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WOMEN AND THE SUPERINTENDENCY:
A COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE
CAREER PATHS AND EXPECTATIONS

by

Ann S. Keim

A Dissertation

Presented to the Graduate Committee

of Lehigh University

in Candidacy for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

in

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1978

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WOMEN AND THE SUPERINTENDENCY:
A COMPARISON OF MALE AND FEMALE
CAREER PATHS AND EXPECTATIONS

by

Ann S. Keim

Lehigh University, 1978

This study was designed to test the hypothesis that women fail to achieve the position of Superintendent of Schools because their career paths are different from the norm set by men. It was hypothesized that females stay in each position longer, experience more interruptions during their careers, and are more apt to move to staff rather than line positions than are men. It was further hypothesized that females have lower career aspirations and do not expect to achieve the superintendency.

Design

The population to be studied was all persons earning certification as superintendent in Pennsylvania between January 1, 1970 and December 31, 1977, with a sample of 470 persons identified from this population. A researcher-designed instrument was mailed to the sample with 67.4% returns. Respondents were divided by sex into three groups:

- A. those who have successfully achieved a position as superintendent since January 1, 1970.
- B. those who have applied for a position as superintendent but have never been selected
- C. those who have never applied for a position as superintendent

Responses were analyzed using descriptive statistics, t-tests, and Chi square at 95% confidence levels.

A second instrument was researcher-designed to question superintendents of all of Pennsylvania's 505 school districts, with 65.2% returns. A third questionnaire was designed to query executive directors of all of Pennsylvania's 29 Intermediate Units, with 82.8% returns. Both questionnaires sought information about district programs and philosophies which could promote or hinder women seeking the superintendency. Finally, chairmen of departments of educational administration at five Pennsylvania schools of education were interviewed to determine both perceptions of female students and programs to enhance the likelihood of women preparing to become superintendents.

Findings

1. Women's career paths to the superintendency are significantly different from that of men.
 - a. a difference between men and women in age at which each leaves teaching for administration, with women on the average 4.3 years older
 - b. a difference between men and women in number of years taken to earn the doctorate after the master's degree, with women taking one year longer
 - c. a difference between men and women in number of years taken to earn superintendent's certificate, with women taking 2.4 years less
 - d. a difference between men and women in age at which superintendent's certificate earned, with women 2.9 years older.
2. There is a difference in number of years working in positions of teacher, assistant principal, principal, and assistant superintendent between men and women, but the difference is not significant.
3. Women experience more interruptions in their career than men, with 39.6% of women leaving at least once, and 9.8% of men doing so. Most women who leave do so for family and child-rearing reasons.
4. Few women are in principalships or other line

positions; most women in this study are in staff positions in central offices of school districts.

5. Women have lower career expectations than do men, as expressed in their rating of the likelihood of their becoming superintendent with their next job, or in five years. Of men, 58.2% expected to become superintendent, as compared with 27.6% of the women.
6. Women aspiring for the superintendency have earned more certificates and are more likely to have doctorates than their male counterparts.
7. Women aspiring to be superintendents plan their careers as far ahead as do men, but express less satisfaction with their career path than their male counterparts.

The study concluded with a list of recommendations for school districts, school boards, superintendents, schools of education, state departments of education, and women themselves.

PROLOGUE

"The journey of a thousand miles begins with one step."

Lao-Tsze

CHAPTER 1

THE PROBLEM: ITS NATURE AND SCOPE

Statement of the Problem

This study was designed to test the hypothesis that women fail to achieve the position of Superintendent of Schools because their career paths are different from the norm set by men. It is hypothesized that females stay in each position longer, experience more interruptions during their careers, and are more apt to move to staff rather than line positions than are men. It is further hypothesized that females have lower career aspirations and do not expect to achieve the superintendency.

Background of the Problem

There are currently only two female school superintendents in Pennsylvania (in the Carmichaels and the Baldwin-Whitehall School Districts near Pittsburgh). There are, however, at least 35 women in the state who are qualified for the superintendency, according to the Bureau of Certification, Department of Education, Harrisburg.

Statistics nationwide show that the number of women in educational administration has decreased markedly over the past ten years or more. In New York State

in 1970, 8.1% of the superintendents were women (Muhich, 1974), but by 1974, there were no females heading any of New York's 300 districts except for New York City where several smaller area divisions had women chiefs (Peterson, 1977). In Illinois between 1968 and 1972, there was a decrease in the number of women in every educational administrative position (Chesebro, 1972).

Additional statistics show that the trend for females in school leadership is markedly downward. Clement in 1971 listed ninety women as superintendents throughout the United States, of the total 14,379 school districts (0.6%). That same year, National Education Association surveys revealed approximately 0.9% of the United States superintendencies occupied by women, with approximately 3.0% of the assistant superintendents female. In 1973, Connel noted that there were 65 women superintendents and 196 women assistant superintendents throughout the nation. Also in 1973, Crosby documented 25 states with women superintendents, located mostly in the south, with fewest in New England. By 1976, Howard and Schmuck (1976) separately determined that only 0.1% of United States school superintendents were female. Questionnaires sent to state departments of education in February 1978 revealed only 77 female superintendents (See Appendix A for list).

