to 55 compared to the ages of the present study ranging from 35 to 76. The



number of children of the participants in the former study ranged from 1 to 2, and in the present study 1 to 5. Most (75%) of Gotwalt and Towns' (1986) participants were first-born, whereas, only 48 of the Texas participants were first-borns. The participants in both studies received family support while growing up. Parents had placed a high priority on education for daughters as well as sons. One significant difference was that only 57% of Gotwalt and Towns' (1986) participants were married, whereas, 80% of the Texas' participants indicated they were married.

Gotwalt and Towns (1986) also found that 90% of their participants grew up in small, even rural, communities, and 75% were reared within 200 miles of the school district they were serving at the time of the study. They also reflected that most who were interviewed said their sex was not an important factor in their getting the job as top administrator. Gotwalt and Towns (1986) advised that women should not get hung up on gender.

A trait worth mentioning of the 24 women interviewed which pretty well sums up how they saw their leadership role was stated by Therise Walter, superintendent of General McLane School District in Edinboro, Pennsylvania. She said, "I want to be a person who cares about children as much as teachers do" (Gotwalt & Towns, 1986). Gotwalt and Towns concluded by saying, "It might be a long time before women

out number men in top school posts, as Ella Flagg Young predicted. But maybe she was just ahead of her time" (p. 13).

The majority of school administrators today are employed in a hierarchy of positions such as assistant principals, elementary and secondary principals, assorted district level positions such as assistant and associate superintendents which lead to the superintendency (Greer & Finley, 1985). Pavan (1988) surveyed 622 aspiring and incumbent school administrators in order to document job search strategies used by men and women seeking principalships and superintendent or assistant superintendent positions. To obtain administrative jobs, women submitted more applications, had more interviews, and searched longer than men. Female incumbent superintendents made greater efforts than males, using 13 more strategies than men to overcome barriers to administrative advancement. than men.

One conclusion regarding the shortage of women school superintendents and assistant superintendents might be that they are unwilling or unable to make exceptional efforts to obtain an administrative position. Women experience family pressures to a greater degree than men. They are caretakers for their own children, spouses, and also, in many cases, their aging parents (Pavan 1987). Estler (1975) reported



from her research that the median number of years of teaching experience before appointed to an elementary principalship is five for men and fifteen for women. This report is very similar to Funk's study (1986) of 66 school administrators of which 71% had taught for 5 to 14 years before going into an administration position. Only 4 (6%) taught for a period of 1 to 4 years before leaving the teaching ranks. Also, Gotwalt and Towns (1986) reported that in all cases of their participants, their rise to success fits the pattern of the majority of women superintendents: "That is, they've climbed the ladder one rung at a time, enriching their experience and expanding their skills at each rung" (p. 14).

The superintendent of schools must be Chief Advocate for Children (CAC) and have the responsibility to lead the development of a community vision and assure its realization (Herman, 1992). The participants of Gotwalt and Towns' (1986) study advised women who are seeking the position of superintendent to be visible. According to these women, one should work to be a star in any position she holds, and "remember that visibility in state or national professional organizations also is a plus. . . . Your goal: to build a support network of professional friendships" (Gotwalt & Towns, 1986, p. 14).

Adkison's review of literature (1974), although 20 years old, sheds some light on obstacles women have had to battle to reach the top rung of the ladder for the superintendent's position. She discusses a major factor which she attributes as a reliable approach to explain women's underrepresentation in public school administration. It is role stereotyping and socialization. She reflects evidence supporting the argument that sex-role stereotypes and sex role socialization reduce the probabilities that women will seek leadership positions actively and that organizations will be receptive to those who do.

Hennig and Jardim (1977) talk about variables that contribute to the stereotype sex-role from a young age through adulthood. Even in infancy children begin learning behaviors appropriate for their sex. This continues formally and informally throughout their life, but the schools have been singled out as the most influencing agent. It is because of the nature of teacher-student interaction, textbook content, counseling, and sexotyping of courses and activities that schools "systematically, ingeniously, and sometimes unconsciously" act along the socially accepted norm of relegating girls and women to subordinate positions (Fishel & Pottker, 1977, p. 132).

School textbooks are prime sources for communicating what is considered by society to be the ideal sex role and

what is rewarded in society (Stromquist, 1993). According to this report minimum adjustments have been made to portray women in what has been traditionally thought of as male roles. She uses Callahan's (1962) description of the school superintendent of the early twentieth century as an individual vulnerable to pressures to limit expenditures from local businessmen and to criticism of the content of education. Educational administration was defined as a profession by men who admired businessmen and industrialists and who resembled them (Stromquist, 1993).

The development of the profession of educational administration coincided with "the managerial revolution" in business, industry, and government in the late 19th and 20th centuries. Kanter (1977) refers to the support for the rise of a new profession of individuals with internal decision-making monopoly and authority over others in large organizations as a "masculine ethic."

This "masculine ethic" rationality according to Kanter (1977) found in the thinking of manager and in social sciences models of organizations gave rise to the traits believed to belong to men with educational advantages to necessities for effective organization. They are: (a) tough-minded approach to problems, (b) analytic abilities to abstract and plan, (c) a capacity to set aside personal emotional considerations in the interests of task

accomplishments, and (d) a cognitive superiority in problem solving.

Adkison (1974) said the acceptance of this rational model of organizations could justify the absence of women, "the bearers of emotion," from power. The ideas about women found in the 20th century through the 60s are certainly not new. Harmon (1972) says that a frequent argument given by administrators for not hiring women for responsible and powerful positions is that women are inherently incapable of managing such positions and, hence, these positions should be reserved for men.

According to Adkison (1981), a managerial language or the ability to communicate more effectively with the board which was likely to be dominated by businessmen is very helpful. Marshall (1988) explores the possibility of language being a key in identifying the values and beliefs that explain cultural patterns. She cited studies (Bennis, 1984; Gilligan, 1982; Gronn, 1983; Mitchell, 1987; Pitner, 1981; Pondy, 1978) which reflect gender differences in language patterns. According to Marshall (1988), these gender differences have "resulted in women being stereotypically labeled as the 'weaker sex,' with weak connoting not only biological inferiority but intellectual inferiority as well" (p. 269).



Jones (1994) discusses the loneliness that superintendents experience. She reports one superintendent saying, "It's almost as if I had the plague" (p. 29). School administrators must be able to cope with isolationism and figure out ways to combat it.

#### Demonstrated Competencies in School Administration

Women do not have to take on the command-and-control leadership style associated with men to be successful in managerial positions (Rosener, 1989). In a 1989 survey conducted by International Women's Forum (IWF), Rosener found the major differences in male and female managers were their leadership style. The study found that men are more likely to describe their management style in what some call "transactional." That is, they view their job performance as a series of transactions. Women, on the other hand, described themselves in ways that characterize "transformational" leadership--getting subordinates to transform their own self-interest into the interest of the group through concern for a broader goal. They ascribe their power to personal characteristics like charisma, interpersonal skills, hard work or personal contacts rather than to organizational stature. Rosener (1990) actually calls this leadership style "interactive leadership" because these women work hard to provide positive opportunities for their subordinates. They encourage participation, share



power and information, enhance other people's self-worth, and get others excited about their work. The women who practice this type of leadership style view it as a win-win situation--good for the employees and the organization. Many of them believe that the behavior and performance they exhibited were natural to them. These are basically the same characteristics that Funk (1986) reported from her study of the 66 public school administrators.

#### Strengths of Female Administrators

The credibility of women as administrators should have been established long ago, but the data supporting the value of women as administrators have been ignored, submerged, and incredibly, treated with skepticism (Marshall, 1988).

Pitner (1981), in observing 3 women superintendents, compared observations with a 1977 study of 3 male superintendents. The differences were found in the way females and males handled routine paperwork and in the way they used observation tours in the schools. The females interacted more frequently with their professional peers and almost exclusively with their female counterparts. Pitner (1981) found that females were more often involved in teaching classes at local colleges and universities. When Pitner (1981) compared the work of female superintendents to that of the work activities of male superintendents, they

were identical, but the manner in which they were executed was significant.

The study Funk (1986) conducted showed that of the 66 members of the sample, the majority had taught for 5 to 14 years before going into an administration position, and all were credentially prepared. All held the mid-management certificate (a 45-hour program above the master's). Funk's subjects reported the following pluses for female administrators:

1. Relates well to the needs of others and is sensitive to problems and concerns of others.
2. Serves as a role model/mentor/trail-blazer for other women in school administration.
3. Has a better understanding of female employees, motherhood, children, and family problems of all personnel.
4. Is better organized and pays more attention to details than male counterpart.
5. Can work the system easier.
6. Has sixth sense, intuition, insight and uses it on the job. (pp. 7-8)

Other comments to the "pluses" for female administrators were: "No need to appear 'macho'," "'mother figure' gets respect from students," "more experienced in instruction," "can deal with 'grey areas' better than men," "is able to evaluate people more quickly than males," and "is more analytical" (Funk, 1986, p. 8).

The use of situational leadership seemed to be a plus for the female administrator due to the varying ages and levels of education of teachers, students, parents, and

custodians. In other words the female leader was sensitive to individual needs. "Women saw themselves as more sensitive, caring, and sympathetic--giving leadership that 'personal touch'" (Funk, 1986, p. 11). "They also are more organized and more attentive to detail" (Funk, 1986, p. 11). They perceived themselves to be instructional leaders more than men in their peer groups and felt that they listened more, talked less, were more people-oriented, were more assertive than men in their positions, and were calmer and more poised than male administrators (Funk, 1986).