The downward trend is continuing, accelerated now by reductions in administrative staff size, declining enrollments, and in some states consolidation of small school districts into larger ones (McClure and McClure, 1974; AASA, 1975).

In a similar vein, of 65,306 central office administrators and supervisors in the United States, 74.0% are male. The 26.0% that are female are concentrated in elementary education and pupil personnel services, in staff positions (Young, 1976). The only administrative jobs where women are visible in local school districts, then, are staff positions in the central office. Staff positions may or may not lead to the superintendency, but Carlson in his comprehensive 1972 study of the career paths of superintendents suggests that the larger percentage of women in staff jobs is proof that staff positions tend to be the highest rung on the management ladder achieved by women.

Typically, superintendents have been principals at one step in their career paths. The pool of women in principalships, possibly awaiting future superintendencies, is shrinking too. The number of female principals declined from 55.0% in 1928 to 13.5% in 1973 (Coursen, 1975). Although women comprise 84.7% of elementary school faculties, only 19.4% of elementary school principals were women in 1975 (Young, 1976).

This is down from 21.0% in 1971 and 19.6% in 1973 (Alexander, 1973).

Superintendents most typically move to that job after being high school principals. Secondary principalships are held by even fewer women than elementary ones. Although 46.0% of all secondary teachers are women, only 2.9% of the junior high principals (down from 3.5% in 1971) and 1.4% of high school principals (down from 3.0% in 1971) were women in 1973 (Bach, 1976). Table 1 shows this dramatic drop from 1967-77. There is some indication the decrease has stabilized, however, since 1973-1974.

Yet one must keep in mind that of all classroom teachers, 67.2% are women and 32.8% are men (Clement, 1975). This is a 2:1 ratio. Women are clearly preponderant in the professional ranks from which school administrators are recruited.

In Graduate Schools of Education, the situation is not any better. Only 2.0% of the professors of educational administration are female, providing few role models for female students (Lyon and Saario, 1973; Niedermayer and Kramer, 1974).

Many reasons have been suggested as causes for the small percentage of women at all levels of educational administration. Surely the reasons for the dramatic drop are more than those of prejudice and

TABLE 1
 PERCENTAGE OF WOMEN IN PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
 PENNSYLVANIA PUBLIC SCHOOLS 1967, 1974, 1977

POSITION	1966-67	1973-74	1976-77	PERCENTAGE OF CHANGE 1967-77	PERCENTAGE OF CHANGE 1974-77
Superintendent	.5%	.2%	.1%	-80.0%	-50.0%
Asst. Supt.	4.9%	4.2%	4.8%	- 2.0%	+14.3%
Other Central Office Admin.	4.2%	4.9%	7.0%	+66.7%	+42.9%
Coordinator, Dir., Supervisor	34.3%	25.5%	32.4%	- 5.5%	+27.1%
Sec. Principal	3.2%	2.0%	2.8%	-12.5%	+40.0%
Asst. Sec. Prin.	6.1%	4.8%	7.2%	+18.0%	+50.0%
Elem. Principal	23.4%	15.0%	13.0%	-44.4%	-13.3%
Asst. El. Prin.	18.0%	10.5%	14.8%	-17.8%	+41.0%

Statistics from PSEA Task Force on Women, 1975 (1978 Update)

discrimination, although these factors play some role in the lack of women in educational leadership today.

It has been suggested that there are no qualified women available, that women do not have the necessary experience and education to become superintendents. The need exists to compare women's career paths and education with those of men to determine if there are differences or subtle shades of variation which may account for women not becoming superintendents. Vague aspirations have also been suggested as a cause. The expectations of qualified women are very important if they are to achieve their goal of leadership.

This study will not confront sex bias and discrimination as a variable for investigation, although both necessarily pervade the study as an undercurrent too strong to be ignored. While we know that traditional patterns in our society, coupled with existing myths and attitudes, have combined to create an atmosphere in which many women do not aspire to top positions and are not encouraged toward them, their effect will not be measured, if indeed it can be.

Justification for the Study

"At a time when American education is beset with

almost overwhelming problems and its very ability to perform is being seriously questioned by some respected scholars, creative and dynamic leadership is needed now as never before." So begins the Introduction to a new American Association of School Administrators handbook (AASA, 1975, p. 1), in which Executive Director Paul Salmon states that "American education must be in the forefront of the endeavor to develop all human talent, wherever it is to be found. To fail to do so threatens our very survival."

Shortages of highly capable school administrators are critical in some areas of the United States (Dale, 1974). As problems grow keener, "the need for first-rate talent expands even faster. In competition for well-educated, highly-motivated executives, will business and the service professions turn to their most obvious 'natural resource': women?" (Schwartz, 1971, p. 5) It is becoming apparent that a "society constantly plagued with the need for more qualified human resources increases its talent pool considerably as soon as it views women through the same lens as it uses for white males." (Clement, 1975, p. 29) The human problems of our schools are too serious and too tenacious for us to ignore this possible pool of female talent, largely untapped.

A 1975 position paper of the Advisory Board to

the Institute for Educational Leadership of the George Washington University, written by Francis Keppel of the Aspen Institute, Paul Salmon of the American Association of School Administrators, and Paul Ylvisaker, Dean of the Harvard Graduate School of Education, stated that:

In the drive for accountability, efficiency, and better cost-benefit ratios in education, one important area has been ignored. That is the high cost of excluding women from decision-making posts in education. This situation results in waste of women's potential, reduced educational effectiveness, and low returns on the taxpayer's dollar. We cannot expect a harmonious, effectively functioning system (a necessary prerequisite of learning) if 52% of students and 70% of teachers see themselves essentially as non-participants. (p. 23)

It has been said that if educators do not begin using the untapped and underutilized leadership abilities of the 52% of our population represented by women, the dismal outcome is predictable (Howard, 1975; Trotter, 1977). Few observers of the United States educational system will deny that it needs "all the talent and commitment available at administration levels. Women educators constitute a large reservoir of vastly underutilized talent." (Lyon and Saario, 1973, p. 120)

It then becomes apparent that women's abilities are needed along with those of their male counterparts. Their points of view are needed in grappling with problems related to all aspects of American education (AASA, 1975; Goerss, 1977). Bach in 1976 added that:

If the educational leader is a woman who has overcome her usual acculturation, yet preserved her ancient heritage of empathy and nurturance, she would be an educator in the finest sense of that term: disciplined yet creative, logical yet empathetic, directive yet supportive. (p. 464)

Title IX, school district antidiscrimination policies, affirmative action, and current thinking would suggest that a number of superintendencies should be filled by qualified women. But they are not. It is of course now a matter of law and public policy that women should achieve a better distribution in the labor force and, therefore, a more equitable representation at administrative levels in education (Niedermayer and Kramer, 1974). Trotter (1977) stated that "while equality of opportunity for women in education is a goal in and of itself, the advantages to the entire educational system and to society at large . . . are vital points of progress for America" (p. 6).

The American Association of School Administrators (AASA) was recently awarded a \$140,000 Ford Foundation grant to promote female superintendencies. Increased employment opportunities for women and assured success of new female superintendents were listed as major goals for the project. A series of three national workshops was planned for the winter of 1977-78 to further these goals, an indication of the deep awareness of the problem on the part of both the Ford Foundation and the AASA.

Purpose of the Study

The major goal of this study is to determine reasons for the lack of female school superintendents, by means of comparing:

1. male and female career paths and education to the superintendency
2. male and female aspirations and expectations for achieving that goal.

Secondary objectives include discovering the quantity and background of those women in Pennsylvania prepared to become superintendents; discovering the percentage of this pool of women who are actually applying for jobs as superintendents; determining school district and Graduate School of Education programs, policies, and philosophies which hinder or promote women to the superintendency; and stimulating and encouraging those programs and policies which do support and promote women.

Chapter 2 will review the pertinent literature relating to this study, and the following chapter describes the design of the study. Chapter 4 describes the results of the questionnaires and explains the data gathered. The concluding chapter summarizes the study and lists recommendations for the future.

CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The literature on the role of women in our society has become abundant and diverse in both quality and usefulness. A computerized search in the narrowed area of women in educational administration revealed a growing trend toward research in this field.

A thorough search of the Comprehensive Dissertation Index and Dissertation Abstracts through May 1977 revealed no study on the career paths and aspirations of women as they travel toward the superintendency, although there have been many dissertations on related subjects concerning women in educational administrative positions.

Because of the breadth of the related literature, this review has been divided into five areas:

- the socialization of women as it affects educational leadership
- women in educational administration in general
- literature suggesting reasons for the lack of women superintendents
- women in Graduate Schools of Education
- needed research

The Socialization of Women as it Affects Leadership in Education

The cultural conditioning a woman experiences from girlhood molds and shapes her for all her future years. Holter (1970) conducted one of the most comprehensive studies to date on the function and processes of sex differentiation in western societies, and concluded that "the more differentiated the roles of men and women in a society or group, the larger is the difference in power and prestige accorded the two genders" (p. 86).

The description and explanation of how individuals come to take on the attitudes, values, and behaviors expected of them is a major issue in social psychological research. Results of many studies on women's lack of achievement in our society have been succinctly summarized by Hoffman (1972):

The failure of women to fulfill their intellectual potential has been adequately documented. The explanations for this are so plentiful that one is almost tempted to ask why women achieve at all. Their social status is more contingent on whom they marry than what they achieve; their sense of femininity and others' perceptions of them as feminine is jeopardized by too much academic and professional success; . . . and discrimination against women in graduate school admittance and the professions puts a limit on what rewards their performance will receive. Perhaps, most important, they have an alternative to professional success and can opt out whenever the going gets rough. . . . But women's underachievement must have roots even deeper than these, for the precursors of the underachieving woman can be seen in the female child. (pp. 129-130)

According to Maccoby and Jacklin (1974), there are only four well-established general psychological differences between males and females; girls have greater verbal ability; boys have greater visual-spatial ability, math ability, and higher levels of aggression. The researchers state flatly that the only one of these differences which may have some bearing on women in management positions is the relatively smaller amounts of aggression. A study at the University of California (Reif et al., 1975) found no significant differences between men and women which would limit the capacity of women to be effective managers.