#### Career Advancement Barriers

Family Pressures. As mentioned in much of the literature, domestic responsibilities may be a leading hinderance in women making a career advancement to the top rung of the ladder. One report noted the superintendent's work load being every day and every night during the week from 7:30 a.m. to 10 p.m. Women who aspire to be superintendents should reflect carefully on personal priorities (Rogers & Davis, 1991). It needs to be a family decision if one is married with children. The female needs to come to an understanding about family chores.

Male Reactions. Male egos, sometime, have difficulty dealing with women in power positions when their salaries exceed theirs, and when job responsibilities encourage them

to be aggressive, confident and even abrasive (Rogers & Davis, 1991).

Political Naivete. Something that this article brought out is that the superintendent of the 90s must be politically astute--two most critical traits necessary are political acumen and common sense. According to Rogers and Davis (1991) women are "incredibly" naive in relation to the politics of education. They quote Cunningham's (1982) remarks:

Part of the problem, I think, is that women aren't taught the things they need in the business world. We are taught about virtue, not about strength. The role models we have grown up with--saints and heroines of the 19th century novels--are concerned almost exclusively about doing good. (Rogers & Davis, 1991, p. 5)

Sensibility. Ewell (1982) in a paper presented at the annual meeting of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development said the new woman must be enlightened to above average sensibility. Sensibility referring to a distinct ability to perceive the status of surrounding conditions--not just the obvious, readily observable conditions, but also those more subtle, unexpressed feelings which produce innuendo and double entente. One must be able to see the big picture and detach oneself from personal opinion, time, and place in order to see the structure of the whole and the over arching trends, and ramifications (Ewell, 1982).



The assumption that women must conform to male models of administrative behavior, perhaps, is one explanation why women have not aspired to be in administrative positions. Intelligent, highly educated women despair over the unwillingness of education chieftains to listen to their ideas or grant legitimacy to their leadership style (Marshall, 1984). No attempt is being made to restructure the educational administrators system to women's ideas.

Socialization. Men grow up knowing all about networking from team sports that most have participated in. The "good ole' boys" network is an unconscious, informal, private network. It is such an inbred, automatic response, that men don't think twice about it. The obvious difference in male and female networking is that women must consciously acknowledge that (a) "I am a woman," and (b) "I am a woman who must connect myself to other women" (Schmuck, 1986, p. 98). One never hears of a conference on "Preparing Males for the Principalship" because, according to Schmuck (1986), it "just would not fly" (p. 98).

Maccoby and Jacklin (1974) report, traits consistent with the adult male role are commonly accepted characteristics of people in leadership positions. Weber, Feldman, and Poling (1981) discuss male sex-role stereotype traits as commonly being those associated with leadership characteristics. In contrast, the traits associated with the



adult female role tend not to be characteristic--thus, for women to assume traditional male roles, they may have to project traits commonly associated with male.

Peter's (1980) explains the dilemma of women in public education by using the Getzels' model which consists of two dimensions: the nomothetic and the idiographic. The nomothetic dimension represents the roles in the institution such as principal, teachers, counselors, and students and the expectations associated with these roles. The idiographic dimension represents the individuals in these roles with their different personalities, backgrounds, and needs. The degree of congruency between these two dimensions is reflected in the behavior of the individuals in their roles. She says these dimensions have been congruent in the behavior of women in the public schools since its inception because the system was based on a patriarchal system (the schools being a reflection of the culture of Europe and America). Until the 1960s and the 1970s when various movements such as the Civil Rights Movement, the National Organization for Women (NOW), and the Equal Rights Amendment (ERA) began to influence a slow but steady thinking of women regarding their status in society, women had been satisfied with their role in public education. This role arrangement fulfilled the expectations of the school system (nomothetic dimension) while meeting the prevailing needs-orientation of

the individuals (idiographic dimension). However, this mindset has been challenged.

In addition to being somebody's daughter, somebody's wife, somebody's mother, somebody's employees, women today are becoming. Somebody-aware of themselves in their own right . . . There is a new climate which encourages more variety in life styles, job choices, and role expectations for women than ever before in our nation's history. (Bloom, Coburn, & Pearlman, 1975, p. 25)

Peter's study (1980) states that the new woman in education has a quest which is to examine the process and work within the educational framework to redirect its course toward an equalized status for women. Eventually, it can be assured, that ample opportunities for leadership roles will be available. According to Peters, the key to changing the current system lies with women themselves.

### Summary

Although many explanations have been offered to explain the shortage of women in the peak leadership positions of education, the literature does not present a solution to this dilemma. The women who blazed the trails of history to provide opportunities for present-day women are remembered with greatest respect. They left behind a strong legacy to be cherished by women educators.

## CHAPTER III

### METHOD

Historically, the top positions of leadership in public schools were considered to be nontraditional roles for women (Weber, Feldman, & Poling, 1981). This descriptive study, focussed on women in top leadership positions of education in Texas school districts, explored the contemporary status of women in such roles in and described their characteristics. Despite the majority population of females in the public schools, since the Great Depression which dealt women school executives a decisive setback (Gotwalt & Towns, 1986), males disproportionately hold leadership positions. In recent years, women have made significant gains; "but they have yet to recover their losses at the building level" (Gotwalt & Towns, 1986). An intensive study of this unique population is appropriate.

This chapter presents the hypotheses, characteristics of the sample, career background, role leadership, birth order, instrumentation, and procedures. The following hypotheses were investigated.

### Null Hypotheses

Ho 1. The self-perceptions of administrators in large school districts (Group I) and small school districts (Group II), as measured by the survey questionnaire, will not differ significantly.

Ho 2. Self-perceptions of the ability to influence others, as measured by the survey questionnaire, will not differ significantly between the administrators in large school districts (Group I) and small school districts (Group II).

Ho 3. Self-perceptions of how supervised personnel perceive the administrators themselves in large school districts (Group I) and small school districts (Group II), as measured by the survey questionnaire, will not differ significantly.

Ho 4. The reported degree of dedication to their career or work of the administrators in large school districts (Group I) and small school districts (Group II) will not differ significantly.

Ho 5. The degree of conflict which may exist between work and family responsibilities of the administrators in large school districts (Group I) and small school districts (Group II) will not differ significantly.



### Characteristics of the Sample

The study involved 123 women who served as superintendents and assistant superintendents in public school districts in Texas. These women ranged in age from 35 to 76 years, and over 50% were above 50 years of age. The number of children ranged from 1 to 5. The ages of the youngest child of these women ranged from 1 to 38, and the ages of the oldest child ranged from 6 to 42; however, 46% of these women's children were no longer at home. The majority (95%) of these women worked while raising their children. A large number (58% of the 99 who responded to this question) had children before completing college training. A major concern today of family researchers is how much responsibility the working woman has in child care arrangements for their children. Most (92%) of these women had that responsibility; however, approximately 47% indicated that when a child was ill and required someone to stay home with them the spouse assumed equal responsibility.

The women in this study are employed by Texas school districts in which student population ranges from 100 to 203,000 with a median of 5400. Table 1 reflects this information.

Table 1

Size of Student Population in Districts where Participants  
Worked

<u>N</u>	<u>Student Population</u>
1	100
2	150
1	200
2	250
1	325
1	450
1	475
1	565
1	600
1	645
1	700
1	720
1	760
1	820
1	850
1	980
1	1000
1	1030
3	1050
1	1260
1	1300
1	1450
1	1675
2	1700
1	1800
3	2000
1	2050
1	2160
2	2200
1	2300
1	2400
2	2500
1	2600
1	2650
1	2700
1	2836
1	2900
1	3200

Table 1 (continued)

<u>N</u>	Student Population
1	3250
1	3401
2	3500
1	3730
1	4000
3	4200
1	5000
2	5300
1	5315
1	5400
1	5500
2	5600
1	5800
1	6200
1	6500
1	6600
2	6700
1	7250
3	8000
1	8051
3	10000
1	10500
2	11000
1	11032
1	12500
1	13000
1	13100
1	14000
4	15000
1	17000
1	17500
2	18000
1	19743
1	20000
2	21000
2	24000
1	27500
2	28000
1	40000
1	41844
1	43000
1	43500

Table 1 (continued)

<u>N</u>	Student Population
1	44000
2	50000
1	50500
2	60000
1	74000
1	75000
1	143000
1	145000
1	200000
3	201000
1	202000
1	203000

N = 123

The years they had served in the district ranged from 1 to 52, 10 being the median and the number of years they had served in their present position ranged from 1 to 20 with a median of 4 years. Table 2 reflects these statistics.

Length of tenure in the administrative position, in most cases, had been for a short period of years. Only 25% of the women had been in their present position 3 years or less, and the median was 4 years. However, 7 individuals had held their position 15 years or more. See Table 3 for these statistics.