In our society, the "stroking" function is generally assigned to women. Bernard (1971) devoted an entire chapter to the supportive function expected of women, or "stroking". The specialization of women in most of the world's cultures, "stroking" is defined as showing solidarity, raising others' status, giving help and rewards, agreeing, accepting. Bernard theorized that the costs of such behaviors being expected primarily from women are subtle and widespread; that the professional woman pays in her achievement, feeling that her accomplishments are trivial. Still another cost is the inability to distinguish between being supportive and being subservient; raising someone else's status may

mean lowering one's own (Gordon and Strober, 1975). The supportiveness of women is often manifested in acquiescence and the inability to make decisions, according to Fenn (1975).

Berger (1977) maintains that:

The family, peers, schools, and society at large are socializing influences. The way in which these forces socialize the American female is dysfunctional because they fail to prepare her for an economic role in the labor force. Inherent in the socialization process is the expectation that women will play a supportive role as marriage partner, rather than a self-supporting role as an achieving individual with a value in the marketplace. . . . She is dissuaded from longterm career investments on the grounds that her marriage partner will provide for her economic needs. (p. 3)

In contrast to men, whose socialization emphasizes independence, work, and career orientation, women's socialization emphasizes sexism and servitude. Examples can be seen in the kinds of toys provided, roles in the family, and schooling (Fenn, 1975). Just as Maccoby and Jacklin, Fenn found few inherent differences psychologically or aptitudinally. She measured 22 inherent aptitudes in both men and women and found that men excelled in grip and structural visualization. Women excelled in finger dexterity, accounting, verbal persuasion, and abstract visualization. There was no difference between the sexes in the remaining sixteen aptitudes tested. A study by the Johnson O'Connor Company of Boston also showed women more likely than men (by a factor of 3:2)

to have the ability to grasp ideas and theories, the touchstone of the successful executive (Muhich, 1974).

Simpson and Simpson in 1969 found that:

There exists a vicious circle in which discrimination against women and the sometimes valid basis for it reinforce each other. Their competing family roles and the expectation that they will be discriminated against reduce women's performance and aspirations. They are then discriminated against partly because they are thought to lack ambition. (p. 230)

Fenn, too, substantiated the notion that the roles women are assigned emphasize dependency (1975). When females approach the boundaries of expected behavior, they are generally censured, ridiculed, discouraged, denied. As a consequence, the need to achieve is soon sublimated.

Women are hampered by the traditional view of man as the aggressor (DeRosis, 1977). Because women have traditionally allowed men to take the initiative and the risks, they have had little experience in priority- and goal-setting, and in independence. The image of the dependent female haunts us all. Male healthy traits are autonomy, dominance, aggression, power, achievement. Female standards approach those of sick men: timidity, emotionalism, deference, self-abasement, passivity (Bach, 1976). Bach concluded: "It's not that I'm against leadership by men; it's just that I'm for the special kinds of insight that only women can give. That

ancient Greek word, androgyny, seems more and more appropriate. It is wholeness and balance that we need." (p. 464)

Psychological androgyny, as described by Sandra Bem of Stanford University, is possession of characteristics commonly considered both masculine and feminine in nature (Bruck, 1977; Deaux, 1976). High femininity traits correlate with low self-esteem, low self-acceptance. Bruck's notion is that femininity and masculinity represent complementary domains of positive traits and behaviors that could in principle be embodied in one individual.

One study investigated the degree to which individuals attribute certain personality characteristics and behaviors to males and females (Broverman et al., 1972). Using a questionnaire with almost 1000 subjects, the researchers found high agreement on the norms and behavioral attributes surrounding the sex roles of men and women in our society. Women were perceived as less competent, less independent, less objective, and less logical than men. Men were perceived as lacking interpersonal sensitivity, warmth, and expressiveness as compared to women. The researchers concluded that stereotypic differences between men and women are accepted by a large segment of our society. Schmuck (1976a)

elaborated on the findings:

These sex role and related behaviors are very visible in education. Because men and women comprise the professionals in the field, it is appropriate for a female to take the initiative, be objective, and perform leadership functions if those behaviors are in relation to students. It is men, however, who assume positions of leadership and issue directives to adult professionals. A majority of men and women in education expect men to take the reins of leadership and manage the schools. (pp. 4-5)

Traditional patterns in society, then, coupled with existing myths and attitudes, have combined to create an atmosphere in which few women aspire to top positions or are encouraged toward them. Schmuck (1976b) attempted to answer the question "Why are women's aspirations and achievements different from men's? She stated that:

Individuals develop through interaction with others; they come to live out the explicit or implicit expectations of others. Our society has differential roles and expectations reserved for male and female children -- the norms of society are communicated very early to our children. (pp. 73-74)

Hoffman (1972) documented three motivations of all humans: achievement, affiliation, and power. The researcher found that in our society, the achievement motive becomes dominant in males, and the affiliation motive dominant in females. Horner, also in 1972, substantiated this line of reasoning and demonstrated how adult females sacrifice achievement for affiliation. From this grew her well-known "fear of success" theory.