Table 2

Number of Years in District

<u>N</u>	Years
1	1
16	2
13	3
6	4
8	5
6	6
2	7
2	8
5	9
2	10
4	11
3	12
2	13
3	14
5	15
2	16
2	17
2	18
3	19
7	20
1	21
4	22
3	23
4	24
3	25
1	26
1	27
1	28
4	30
1	31
2	32
2	33
1	52

N = 122 respondents

Table 3

Number of Years in Same Position

<u>N</u>	Year in Position
5	1
26	2
23	3
9	4
15	5
11	6
5	7
5	8
7	9
5	10
1	11
1	12
3	14
3	15
1	17
1	18
1	19
1	20

N = 123

The budget for the school districts represented in this study ranged from \$900,000 to \$1,000,000,000. The average salary for the supervised females ranged from \$10,000 to \$80,000 per year. The median salary for supervised females in the large school districts was \$40,000 and, in the small districts, it was \$26,500. For supervised males in large districts, the median salary was \$45,000, and in the small districts it was \$27,500. The participants, themselves, earned approximately 60% of their family's income.

According to the data collected, about one third of the participants indicated that 50% of their organization's upper management were female. See Table 4 for these statistics.

Table 4

Percent of Organization's Upper Management Female

<u>N</u>	Percent
1	0
2	1
2	2
1	5
3	10
3	15
2	16
1	17
4	20
10	25
5	30
9	33
1	35
1	38
10	40
1	42
1	45
34	50
8	60
1	65
4	66
1	70
1	71
1	72
3	75
2	80
4	100

N = 116

The participants were asked the following question: "Assuming equal qualifications, a male and female apply for a position, what is the chance (in percentage) of you hiring the male?" (see Appendix A). Most (92%) of the respondents indicated there would be a 50% chance of them hiring a male.

The reported number of hours these women spent on the job ranged from 40 to 80 hours per week. Approximately half worked more than 60 hours a week, and 27% worked 40 to 49 hours weekly. A minority (10.6%) worked 70 to 90 hours weekly (see Table 5).

Table 5

Number of Hours Spent on Job

Percent Responses	Hours Worked
27.6	40 - 49
29.4	50 - 59
36.6	60 - 69
8.2	70 - 79
2.4	80 - 89

The additional hours spent per week in meetings ranged from 0 to 50 with a median of 8 hours. There were 22% who indicated they spent 5 hours; and, also 22% who indicated they spent 10 hours (see Table 6).



Table 6

Number of Additional Hours Spent in Meetings

Percent Respondents	Additional Hours
6.6	0
3.9	2
9.2	3
9.8	4
21.9	5
5.3	6
4.3	7
6.6	8
1.3	9
21.9	10
3.2	11
5.3	12
7.8	15
7.5	20
1.3	30
1.3	50

Career Background

The majority (87%) of the 123 women had Master's degrees and 46% had either a Ph.D. or an Ed.D. Most of the women, who responded to the questions regarding how their undergraduate and graduate studies were financed, indicated that they personally or their parents had assumed that responsibility. A small percentage indicated their education had been financed through scholarships.

The participants in this study were asked if their present job was their first career or if they had pursued another career prior to entering the field of education. For

most, it was their first career. However, one woman had worked 16 years in another profession, one had worked 12 years, and one had worked 19 years.

### Role Leadership

The women in this study saw themselves as risk-takers. In fact, 64% said they were encouraged by their parents to take risk. Some of the literature (Henning & Jardim, 1977) discussed the possibility of those in leadership positions having participated in competitive sports while growing up; however, 60% of these women indicated they did not participate in such activity.

Henning and Jardim (1977) also discussed submissiveness as a possible characteristic which might hinder the adequate aggressiveness necessary for some leadership positions. Most (77%) of the women in this study indicated they were not taught by their mothers to be submissive. In addition, aggressive behavior was not encouraged by most parents. The last item on the survey was "How do you fit in with the "good 'ole boys' group?" Over 50% indicated "well" and "very well" on the Likert scale. Very few said they had difficulty with this concept.

### Birth Order

Another major consideration for those in leadership positions is their birth order. Almost half (48%) of these educational leaders indicated they were first borns; 35.8%

indicated second born; 6.5% were third born; 2.4% were fourth; and 5.5% were born fifth. Certainly, the birth order theory would be supported for these women.

### Instrumentation

A survey questionnaire was used to gather the data from female superintendents and assistant superintendents in Texas. The questionnaire was adopted by the researcher from a Business and Economics Department Monograph addressing women in non-traditional roles. The instrument covers three major areas: Leadership Characteristics, Work/Family Characteristics, and Demographic Information (see Appendix A). There were several subdivisions in the questionnaire: (a) The Way You See Yourself consists of 36 descriptive terms in which the respondents were asked to respond on a Likert scale, (b) Your Sources of Influence consisted of 30 items that the participants were asked to respond to by using a Likert scale to determine what they perceived as their major source of influence, and (c) The Way Others See You contained two parts. The first consisted of three factual questions relevant to part 2 in which the participant filled in the blanks; and the second part included 27 items describing how one might be perceived by those under her supervision. Again a Likert scale was used.

The second major section of the Work/Family Characteristics consisted of four subdivisions: (a) You and

Your Work contained 28 items which were descriptive of the participants' dedication to her job; (b) Work/Family Conflict was divided in two parts. The first part included 14 items that pertained to conflicts that may occur between one's work and family. The second part included seven factual questions pertaining to the family. The third part included 13 fill-in-the blank factual questions pertaining to the organization (in this case, the school district) in which they were employed; and the part still related specifically to the districts' personnel policies.

The third major section was predominantly short answer, factual questions concerning personal characteristics and personal information. Some of the questions addressed in this section included: age, hours worked per week, spouse's employment status and salary, education, and family background.

### Procedures

Human Subjects Approval. The research prospectus was submitted to the Human Subjects Review Committee for approval (Appendix B). The survey format supports volunteer participation.

Sampling. A list of the female superintendents and assistant superintendents in Texas school districts was obtained from the Texas Education Agency. At the time of the request, the 94-95 list was not available; therefore, a 93-



94 list was used. All districts were contacted by phone for an update on the superintendent and assistant superintendent.

Data Collection. The survey was mailed to all updated names of the female superintendent and assistant superintendents with a cover letter requesting the completed questionnaire to be returned by Thanksgiving of 1994. Instructions were given for return mailing, and all postage expense was paid for by the researcher. There was inadequate response to the first mailing; therefore, a follow-up printed post card was mailed as a reminder of the importance of their cooperation in this matter. This still did not elicit the necessary response. Each questionnaire mailed out had been given a number for identification purposes, and as they were received, they were checked off the list. The researcher did another mailing, sending another questionnaire and a letter of urgency to all the people who had not responded. The last attempt resulted in a total response of 47% for data analysis. Several more were received afterward, but were too late to be used as part of the reporting data. The researcher ended up with a 50% response rate.

Groups. The study was concerned about the differences in the women administrators in the school districts of a student population of less than 2000 to those in school

districts of more than 2000 students. A publication by TEA was used to categorize the districts into these two major categories. Of the 197 districts in Texas having women superintendents and assistant superintendents, 75 were identified as Group II (districts having less than 2000 students), and 122 identified as Group I (districts having more than 2000).

Data Analysis. The questionnaire data (221 variables) were coded and analyzed by the Statistical Package BMPD Level. Since the groups were not of equal size, the  $t$  test was used to test the assumption of equal variances. To protect against Type I error, the level of significance  $p < .01$  was used; and the assumption was met for each hypothesis. The statistics of this finding can be seen in Table 7.

Table 7

Hypotheses Testing and Test for Equal Variance

<u>H<sub>0</sub></u>	Large Group			<u>t</u>	<u>p</u>	Small Group		
	<u>N</u>	Mean	<u>s</u>			<u>N</u>	Mean	<u>s</u>
1	86	4.96	0.45			36	5.10	0.43
2	86	3.55	0.41	0.42	0.677	36	3.54	0.38
				0.10	0.923			
3	86	3.50	0.28			35	3.48	0.29
				0.38	0.706			
4	87	2.74	0.38			36	2.73	0.48
				-0.10	0.917			
5	72	3.21	0.37			34	3.27	0.43
				0.74	0.40			

Descriptive statistics were used to report characteristics of the sample, and t tests were used to assess possible differences between groups in each area.

### Summary

Although the researcher would have desired a higher percentage of responses, a wealth of information has been obtained from the 123 respondents. The instrument is very thorough; therefore, a vivid picture of these women serving in the two highest positions of the public school districts in Texas has been projected by this study.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

The purpose of this study was twofold: First, it was designed to describe that unique minority of educational leaders who are female and who are currently serving as superintendents or assistant superintendents in Texas public school districts. Second, the study was concerned about the differences in the women administrators in Texas school districts which have a population of 2000 or more students to those in school districts which have a student population of less than 2000.

There were 122 districts whose student population exceeded 2000, and 75 school districts with 2000 students or less which made a total of 197 school districts in the state of Texas. A total of 260 women were serving in the capacity of superintendent or assistant superintendent in these districts in the fall of 1994.

#### Sample Characteristics

A typical participant in this study was a married 49 or 50-year-old woman with two adult children. She holds a masters degree and works 54 hours per week plus an



additional 8 or 9 hours of meetings. The data for each group are summarized in Table 8.

Table 8

Sample Characteristics by Group

Variable Group	Small Group	Large
Sample Return	48 %	71 %
Married	91 %	69 %
Divorced	9 %	16 %
Age Range	38-63	35-76
Mean Age	49	50
Mean No. of Children	2	2
Mean Age Range of Children	19-27	22-27
Mean Age of Children	23	24.5
Holds Masters Degree	88 %	86 %
Holds Ph.D or Ed.D	37 %	54 %
Average Hrs. per Week	54	54
Add'l. Hours in Meetings	8	9
Average Years in Present Position	5.46	5.56
Never taken Leave of Absence	54 %	60 %
Mean Spouse Income	48,851	56,037
Respondents Percent Family Income	64 %	69 %

Of those who had taken a leave of absence or had periods of unemployment, the majority indicated that maternity was the main reason. Parental/dependent care was second, and educational purposes was the third reason for taking a leave. In each group only one less person had taken a leave due to spouse's relocating than for educational reasons.

#### Early Background

Risk Taking. The majority (91%) of the small district respondents saw themselves as risk takers, and 89% of the large districts also indicated they perceived themselves as risk takers. Over half (57%) of the leaders in the large school districts said they were encouraged by their parents as they were growing up to take risks, but 71% of the small district respondents said their parents encouraged them to take risks. Over half (57%) of the total respondents indicated they were discouraged from aggressive behavior. A small percentage said they were taught to be submissive (20% from small districts and 24% from large districts).

Birth Order has been discussed by many researchers as an important factor in leadership characteristics. Hennig's study (1977) of women who had succeeded in obtaining managerial positions, found that all were first-born or an only child. Harmon (1972) found that first-born college women, especially in some occupational choices, were

significantly more persistent in pursuing their academic majors than others. Studies of two groups by Lyman and Speizer (1980) also showed that more than half of each group were first-born children. In the sample for this study, it could be deduced that many in leadership positions are first-born. Of the small district respondents, 46% were first-born, while 51% of the large district respondents were the eldest child of the family.

#### Non-Working Mothers

Most of this sample grew up in families in which their mothers did not work outside the home. The majority (85%) of the small district respondents and 65% of the large district respondents had "non-working" mothers. Thus, the majority did not have family role models for their current professional roles.

#### Parents' Education

Education of Mothers. Over 50% of the mothers of the small district respondents indicated that grade 12 was the highest grade completed, while 27% of their mothers had some college and 6% even had master's degrees. Most of the mothers of large district respondents had completed grade 12 while 25% had some college, and 3% had master's degrees. The mothers of the respondents from the small districts had slightly more formal education than those mothers of the respondents from the large districts.

Education of Fathers. In both groups grade 12 was the average grade completed, but there were a larger percentage of fathers than mothers who had some college. Approximately one third (36%) of the small district respondents had some college, 9% had master's degrees, and 3% held a Ph.D. degree. Among the large district respondents, 38% had some college work, 5% with masters, and 3% with Ph.D.s. The fathers of the respondents from the small districts completed more master's degrees than those of respondents from the large districts. The same percentage possessed Ph.D. degrees.

The parents' education of Henning's (1977) subjects ranged from high school diplomas to the doctorate, which was held by two fathers. Twenty-three of the mothers' education was at least equal to that of the fathers and, in 13 cases, the mother's education was, in fact, superior to the father's (Henning, 1977).

#### Support for Education

Participants were asked to report the means by which their education had been financed. Those reporting from the large school districts had mostly financed their education themselves or their parents had paid for it. From the small school districts, they had financed their own education or



had received loans. Of the total number of respondents ( $n=123$ ), only 8 people had been awarded any scholarships.

### Mentoring

The majority in both groups said they had acted as mentors: 94% in the small districts and 95% of the large district respondents. Most (71%) of the small district respondents indicated they had a mentor themselves, and 87% of those in the large districts had mentors.

### Organizational Characteristics

Only 28% of the total sample worked for school districts of less than 2000 students with 1,043 being the average. The majority (72%) worked in districts whose population exceeded 2000 with an average student population of 31,968. The budgets for the large school districts in this study ranged from 900,500 dollars to one billion dollars; and in the small districts, the range was from \$900,000 to \$12,000,000.

The small district respondents reflected that 75% of the people they supervised were female, and the large district respondents reported 71%. The average salary for the supervised females in the small districts was \$27,450; and in the large districts, it was \$38,885. For the supervised males in the small districts, the average salary

was \$30,446; and in the large districts it was \$45,315. The reported percentage of females in upper management positions in the small districts was 49 and in the large districts it was 40%. When asked what the odds were of them hiring a male, assuming any male or female applying for a position had equal qualifications; the response of both groups was a 52% chance. Half (50%) of the small school district respondents reported their assistant being female and 62% of the large district respondents had female assistants.

### Leadership Qualities

#### Self-Perceptions

Hypothesis 1 stated that the women administrators in Group I (large school districts) would not differ significantly from the administrators in Group II (small school districts) in the mirror image of themselves. Hypothesis 1 was retained. The following is a statistical description of how the respondents in the small school districts perceived themselves on the 36 adjectives compared to the female superintendents and assistant superintendents in the large school districts. For an indication of the self-image of the respondents, the 9 items receiving the highest score for each group were considered (see Table 9).

Based on a Likert scale of 1 to 7 (1 = not at all descriptive and 7 = very descriptive), the respondents in

Table 9

Highest Self-Perception Mean Scores by Group

Variable	Sm Grp Mean	Variable	Lg Grp Mean
Reliable	6.81	Reliable	6.72
Sincere	6.72	Conscientious	6.65
Truthful	6.67	Truthful	6.57
Conscientious	6.61	Sincere	6.56
Independent	6.39	Independent	6.29
Appreciation	6.19	Appreciation	6.16
Compassionate	6.06	Helpful	6.09
Adaptive	6.03	Analytic	6.08
Understanding	6.03	Efficient	6.07

the small school districts indicated that they perceived themselves to be reliable, sincere, truthful, conscientious, independent, appreciative, compassionate, adaptive, and understanding in that order on the Likert scale with mean scores ranging from 6.81 to 6.03. The respondents in the large school district perceived their strongest areas to be reliable, conscientious, truthful, sincere, independent, appreciative, helpful, analytic, and efficient in that order on the Likert scale with mean scores ranging from 6.72 to 6.07. It should be noted that the respondents in the small school districts included compassionate, adaptive, and

understanding whereas the large district respondents did not. The large school district respondents included helpful, analytic, and efficient. Table 9 provides the highest mean scores by groups.

Respondents of both groups perceived themselves almost identically by indicating they were not dependent, submissive, solemn, mild, stern, emotional, excitable, or conventional with a mean score ranging from 2.03 to 4.00 on a Likert scale of 1 to 7. The only difference in the order of perceptions for the two groups was a reversal in the order of the mean score for "mild" and "solemn" and for "emotional" and "excitable." The mean score for the small school districts was higher than the large districts on all items except "dependent" and "submissive." Both groups responded the same for "autocratic." Table 10 provides the lowest mean scores by groups.

All other items clustered with a mean score ranging from 4.23 to 5.97 with 0.29 being the highest difference on any item of the small group respondents and the large group respondents. Table 11 provides the medium mean scores by groups.



Table 10

Lowest Self-Perception Mean Scores by Group

Variable	Sm Grp Mean	Variable	Lg Grp Mean
Dependent	2.03	Dependent	2.03
Submissive	2.08	Submissive	2.24
Autocratic	2.69	Autocratic	2.69
Solemn	3.28	Mild	3.07
Mild	3.33	Solemn	3.15
Stern	3.50	Stern	3.30
Emotional	3.53	Excitable	3.44
Excitable	3.61	Emotional	3.49
Conventional	4.00	Conventional	3.98

Table 11

Medium Self-Perception Mean Scores by Group.

Variable	Sm Grp Mean	Variable	Lg Grp Mean
Dominant	4.44	Sentimental	4.23
Aggressive	4.44	Gentle	4.42
Forceful	4.44	Dominant	4.48
Sentimental	4.44	Aggressive	4.55
Predictable	4.69	Forceful	4.63
Gentle	4.77	Predictable	4.95
Affectionate	5.25	Affectionate	5.05
Sensitive	5.39	Sensitive	5.31
Competitive	5.44	Systematic	5.37
Systematic	5.47	Ambitious	5.49
Ambitious	5.47	Assertive	5.56
Assertive	5.56	Competitive	5.65
Tactful	5.72	Tactful	5.78
Confident	5.97	Confident	5.88

The group responses were very similar and on some items, the mean scores were identical. Statistically, there was no significant difference in the way the two groups perceived themselves at the .01 level; therefore, Hypothesis 1 was retained.

### Sources to Influence Others

Hypothesis 2 stated that the women administrators in Group I would not differ significantly from the administrators in Group II in the perceptions of their sources to influence others. This hypothesis was retained.

The following is a statistical description of what respondents in the small school districts perceived as their strongest source of influence and their weakest influential source compared to what the respondents in the large school districts perceived as their strongest and weakest sources of influence. The responses are based on a Likert scale of 1 to 5 (1 = disagree and 5 = agree). The nine items with the highest mean scores ranging from 4.28 to 4.72 to indicate strongest sources of influence, both groups included interpersonal skills, work record, communication skills, integrity, provide opportunities, expertise, provide meaningful work, and ability to provide growth. "Personality" was among the list for the large group, but not for the small, and "experience" was on the list for the small group, but not on the large. Table 12 provides the means of the highest ratings.