Similarly, Lipman-Blumen (1973) demonstrated that many women are channeled into patterns of vicarious achievement, rather than direct achievement, as a means to solve the dissonance created by being feminine as well as being achievement-oriented.

Matina Horner, President of Radcliffe College, sought in 1968 to explain the unresolved sex differences detected in previous research on achievement motivation. On the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) administered, more than 90% of the men in the study showed positive feelings indicating that success would bring them rewards. For females, 65% of them associated success with negative consequences. Horner's study has been replicated many times since 1968, with different populations and different cues, but each time the fear of success is present in females to a significantly larger degree than in males. Hoffman (1974) replicated Horner's work in order to see whether the years between 1968 and 1972 and the social movements toward sex role equality had influenced the motive to avoid success in women. He found the fear of success was still evoked by all the cues and in similar percentages.

The motive to achieve in a male-dominated profession is complicated. Not only Horner's 1968 and 1972 work investigated this but Bardwick (1971) and Tangri

(1972) supported the view that women often inhibit their achievement behaviors in order to fit their internalized feminine stereotypic image. Bardwick further stated his belief that the critical factor in the development of an independent self is the independent motive to achievement.

Patterns of career choice are developmental and complex. During ages 13-17, children become aware of their own capabilities and what they are best suited for, and the possibilities available in the world of work (Argyl, 1972; Ginsberg, 1951; Super, 1957). Sexual stereotypes have a profound effect on the choices girls and women make in their work (Maccia, 1977). Text-books often prepare women to accept unquestioningly their future as unimportant, nonproductive, nonadventurous, and unintelligent beings. It is commonly accepted that, other things being equal, people choose careers that are consistent with their beliefs about themselves (Korman, 1970).

Women are socialized not to have high career expectations and aspirations (Maccoby, 1966; Barnett and Tanuiri, 1973; Rousell, 1974). They thus need more support from peers, superiors, and subordinates than do men. There are also many indications that women not only learn to avoid success, but learn to avoid high prestige

occupations as well. Barnett (1975) found that males learn early to prefer those jobs high in prestige, while females learn an aversion for them. Females recognize that the social occupations have low prestige, but the single most predictable item about female selection of occupation is that it will be in the social field (Berger, 1977).

According to Singer and Stefflre (1954), female reasons for choosing a job are to provide social service and for an interesting experience. For males, reasons are power, money, and independence. Oppenheimer (1973) showed that there are increasing restrictions defining the appropriate male and female occupations: women are more and more concentrated in certain occupations, and women increasingly enter fields where females predominate. Education has always been an "appropriate" field for professional women.

Schmuck (1976) agreed that:

Women who aspire to fulfill an occupational role traditionally held by men face evident role conflicts; they stand between one set of interpersonal expectations for how they should behave as women and a contrasting set of expectations for how they should behave as administrators. On the one hand, they are supposed to be subservient, nurturant, and maintain affective relationships, yet as administrators they are supposed to be independent, assume leadership, and be task-oriented. (pp. 5-6)

Epstein (1970) argued that commitment varies with

the openness of the opportunity structure, that there is a higher turnover among those placed low in the stratification hierarchy of occupations. Doubt as to whether one's achievements will be recognized in the profession undermines motivation. Career satisfaction is highly related to one's expectations and attitude toward professional advancement. Many women lack the drive for professional recognition demonstrated by many men, according to Wolfle (1954) and Bernard (1964).

Further undermining motivation in career achievement is Abramson's (1977) notion that:

Merit is not recognized in women and racial minorities. This is not necessarily a deliberate failure and the resultant discrimination is not necessarily intentional. Frequently it is simply a matter of the human tendency to appreciate, understand, and respect that which most closely reflects one's own self-image. (p. 8)

The correlation between the number of "career successful women" and the number of female faculty members of the achiever's undergraduate institution was found by Vetter (1973) to be .953. It cannot be inferred from this correlation that an increase in women faculty will produce an increase in the number of female students aspiring to highly professional positions. However, the logic appears sound. Similarly, atypical career choosers were found twice as likely to have an employed mother,

and two-thirds stated they had been significantly influenced by college professors or people in their field (Almquist and Angrist, 1970).

Differences between men and women on the job have constituted a large area for study in recent years. Hennig and Jardim are perhaps the most notable writers with their currently popular book The Managerial Woman (1977). The researchers interviewed more than 100 women working as senior executives in business, preceded by a questionnaire to a sample of 3000 women and 1000 men. They found five significant differences between men and women at work:

1. Men look on a particular job as part of a career, but women separate the two completely. To women, a job is now, but a career is future. As a result, men concentrate on achieving long-range goals, while women focus on short-range planning.
2. Women typically make their career decisions late, about age 30-33, when they realize they'll probably have to work for the rest of their lives. In many cases, unexpected praise by a superior provided the catalyst for the decision.
3. Men see risk as loss or gain, winning or losing, danger or opportunity. Women see risk in entirely negative terms: loss, danger, losing, ruin. They see it as something one avoids when possible.
4. Men tend to focus on the boss's expectations of them, while women tend to concentrate on their own concept of themselves. The difference is critical. Men are thus more alert to cues and signals from the boss. Women have little sense of playing the game, little willingness to temporarily adopt a different style for reasons of self-interest.
5. Team play is experience for management. Boys play on teams when young; girls tend to play individual sports. Boys get a sense of belonging, team work, competitiveness, cooperation.

Boys are thus trained to work in the subtle network of lateral relationships with fellow team members; girls are not likely to be.
(p. 76)

The same researchers, writing in another article (1977b) add five major conflicts for women in management:

1. Women describe themselves as waiting to be chosen, persuaded, asked to accept promotions.
2. Women describe themselves as hesitating, waiting to be told what to do.
3. Women describe themselves as feeling in conflict and confused about their own goals.
4. Women describe themselves as reluctant to take risks.
5. Women often say that the only way they can deal with their feelings of guilt about having a career is to be a perfect wife/mother/woman.
(p. 36)

And in a third article, Hennig and Jardim (1977c) list additional conflicting feelings for women in management:

1. Women feel they're on their own; men feel they're part of a team.
2. Women feel that success in their personal lives must justify their careers; men don't separate the two.
3. Women suffer because they tend to think of themselves as two people: at work and at home. Men don't separate the two.
4. Men put pictures of their family on their desk at work, and awards on their wall at home. Women are afraid to mix the two and afraid to be proud of their accomplishments.
5. Men grow up knowing that they will work all of their lives; women ask "will I work or won't I?"
6. Men ask "what's in it for me?"; women ask, "can I measure up?"
7. Women blame themselves when their work is criticized; men say "you win some, you lose some". (p. 34)

One study of middle managers in a British oil

company and in an American car manufacturing firm found that men moving into administration were pre-occupied with their prospects of promotion; all were striving to get on to the next step of the ladder (Argyl, 1972). This preoccupation with promotions appears to be infrequently seen in women (Veiga, 1977).

Dr. Hans Selye, University of Montreal endocrinologist and founder of the International Institute of Stress, claims that the more women assume so-called male jobs, the more they become subject to so-called male diseases (myocardial infarction, gastric ulcers, hypertension). Women get the same satisfactions, of course, but at the same price. Pogrebin (1976) lists some critical stress factors unique to women, that can be traced to female conditioning:

Women were raised to be #2 to a #1 man, were expected to mother and comfort, and to be likeable. No one prepared women for leadership, competition, or confrontation -- all of which are endemic to business. We worry about becoming successful and "losing our femininity". As we rise in the hierarchy, we wonder if we will have to trade personal happiness for professional achievement, or if we'll ever learn to order our priorities, manage our guilt, the male ego, our children's demands. We're not even sure we have the right to earn money or find satisfaction in our work! (p. 77)

Since in our society it is work that largely defines a person's identity, work is important to one's self-esteem. Yet there exists little theory for vocational counseling or career development for women. Most

research has concentrated on why women fail to enter the professions, rather than on the career development of those who do enter them (Ashburn, 1977).

Women in Educational Administration in General

Schmuck (1976b) found that when women leave the classroom, they most often become guidance directors or enter psychological services or special education. In contrast, when upwardly mobile men leave the classroom, they enter educational administration. The researcher suggested that sex is the single differentiating factor, more than age, experience, education, or competence. Her study illustrated how one's sex directly affects male and female career paths in education. Mason found that 51% of male beginning teachers aspired to becoming administrators, in contrast to 9% of single women, 8% of married women, and 19% of widowed-separated-divorced women (cited in Simpson and Simpson, 1969). Bach similarly confirmed that women who show interest in pursuing careers outside the classroom are urged to become counselors, educational specialists, or supervisors (1976). All require a high degree of professional knowledge, but grant little authority to make decisions, to change existing policies and practices. The power is in administration.

Carlson (1972) writes that because men are in the

minority in public schools, because their ranks are rapidly depleted by those dropping out of the occupation, and because they are advanced to administrative posts far more frequently than women, the men who simply persist in the occupation have a high probability of moving up the ladder.