Respondents from both groups indicated their least sources of influence were the same with mean scores ranging from 1.45 to 2.55. They were: family name, personal wealth,

Table 12

Strongest Sources of Personal Influence on Others

Grp Variable Mean	Sm Grp Mean	Variable	Lg
Interpersonal Skills	4.72	Interpersonal Skills	4.68
Communication Skills	4.69	Work Records	4.66
Integrity	4.69	Integrity	4.66
Work Record	4.64	Communication Skills	4.63
Provides Opportun.	4.50	Expertise	4.56
Provides Meaning to Work	4.42	Provides Meaning to Work	4.55
Expertise	4.42	Provide Opportunit.	4.43
Ability to Provide Growth	4.33	Personality	4.42
Experience	4.28	Ability to Provide Growth	4.39

equity in firm, withholding financial rewards, withholding contracts, force compliance, ability to deny opportunities, provide contracts, and social status. There was a slight difference in the small school districts and the large school districts' order of these nine items. Respondents' mean score for "withholding financial rewards" was next to the lowest source of influence, and "force compliance" was ninth instead of sixth for the large school districts. Table 13 provides the means of the lowest ratings.



Table 13

Weakest Sources of Personal Influence on Others

Variable	Sm Grp Mean	Variable	Lg Grp Mean
Family Name	1.64	Family Name	1.45
Personal Wealth	1.67	Withholds Financial Rewards	1.58
Equity in Firm	1.89	Personal Wealth	1.59
Withholds Financial	2.03	Equity in Firm	1.75
Rewards Withholds Contracts	2.14	Withholds Contracts	1.87
Force Compliance	2.25	Ability to Deny Opportunities	2.05
Ability to Deny Opportunities	2.34	Provides Contracts	2.18
Provides Contracts	2.36	Social Status	2.38
Social Status	2.53	Force Compliance	2.55

Table 14 lists all other comparative statistics for sources of influence which cluster around mean scores ranging from 3.14 to 4.30 to indicate average sources of influence.

The responses of the two groups were very similar. The greatest mean difference between the groups on any item was on "title" which was 0.48 with a SD difference of 0.41. The average mean difference was 0.15. Again, no significant difference at the .01 level was supported in the way the two

Table 14

Average Sources of Personal Influence on Others

Grp Variable	Sm Grp Mean	Variable	Lg Mean
Seniority	3.14	Control Alternatives	3.17
Control Alternativ	3.28	Seniority	3.27
Title	3.47	Hierarchal Position	3.86
Charisma	3.54	Charisma	3.88
Hierarchal Positio	3.72	Formal Education	3.93
Formal Education	3.89	Title	3.95
Practical Training	4.25	Practical Training	4.16
Functional Respons	4.25	Functional Responsib	4.30

groups perceived their ability to influence others; thus, Hypothesis 2 was retained.

#### The Way Others See You

Hypothesis 3 stated there would be no significant difference found between the two groups of administrators on their perceptions of how supervised personnel perceived them. "The Way Others See You" section of the questionnaire contained 27 statements. Sixteen of the statements can be classified as transformational leadership characteristics, and the other eleven as transactional leadership

characteristics. Using a Likert scale of 1 to 5 (1 = almost never and 5 = almost always), respondents were asked to assess the frequency of their behaviors in relationship to employees. Hypothesis 3 was retained.

### Transformational Style

Transformational leaders are those who motivate by empowering their subordinates to transform their self-interests into the achievement of the organization's results, desires, and goals. Following the same pattern of categorizing as in the other areas, respondents from both groups in the study perceived themselves as being transformational. The transformational items received the highest mean score based on the Likert scale 1 to 5 ranging from 4.06 to 4.66. The respondents of the large school districts responded with a higher mean score than respondents from the small school districts on: transmits sense of mission, inspires loyalty to school district, a model to follow, initiates unity, enables them to think about old problems in new ways, challenges them to rethink their own ideas, creates enthusiasm about assignments, and shows them how to get what they want. The small school district respondents scored higher on individualizes, expresses appreciation, gives them new ways of looking at things, helps them get what they want, is an inspiration to them, pays careful attention to standard operating

procedures, open to negotiations about working conditions, and pays personal attention to members who seem neglected.

Table 15 provides the group of highest mean scores.

Table 15

Transformational Items Indicating High Mean Scores of Respondents' Perception of Their Behavior in Relation to Employees

Variable	Small Group Mean	Large Group Mean
Creates Enthus. about Assignm.	3.71	3.87
Pays careful Atten. to Standard Operating Procedures	4.20	4.07
A Model for them to follow	4.31	4.41
Inspires Loyalty to School Dist.	4.43	4.44
An Inspiration to Them	3.94	4.09
Transmits a Sense of Mission	4.31	3.53
Initiates Unity for Accomplish.	4.09	4.34
Personal Atten. to Members who seem neglected	4.09	3.92
Helps them get what they want	4.29	4.14
Expresses Appreciation	4.49	4.37
Individualizes	4.66	4.64
Open to Negotiations about working Conditions	4.23	4.06
Show how to get what They Want	3.29	3.43
Challenge them to Rethink their Own Ideas	4.11	4.12
Enable them to think about Old Problems in New Ways	4.06	4.20
Provide New Ways of Looking at Things	4.26	4.22



### Transactional Style

A transactional leader is defined as one who specifies clearly what is expected of subordinates and identifies the subsequent rewards related to the successful completion of tasks. Table 16 is a listing of the transactional items and high mean scores of how respondents perceived their actions to be in regard to these items. Small group differences seemed to indicate that large districts' respondents perceive themselves as transactional on:

1. You only tell them what they have to know to do their job.
2. Do not expect more than just doing the job.
3. Content to let them do their job as always.
4. If you support me, I'll take care of you.
5. Satisfied with their performance as long as existing procedures are working.
6. They deserve what they get.

The small district respondents scored higher on:

1. Would say it is all right to take initiative, but you do not encourage them to do so.
2. Do not try to challenge anything as long as things are going right.
3. Get what they want in exchange of efforts.
4. Using rewards as incentives.
5. Provides feedback about rewards they may receive.

Table 16

Transactional Items Indicating High Mean Score of  
Respondents' Perception of Their Behavior in Relation to  
Employees

Variable	Small Group Mean	Large Group Mean
Uses Rewards as Incentives	3.40	3.33
They Get What They Deserve	3.39	3.46
Take Care of Them if They Support you	2.29	2.34
Provide Feedback about Rewards they may receive	3.71	3.56
Efforts will be Rewarded by Desires	2.94	2.88
Satisfied with Performance as long as Exist. Proceed Work	2.80	3.02
Content to allow them to Continue doing job in Same old way	2.11	2.27
Do not Challenge Anything as long as things are going all right	2.34	2.15
Do not Expect more than job requires	1.66	1.76
Do not Encourage Initiative	1.46	1.45
Only tell them what is required to do their job	1.47	1.53

The response of the two groups was very similar with the average mean difference being 0.12. Statistically, there was no significant difference in the two groups. The Null Hypothesis 3 was retained.

### Family/Work Characteristics

#### Self-Perceptions of Job

Hypothesis 4 stated there would be no significant difference between the two groups of Texas administrators in the degree of dedication to their work and career. The following discussion provides rationale for its retention. Both groups agreed about the importance of work in their lives. They saw their career as a means of self-expression; they enjoyed planning their career; they were willing to sacrifice family time, personal freedom, and social life if necessary to pursue the job of their choice; they believed enjoying their job was a basis for satisfaction with life; they started thinking about jobs and careers when they were young; and they were willing to relocate for job opportunity. Even though both groups chose these statements to express their dedication, there was somewhat a difference in the mean scores of the small school district respondents and the large group district respondents. The large group respondents had a higher mean score on 7 of the 10 items than did the small group respondents. Also, the mean score

of the large group respondents was above the median for

"pursued job even if it interfered with religious activity."

Table 17 provides the high mean scores on job dedication.

Table 17

High Mean Scores on Job Dedication by Groups

Group Variable	Small Group	Large
	Mean	Mean
Career is a Means of Expressing Self	4.42	4.16
Enjoyed Planning Career	4.06	4.17
Pursued Job Regardless of Family Time	4.06	4.15
Can't be Satisfied with Life Unless I enjoy my job	3.86	3.78
Pursued Job of Choice even if it limited my Personal Freed.	3.54	3.77
Extremely "Career Minded"	3.44	3.91
Pursued Job of Choice even if it left no time for Friends	3.42	3.54
Started Thinking about Jobs and Careers when young	3.36	3.61
Willing to relocate for job opportunity	3.20	3.08
Willing to Sacrifice to get ahead in job	3.17	3.44
Pursued Job even if it inter- fered with Religious Activ.	----	3.17



The responses of both groups on job dedication are as follows:

1. Did not find their work distasteful.
2. Did not place career above a close knit family.
3. Did not see their job as a necessary evil.
4. Did not see their job primarily as a way of making money.
5. Did not see being liked by others as being more important than being committed to career.
6. Disagreed that they had never given much thought to future jobs.

Also, the mean score for "pursued job even if it interfered with religious activity" for the small school districts' group fell in this category, whereas it did not for the large school districts' group. Table 18 provides the comparison of mean scores on items respondents checked "disagree" or "somewhat disagree" on job dedication. These descriptive statistics were based on the Likert scale of 1 to 5 (1 = Disagree and 5 = Agree).

Table 18

Low Mean Scores of Items Respondents Checked  
"Disagree"/"Somewhat Disagree" on Job Dedication

Variable	Small Group Mean	Large Group Mean
The idea of holding a job has always been distasteful	1.06	1.20
Career more important than a close knit family	1.42	1.40
Never really thought of how important work is in my life	1.56	1.48
Work is a necessary evil	1.67	1.40
Job is primarily a way of making money	1.78	1.78
To be liked by others is more important than to be committed to career	1.97	1.93
Never given much thought to future jobs	2.06	1.74
More important to be socially responsible than be committed to job	2.53	2.45
Planning & Succeeding in a career has always been primary concern	2.64	2.60
Planning for specific career is at best problematic	2.66	2.57
Try to forget my job when I leave work	2.69	2.53
Deciding on a career path was the most important decision I had to make in life	2.72	2.41
Pursued job even if it interfered with religious activity	2.86	----

The mean scores were very similar. The largest difference was for "extremely 'career-minded'" which was 0.47 with a SD difference of 0.23. The average mean difference was 0.17 for the two groups. Statistically, the mean scores of the two groups were not significantly different; therefore, Null Hypothesis 4 was retained.

#### Work/Family Conflict

Hypothesis 5 stated that the degree of conflict between work and family responsibilities which may exist will not differ significantly between the administrators in group I and group II. Retention of this hypothesis was indicated through data analysis. The respondents were asked to indicate the degree of conflict they experience between work and family on a likert scale of 1 to 5 (1 = Disagree and 5 = Agree). Both groups agreed that their personal interest did not take too much time from work. Most mean scores of both groups were very close. The largest difference was that the large district respondents indicated that their job interfered with their family more than the small district respondents did. Likewise, the large district respondents indicated they had difficulty finding enough time for their family. Table 19 provides mean scores of work/family conflict for both groups.

Table 19

Mean Scores for Work/Family Conflict

Variable	Small Group Mean	Large Group Mean
Personal Problems Seldom affect my behavior at work	3.91	3.83
Not irritable at home	3.82	3.78
I find it easy to relax at home	3.76	3.60
Can find plenty of time for my family	3.65	3.15
Job does not interfere with being the kind of spouse or parent I would like to be	3.56	3.08
So much work, no time for personal interest	3.50	3.63
My work takes up time I'd like to spend with family	3.41	3.68
After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I like to do	3.41	3.50
Demands of family life seldom make it difficult to concen- trate on work	3.29	3.00
Assertiveness at home is not appreciated by some family members	3.24	3.32
Some family members do not like for me to be preoccupied with my work at home	3.32	3.28
Work schedule seldom conflicts with my family life	2.71	2.42
Can't act the same way at home as I do at work	2.38	2.88
Personal Interests take too much time from work	1.76	1.75



Overall, there was a mean difference of 0.50 of the groups for items 1 and 2 listed with a SD difference of 0.02 for 1, and 0.11 SD difference for 2. There was a mean difference of 0.48 on item 3 with a SD difference of 0.06. Null hypothesis 5 was retained.

#### Summary

Chapter IV presented the descriptive data gathered from 123 women superintendents and assistant superintendents from Texas school districts. The survey questionnaire of 221 items covered three major areas: Leadership Characteristics, Work/Family Characteristics, and Demographic Information. Five null hypotheses contrasted women administrators in school districts with a student population of less than 2000 to the data of women administrators in school districts with 2000 plus students. The limited variations between the groups and within the various categories were not statistically significant. All five null hypotheses were retained.

Thus, this group of female administrators are more alike than different as measured by this instrument. Although the environments in which they lead are different, their self-perceptions, sources of personal influence, leadership style, work dedication, and work/family conflicts did not differ significantly. It must be concluded that

environment is not a major factor in the performance of these women.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, DISCUSSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

This study was based upon a 50% return rate of the 260 women serving as superintendents and assistant superintendents in Texas school districts during 1994-1995. Out of 1,046 districts, 197 have women in such positions. Of these 197, 75 districts have student populations under 2000, and 122 have student populations of more than 2000.

Five null hypotheses explored possible differences between the small district administrators and their large district counterparts. The hypotheses addressed: (a) self-perceptions, (b) ability to influence others, (c) how supervised personnel perceived them, (d) dedication to work, and (e) work and family conflict. Data were elicited via a 221-item survey addressing three rubrics: (a) leadership characteristics, (b) work/family characteristics, and (c) demographic information.

A typical participant was a married 49- or 50-year-old woman with two adult children. She holds a master degree and works 54 hours a week plus an additional 8 to 9 hours of meetings. More than 60% of the sample were the major

breadwinners of their families. The youngest subject was 38 years of age, and the oldest 76. Most of the women were in the early years of their experience in this administrative post although 7 individuals had held their position 15 years or more. Most of the individuals that these women supervised were also female, but data indicated that given comparably qualified candidates, male candidates would be as likely to be chosen by these female administrators.

Data analyses addressed the five null hypotheses at a significance level of .01. Responses in the Likert response format were examined utilizing multiple  $t$  tests, after testing the assumption of equal variances as well as unequal variances. The two groups, representative of small (<2000 students) or large (>2000 students) school districts did not differ significantly on any of the five hypotheses.

### Discussion

This study supports the notion that these women administrators are more alike than they are different (i.e., that the number and type of commonalities exceed differences). It had been assumed that the size of the school districts and the variation in responsibilities might be reflected in significantly different types of administrators. However, if this is true, this study did not support such an assumption.



Both groups of female administrators perceived themselves as reliable, sincere, truthful, independent, and appreciative. Their strongest sources of personal influence on others were: interpersonal skills, communication skills, work records, expertise, integrity, providing opportunities for others, providing meaning to work, and personality.

These women reported that those they supervised perceived them as primarily transformational in their leadership style (see Appendix C). The behavioral characteristics which were primary for these women included: individualizes, inspires loyalty to district, transmits a sense of mission, expresses appreciation, pays careful attention to standard operating procedures, provides a good model, challenges others to rethink their own ideas, enables others to think about old problems in new ways, provides new ways of looking at things, and open to negotiations about working conditions. Transactional leadership behavioral characteristics were not highly rated for either group of women (see Appendix C).

Characteristics relating to dedication to work confirmed the similarities between the groups. The means for both groups were highest for: career as a means of self-expression, enjoyment in career planning, and pursuit of job regardless of family time. Others that were similar in each group but with lower means were: job enjoyment as a basis

for life satisfaction, planning early in their life for jobs and careers, and willingness to relocate for a job opportunity.

These same characteristics were observed in many of the women educators described by Seller (1994). She mentioned concerning Alice Palmer, who became president of Wellesley College at the age of 26 in 1882, that her accomplishments were reflections of her belief that women had to make their own way in the world which meant being dedicated to the task at hand. Especially were "career as a means of self-expression" and "planning early in their life for jobs and careers" reflected in most of the women educators discussed in this Bio-Bibliographical Sourcebook (Sellers, 1994).

The average level of the means on items relating to work and family conflict suggest uneven concern or little concern about expected conflicts such as time management, intrusion of one on the other, or role conflict.

### Recommendations

This particular group of educational leaders is of special interest to educational planners and to educators. They remain a small minority among all the superintendents and assistant superintendents in the 1,046 districts in Texas. This study provides one preliminary picture of their

characteristics, and suggests a number of studies for further exploration.

1. Case studies of those administrators who have been superintendents or assistant superintendents for 12 or more years. These individuals could contribute to the history of the evolving top leadership roles for women in the past decade.

2. A collaborative study using the Delphi technique to address the issue of accelerating advancement of women into top administration.

3. Correlational studies addressing age and family structure as predictor variables for criterion variables such as mobility or time management.

4. A descriptive study of male superintendents and assistant superintendents to contrast with this group of female leaders.

5. A comparison study of responses categorized by age of participants.

#### Closing Remarks

The overall study provided some positive information concerning opportunities for today's women; opportunities that traditionally were exclusive to men. Although, the climb to the two top positions in school administration may have been slow for women, it is being obtained. The

literature reflected that many women teachers are satisfied and have no desire to pursue administrative positions which may account for the majority of the teaching positions being filled by women. One must conclude that a woman can succeed in almost any profession if she aspires to do so and works toward that goal.



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## APPENDICES

Appendix A  
Survey Questionnaire



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## TEXAS WOMAN'S UNIVERSITY

DENTON/DALLAS/HOUSTON

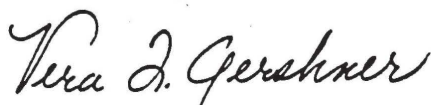
DEPARTMENT OF  
EDUCATION LEADERSHIP  
College of Education and  
Human Ecology  
P.O. Box 23029  
Denton, TX 76204-1029  
Phone: 817/898-2241  
Fax: 817/898-2224

Dear Colleague,

We know you appreciate the importance of leadership roles in your profession, and we will appreciate your joining all the female Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents in Texas in this study. This is the third in a series of studies conducted through Texas Woman's University and addressing female professional leadership roles. Previous studies have addressed leadership in business and in physical therapy. A monograph of our findings will be prepared and made available to interested participants.