Dreeban (1970) pointed out that promotion of teachers to administration should rest on consideration of competence and impartiality, but that no valid method exists for establishment of a teacher's competence. In the absence of valid criteria for predicting satisfactory administrative performance, then, administrators often rely on informal, social modes to recruit. Women are often on unequal footing with men in terms of the kinds of informal contacts which may be necessary to insure advancement in a career. There is seldom an "old boy network" for women (Schmuck, 1976b). She continues to explain that recruitment for administrative positions occurs in the schools themselves. Most who enter Schools of Education for advanced study already hold administrative positions in a school district and will return to that district. Sample's 1976 dissertation on the factors affecting the flow of women administrators in public school systems revealed that there were significant differences in the attitudes of male and female

administrators about women's abilities in administrative roles.

A dissertation by Way (1976) was designed to compare male and female elementary and secondary school principals in Michigan. The study of 327 principals showed differences in background, education, administrative experience, and means of promotion (internal or external). A greater number of male principals indicated lack of training, education, or experience as constraints on their career progress, whereas sex discrimination was perceived as a constraint by a greater proportion of the female principals. More women indicated less congruence between their career expectations and their career aspirations than men.

Many studies have been carried out to investigate the differences between male and female leadership styles as principal. On the elementary level, Grobman and Hines (1956); Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederickson (1962); Gross and Herriott (1965); and Gross and Trask (1976) all showed women principals as more democratic than males and heading schools with more positive attitudes toward education, more professionalism, and demonstrably superior student performance. The Florida Leadership Project ran tests in elementary schools, and also found females more democratic leaders than males. Gross and Trask found

women higher on measures of administrative performance which were positively related to teacher professionalism and student performance. Gross and Herriott developed the Executive Professional Leadership Scale, and found no relationship whatever between sex and high EPL scores. They also found no relationship between formal preparation and the quality of staff leadership among school principals.

Several researchers have attempted studies which would identify and measure the personality factors and leadership of women holding administrative positions in education. Cook (1974) found that women executives who participated in a personal value profile study indicated they were more pragmatic than male executives. On a Philosophy of Human Nature Scale, women administrators seemed to hold a view of human nature that was closer to the norm of men than of other women (Mattes, 1973). In another public school study, three groups were compared: women administrators, women who were certified as administrators, and classroom teachers. Women administrators were more outgoing, emotionally stable, dominate, serious, conscientious, trusting, shrewd, self-sufficient, and controlled than women in the general population and in the other two groups (Lloyd, 1976). Still another study used the Leader Behavior Descriptive

Questionnaire, designed to determine whether men more appropriately behave as leaders than women do in secondary school principalships. On Tolerance of Freedom, men scored significantly higher than women. On all other dimensions, women scored the same or higher. This study implied that no valid reason exists to prevent women from being hired as secondary school principals (Morsink, 1970).

Taylor's dissertation (1971) indicated that preferential hiring of males is based on the belief that men are more effective administrators for social and psychological reasons. But her results showed differently. She found that in a choice between two candidates of equal qualifications and experience, the man would be chosen in preference to the woman. She found no written policy which precluded the appointment of women, yet no woman superintendents existed in Connecticut. Taylor found, finally, that more than half of Connecticut's school districts did not encourage women to train for or apply for administrative positions.

Meskin (1974) adds to this by saying that:

The studies we have reviewed present a strong case for the effectiveness of women educational administrators. . . . When we highlight some of the findings concerning women in these studies (their propensity toward democratic leadership, thoroughness of approach to problem-solving, and bent toward instructional leadership), we puzzle over

the small number of women administrators employed by school districts. . . . Setting aside the important considerations of fairness in appointment procedures, the effective job performance of women administrators alone warrants a greater place for them in the administrative hierarchy of school districts. (p. 4)

Statistics demonstrate that a significant number of beginning female teachers, as opposed to experienced female teachers, aspire to become principals. The aspirations were shown by Young (1976) to diminish as teaching experience increases. On the other hand, some studies have shown that few women teachers express the desire to become principals. Less than 20% in a California study (Burns, 1964), less than 50% in Western states (Cobberly, 1970), and only 6% in Illinois (Zimmerman, 1971) desired principalships. In all of the above studies, 40% or more of the men desired to become principals. In 42 school districts in Iowa, Neidig (1973) discovered that 95% of all women holding administrative certificates were not holding administrative positions. Gasser (1975) learned that some women do not seek such positions because of the fear of failure, uncertainty about their ability to handle conflict, or reluctance to accept policy-making roles. Pass, in her 1976 dissertation which described administrative women in education, also found that many women did not aspire to leadership positions unless strongly encouraged by

others, particularly superiors.

What is the typical career path for male superintendents? And do women necessarily have to travel the same path to attain that goal? According to Knezevich (1971), the typical superintendent in 1969-1970 started as a science, math, or social studies teacher in a secondary school, coached some sport, spent about six years in the classroom, and entered administration as a principal. He attained his first superintendency at age 36 and remained in only one state throughout his career. His average education was a Master's degree (55.1%), with 29.2% earning the doctorate. He works a 58 hour week, and his primary concern is the financing of education.

Carlson's study of male superintendents (1972) found them to be first-born children from large Protestant families, from small towns and lower income levels. The research found that these men often chose education as a second-best choice for a career. For men, education has been a route for upward mobility. Men in educational administration do not generally come from professional backgrounds; women generally come from professional families in urban settings (Schmuck, 1976b).