All data will be kept anonymous, and reports will focus on groups. We currently have identified 78 Superintendents and 203 Assistant Superintendents and look forward to what you can tell us about your professional attitudes and behaviors. This research will have an impact for female leadership roles in education.

Our piloting indicates that you can complete the questionnaire in 15 minutes or less. We appreciate your returning it promptly . . . before Thanksgiving. No postage is required.



Vera T. Gershner, Ph.D.  
Professor, Educational Leadership  
VOICE 817-898-2439  
FAX 817-898-2224



Helen L. Sullivan, M.Ed.  
Acting Academic Dean  
Arlington Baptist College  
VOICE 817-461-8741  
FAX 817-274-1138

**Motivation for the Executive Track  
as School Superintendent or Assistant Superintendent**

**I. LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS**

**A. The Way You See Yourself**

**Directions:** Please enter a number from the key below beside each of the descriptive terms indicating the degree to which the term describes you:

(Not At All Descriptive) 1---2---3---4---5---6---7---(Very Descriptive)		
<input type="text"/> 1. Dominant <input type="text"/> 2. Excitable <input type="text"/> 3. Tactful <input type="text"/> 4. Aggressive <input type="text"/> 5. Gentle <input type="text"/> 6. Adaptive <input type="text"/> 7. Tough <input type="text"/> 8. Emotional <input type="text"/> 9. Assertive <input type="text"/> 10. Truthful <input type="text"/> 11. Autocratic <input type="text"/> 12. Submissive	<input type="text"/> 13. Sincere <input type="text"/> 14. Analytical <input type="text"/> 15. Sentimental <input type="text"/> 16. Conscientious <input type="text"/> 17. Competitive <input type="text"/> 18. Understanding <input type="text"/> 19. Conventional <input type="text"/> 20. Ambitious <input type="text"/> 21. Reliable <input type="text"/> 22. Appreciative <input type="text"/> 23. Predictable <input type="text"/> 24. Confident	<input type="text"/> 25. Compassionate <input type="text"/> 26. Solemn <input type="text"/> 27. Forceful <input type="text"/> 28. Sensitive <input type="text"/> 29. Systematic <input type="text"/> 30. Stern <input type="text"/> 31. Mild <input type="text"/> 32. Helpful <input type="text"/> 33. Affectionate <input type="text"/> 34. Independent <input type="text"/> 35. Dependent <input type="text"/> 36. Efficient

**B. Your Sources of Influence**

**Directions:** Please use the following key to assess the degree to which you feel each of these is a source of your ability to influence others.

Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree
1	2	3	4	5

<input type="text"/> 1. My ability to provide meaningful work <input type="text"/> 2. My ability to withhold financial rewards <input type="text"/> 3. My ability to force compliance <input type="text"/> 4. My ability to withhold contracts <input type="text"/> 5. My ability to control alternatives <input type="text"/> 6. My ability to provide opportunities <input type="text"/> 7. My interpersonal skills <input type="text"/> 8. My personality <input type="text"/> 9. My title <input type="text"/> 10. My charisma <input type="text"/> 11. My functional responsibility <input type="text"/> 12. My hierarchical position <input type="text"/> 13. My work record <input type="text"/> 14. My interpersonal skills <input type="text"/> 15. My communication skills	<input type="text"/> 16. My Expertise <input type="text"/> 17. My seniority <input type="text"/> 18. My experience <input type="text"/> 19. My social status <input type="text"/> 20. My practical training <input type="text"/> 21. My ability to provide contracts <input type="text"/> 22. My integrity <input type="text"/> 23. My ability to provide growth <input type="text"/> 24. My formal education <input type="text"/> 25. My personal wealth <input type="text"/> 26. My personality <input type="text"/> 27. My ability to deny opportunities <input type="text"/> 28. My family name <input type="text"/> 29. My equity in the firm <input type="text"/> 30. My functional responsibility
--	--

### C. The Way Others See You

#### Part One

**Directions:** Please fill in the blank.

1. How many employees are in your school district? \_\_\_\_\_
2. How many employees do you supervise? \_\_\_\_\_
3. How many support staff do you supervise? \_\_\_\_\_

#### Part Two

**Directions:** Please use the following key to assess the frequency of your behaviors in relationship to employees.

Almost Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Often	Almost Always
1	2	3	4	5

How often would those reporting directly to you say:

- \_\_\_\_\_ 1. You make everyone around you enthusiastic about assignments.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 2. They feel you pay careful attention to standard operating procedures.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 3. You are a model for them to follow.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 4. You inspire loyalty to the school district.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 5. You are an inspiration to them.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 6. You have a sense of mission which you transmit to them.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 7. You excite them with your visions of what they can accomplish if they work together.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 8. You give personal attention to members who seem neglected.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 9. You find out what they want and try to help them get it.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 10. You express your appreciation when they do a good job.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 11. You treat each subordinate as an individual.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 12. You tell them what to do if they want to be rewarded for their efforts.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 13. Their contributions are congruent with the benefits they derive from working.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 14. You give them what they want in exchange for showing their support for you.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 15. You are open to negotiations about working conditions.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 16. You provide feedback about rewards they may obtain.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 17. You assure them that they can get what they want in exchange for their efforts.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 18. They decide what they want and you show them how to get it.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 19. Your ideas have challenged them to rethink some of their own ideas.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 20. You enable them to think about old problems in new ways.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 21. You provide them with new ways of looking at things.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 22. As long as existing procedures work, you are satisfied with their performance.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 23. You are content to let them continue doing their job in the same way as always.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 24. As long as things are going all right, you do not try to challenge anything.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 25. You ask no more of them than what is absolutely essential to get the work done.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 26. It is all right if they take initiative, but you do not encourage them to do so.
- \_\_\_\_\_ 27. You only tell them what they have to know to do their job.



## II. YOUR WORK/FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS

### A. You and Your Work

**Directions:** Please use the following key to assess the degree of these is a source of your agreement with the following statements

Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree
1	2	3	4	5

- \_\_\_ 1. I have pursued the job of my choice even when it cut deeply into the time I had for my family.
- \_\_\_ 2. It has always been more important to me to have some leisure time after work than to be committed to my career.
- \_\_\_ 3. I find it difficult to enjoy my time away from work.
- \_\_\_ 4. Work is one of the few areas in life where I gain real satisfaction.
- \_\_\_ 5. I have always pursued the job of my choice, even when it has limited my personal freedom.
- \_\_\_ 6. To me, a job is primarily a way of making money.
- \_\_\_ 7. I have always enjoyed thinking about and making plans for my career.
- \_\_\_ 8. I find it difficult to find satisfaction in my life unless I am enjoying my job.
- \_\_\_ 9. Work is a necessary evil.
- \_\_\_ 10. Deciding on a career path was the most important decision I had to make in my life.
- \_\_\_ 11. I have never given much thought to future jobs I might have.
- \_\_\_ 12. I have always been ready to sacrifice to get ahead in my job.
- \_\_\_ 13. I look at my career as a means of expressing myself.
- \_\_\_ 14. Over my lifetime I consider myself to have been extremely "Career-minded".
- \_\_\_ 15. I could never have been truly happy had I not achieved success in my work.
- \_\_\_ 16. I always pursued the job of my choice, even when it allowed little opportunity to enjoy my friends.
- \_\_\_ 17. I always try to forget my job when I leave work.
- \_\_\_ 18. I started thinking about jobs and careers when I was young.
- \_\_\_ 19. I have always pursued the job of my choice, even when it left me little time for religious activities.
- \_\_\_ 20. It is more important to be committed to a career than to have family that is closely knit.
- \_\_\_ 21. The idea of holding a job has always been distasteful to me.
- \_\_\_ 22. Planning for and succeeding in a career has always been my primary concern.
- \_\_\_ 23. When I first began to work, I often wondered whether I would enjoy my chosen field.
- \_\_\_ 24. It is more important to me to be liked by others than to be committed to my career.
- \_\_\_ 25. Planning for a specific career is at best problematic.
- \_\_\_ 26. I would agree to a major relocation if I thought it would help my career.
- \_\_\_ 27. It is more important to me to be socially responsible than to be committed to my work.
- \_\_\_ 28. I have never really thought much about how important my work is in my life.



Please respond to the following section only if you are living with a spouse or significant other, have children living at home, or care for elderly parents.

B. Work/Family Conflict  
Part One

**Directions:** Please use the following key to indicate your agreement with the following statements.

Disagree	Somewhat Disagree	Neutral	Somewhat Agree	Agree
1	2	3	4	5

- \_\_\_ 1. I am not able to act the same way at home as I do at work.
- \_\_\_ 2. When I am assertive at home, it is not appreciated by some members of my family.
- \_\_\_ 3. Although my work is time consuming, I am usually able to find plenty of time for my family.
- \_\_\_ 4. My personal interests (other than family) take too much time away from my work.
- \_\_\_ 5. The demands of my family life seldom make it difficult to concentrate on work.
- \_\_\_ 6. My personal problems seldom affect my behavior at work.
- \_\_\_ 7. My work schedule seldom conflicts with my family life.
- \_\_\_ 8. After work, I come home too tired to do some of the things I'd like to do.
- \_\_\_ 9. I have so much work to do that it takes time away from my personal interests.
- \_\_\_ 10. Some members of my family dislike how often I am preoccupied with my work when I am at home.
- \_\_\_ 11. Although my work is demanding, I am usually not irritable at home.
- \_\_\_ 12. Although my job is demanding, I usually find it easy to relax at home.
- \_\_\_ 13. My work takes up time that I'd like to spend with my family.
- \_\_\_ 14. My job does not keep me from being the kind of spouse or parent I would like to be.

Part Two

**Directions:** Please fill in or circle the most appropriate response.

1. How many children do you have? \_\_\_\_\_
2. What is the range in age levels of your children? \_\_\_\_\_--\_\_\_\_\_ years.
3. Did you (or do you) work full time while your children were (are) growing up?
  1. Yes    2. No
4. Did you have children before completing your college training
  1. Yes    2. No
5. How many of your children live with you? \_\_\_\_\_
6. In your household, who had/has primary responsibility for child care arrangements?
  1. Self    2. Spouse/live-in partner
7. Did/Does spouse assume equal responsibility when child/children were/are ill and required/someone to stay home?
  1. Yes    2. No

C. Organizational Information

**Directions:** This section identifies characteristics of your organization. Please fill in or circle the number of the appropriate response. If you don't know, please leave blank.

1. What is the size of the student population in your school district? \_\_\_\_\_
2. What percentage of the employees that you supervise are female? \_\_\_\_\_
3. What is the approximate average full-time equivalent salary of the female employees you supervise? \_\_\_\_\_
4. What is the approximate average full-time equivalent salary of the male employees you supervise? \_\_\_\_\_
5. Approximately what percentage of your organization's upper management is female? \_\_\_\_\_
6. Assuming equal qualifications, a male and female apply for a position, what is the chance (in percentage) of you hiring the male? \_\_\_\_\_
7. How many years have you been employed for the school district you now work for? \_\_\_\_\_
8. How many years have you served in the present position? \_\_\_\_\_
9. What is/was the concentrated area of study for your Master's degree? \_\_\_\_\_  
Doctorate if applicable? \_\_\_\_\_
10. Is your assistant male or female? \_\_\_\_\_  
1. Female 2. Male
11. How was your undergraduate education financed? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
12. How were your graduate studies financed? \_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
13. What is the annual budget for your school district? \_\_\_\_\_

D. Your School District's Personnel Policies

**Directions:** Please circle the number of the appropriate response(s). Note: there may be more than one response.

1. What work scheduling is available?
  1. Ten month year
  2. Eleven month year
  3. Same holidays as teachers
  4. Sick leave
  5. Sabbaticals or extended leave programs
  6. Other
2. Is paid parental/dependent leave available for:
  1. Females 2. Males 3. Both 4. Neither
3. Is unpaid parental/dependent leave available for:
  1. Females 2. Males 3. Both 4. Neither

### III. DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

#### A. Personal Characteristics

**Directions:** This section identifies personal characteristics which will be used only to classify information. Please fill in or circle the number of the appropriate response.

1. How old were you on your last birthday? \_\_\_\_\_
2. How many hours per week do you currently work on the job? \_\_\_\_\_
3. How many hours per week do you spend in meetings or activities in addition to the above hours? \_\_\_\_\_
4. What is your current marital status?  
 1. Married 2. Single, never married 3. Divorced 4. Widowed

*If you answered "married" in question 4 above, answer questions 5 and 6. If not, go on to question 7.*

5. What is your spouse's current employment status?  
 1. Full-time 2. Part-time 3. Retired 4. Unemployed
6. What is your spouse's current annual gross income from all sources to the nearest thousand? \_\_\_\_\_
7. What per cent of the family's total income do you contribute? \_\_\_\_\_
8. Do you have education beyond a Master's degree?  
 1. Yes 2. No
9. Do you have a PhD/EdD degree?  
 1. Yes 2. No
10. Have you ever taken a leave of absence or had periods of unemployment from working as an educator?  
 1. Yes 2. No
11. If you answered "yes" to question number 10, please circle the reason(s) for taking leave or for periods of unemployment and insert the length of time taken for each leave.
 

1. Maternity	_____ months
2. Parental/dependent care	_____ months
3. Temporary disability	_____ months
4. Travel/vacation	_____ months
5. Education	_____ months
6. Spouse/partner relocation	_____ months
7. Other reasons _____	
12. Do you consider your job your second career?  
 1. Yes 2. No
13. If you answered "yes" to question number 12, how many years did you work full-time at another career? \_\_\_\_\_
14. Do you see yourself as a risk-taker?  
 1. Yes 2. No
15. Did your parents encourage you to take risk?  
 1. Yes 2. No
16. Did you participate in competitive sports in growing up?  
 1. Yes 2. No
17. Did your mother teach you that as a female you were to be submissive?  
 1. Yes 2. No

18. Did your parents discourage aggressive behavior from you as a child?  
1. Yes 2. No
19. How many brothers do you have? \_\_\_\_\_ Sisters? \_\_\_\_\_
20. What was your position in birth order? (Please circle one.)  
1 2 3 4 5 or later
21. Did your mother work full-time while you were growing up?  
1. Yes 2. No
22. What was the highest grade your mother completed in school? \_\_\_\_\_  
Father? \_\_\_\_\_
23. Have you ever acted as a mentor to anyone?  
1. Yes 2. No
24. Have you ever had a mentor?  
1. Yes 2. No
25. If you answered "yes" to 24, was your mentor male or female? \_\_\_\_\_
26. How do you fit in with the "good 'ole boys group"?

1	2	3	4	5
Not So Well	Somewhat Well	Well	Very Well	Extremely Well

**Thank you for your participation. Check back to be certain that you have not skipped any questions or omitted any pages. Please see next page for mailing instructions.**

"I understand that the return of my completed questionnaire constitutes my informed consent to act as a subject in this research."





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## Appendix B

### Human Subjects Committee Review

████████████████████

TEXAS WOMAN'S  
UNIVERSITY  
DENTON DALLAS HOLSTON

March 9, 1995

Helen Sullivan  
14505 Ablon  
Dallas TX 75234

HUMAN SUBJECTS  
REVIEW COMMITTEE  
P.O. BOX 22939  
Denton, TX 76204-0939  
Phone: 817/898-3377

Dear Helen Sullivan:

Social Security #: ██████████

Your study entitled "Leadership Characteristics, Work/Family Conflict, and Demographic Characteristics of Women Superintendents and Assistant Superintendents in Texas" has been reviewed by a committee of the Human Subjects Review Committee and appears to meet our requirements in regard to protection of individuals' rights.

Be reminded that both the University and the Department of Health and Human Services (HHS) regulations typically require that signatures indicating informed consent be obtained from all human subjects in your study. These are to be filed with the Human Subjects Review Committee. Any exception to this requirement is noted below. Furthermore, according to HHS regulations, another review by the Committee is required if your project changes.

Special provisions pertaining to your study are noted below:

- ☒ The filing of signatures of subjects with the Human Subjects Review Committee is not required.
- ☒ Your study is exempt from further TWU Human Subjects Review.
- ☐ No special provisions apply.

Sincerely,

*Patti Hamilton*

Chair  
Human Subjects Review Committee

cc: Graduate School  
Dr. Vera Gershner, Early Childhood & Special Education  
Dr. Lloyd Kinnison, Early Childhood & Special Education

**Appendix C**  
**Transformational and Transactional**  
**Data Tables**



Table 15

Transformational Items Indicating High Mean Scores of  
Respondents' Perception of Their Behavior in Relation to  
Employees

<u>Variable</u>	<u>Small Group Mean</u>	<u>Large Group Mean</u>
Creates Enthus. about Assignm.	3.71	3.87
Pays careful Atten. to Standard Operating Procedures	4.20	4.07
A Model for them to follow	4.31	4.41
Inspires Loyalty to School Dist.	4.43	4.44
An Inspiration to Them	3.94	4.09
Transmits a Sense of Mission	4.31	3.53
Initiates Unity for Accomplish.	4.09	4.34
Personal Atten. to Members who seem neglected	4.09	3.92
Helps them get what they want	4.29	4.14
Expresses Appreciation	4.49	4.37
Individualizes	4.66	4.64
Open to Negotiations about working Conditions	4.23	4.06
Show how to get what They Want	3.29	3.43
Challenge them to Rethink their Own Ideas	4.11	4.12
Enable them to think about Old Problems in New Ways	4.06	4.20
Provide New Ways of Looking at Things	4.26	4.22

Table 16

Transactional Items Indicating High Mean Score of  
Respondents' Perception of Their Behavior in Relation to  
Employees

Variable	Small Group Mean	Large Group Mean
Uses Rewards as Incentives	3.40	3.33
They Get What They Deserve	3.39	3.46
Take Care of Them if They Support you	2.29	2.34
Provide Feedback about Rewards they may receive	3.71	3.56
Efforts will be Rewarded by Desires	2.94	2.88
Satisfied with Performance as long as Exist. Proceed Work	2.80	3.02
Content to allow them to Continue doing job in Same old way	2.11	2.27
Do not Challenge Anything as long as things are going all right	2.34	2.15
Do not Expect more than job requires	1.66	1.76
Do not Encourage Initiative	1.46	1.45
Only tell them what is required to do their job	1.47	1.53