Schmuck reminds us further that men in education still have a predominantly female world, with the stigma

of being in a "feminine field". When men began to enter education in greater numbers after World War II, the field gained in prestige, salary, and respectability. As any field becomes more lucrative and prestigious, more men enter and more women leave. Schmuck continues to say that women in school leadership create a cognitive dissonance for men. The personal life of many male administrators supports the beliefs about women's inferior skills; most are married with the typical American mainstream middle class family. The administrator must thus struggle to find a balance between the female administrator and his own wife. Holter (1970) in a large-scale study of the Norwegian labor force hypothesized that the prestige of an occupational field is directly related to the proportion of men and women in the field. As the field gains in prestige, there are increasing numbers of males and decreasing quantities of females. In support of that hypothesis, Touhey (1974) looked at citizen attitudes toward certain professions and found that when men occupy those jobs, the prestige of the profession rises. Thus, men in a "feminine field" gain their feeling of self-worth by being in supervisory positions over females.

Career path research in the field of educational administration has been entirely focused on men. The

prototypic path proceeds very straightforwardly and is easy to trace. The straight line travels through teacher, principal, and superintendent. Most school districts are simple three or four-level hierarchical organizations (Schmuck, 1976b). One AASA (1975) study showed that two thirds of all superintendents moved through several districts in their route to the top. Walker, in his article "Let's Get Realistic About Career Paths" (1976), declared that definite and precise paths constitute a vital element in organizations, in order for employees to have some idea about their future. He believes that career paths must be specific and practical and firmly tied to actual work activities and requirements. However, organizations were built by and for men, and the styles of behavior and communication, as well as career path may grow out of a distinctly male culture (Hennig and Jardim, 1977). The norm for school superintendents is a male norm, and may not be possible or desirable for women (McClelland, 1965; O'Leary, 1974). Collins (1977) reports that the few women who do attain the heights in school administration come from the ranks of classroom teachers, university instructors, curriculum directors, or specialists; they have not been principals. The researcher states that they bring a distinctive and valuable background because of the comparatively humble

route they take to the top.

"That almost all the chief officers of school districts respond that they are favorably disposed to hiring women and yet few women are eating the administrative cake seems a strange paradox", declared Arter (cited in Muhich, 1974, p. 15). One project on public attitudes interviewed 824 Oregon adults in 1977 concerning having a female superintendent in their local school district. They found that 86% of the adults approved. Taylor's dissertation (1971) on attitudes toward women as educational administrators showed that:

1. Other things being equal, male superintendents were most likely to hire women as administrators, but that
2. Half of the school districts studied did not encourage women and
3. Analysis of the data revealed that the only factor which appeared to have any significance on the hiring practice was that of sex.

Zimmerman's dissertation (1971) found that teachers as a group are more favorable toward a female administrator than superintendents or school board members. The research also revealed that attitudes are more positive when both men and women have had experience working for a female administrator.

Researchers investigating attitudes which prevent women from obtaining administrative positions have used several designs. Warwick (1967) and Lemon (1968) studied

attitudes, and found also that teachers were more favorably disposed toward women administrators than other groups studied. Lemon found too that age is not a significant factor in attitude. In another study which included school board personnel and superintendents (Matheny, 1973), 45.8% of the women but only 10.5% of the men disagreed with the statement that men are better suited for administrative jobs. A majority of the men agreed that men prefer to work under a man, but the majority of the women disagreed. The majority of both women and men felt a male applicant for superintendent would be hired even if an equally qualified woman applied. The same percentage of men and women aspired to leadership positions in Matheny's study, but the majority of women felt that they would be discriminated against when applying. Fifty percent of the men also indicated that they had received special encouragement up the ladder ("mentoring"), but only 13.8% of the women indicated encouragement. In Bowman's 1965 study, 90% of the men and 88% of the women had agreed that a woman had to be exceptional and over-qualified to succeed as an administrator.

A four-year study by Nasstrom (1976) also explored attitudes of males toward females holding or aspiring to hold jobs which traditionally have been viewed as male-

dominated. He concluded that the enlargement of the occupational role of women does not elicit widespread enthusiasm among males. He indicated that this attitude stems from the assertion that women are unprepared to assume a wider role, the differences in leadership style between men and women, and the fear of job-holders for the security of their employment.

Literature Suggesting Reasons for the Lack of Women Superintendents

Statistics from a number of studies have been cited as evidence that the lack of female administrators is not due to a shortage of qualified candidates (Young, 1976). However, it has also been suggested that the dramatic underrepresentation of women in educational leadership may be due to the fact that women are actually less adequately educated, as can be seen in Table 2. Zimmerman's 1971 study showed that 75% of the women in central office positions held Master's degrees, and 10% held doctorates, fewer in each case than men. Schmuck, in her Oregon study (1976b), found that women's level of advanced education was indeed lower than men's. In Oregon in 1973-1974, over 50% of the administratively-certified men had Master's degrees, but over 50% of the administratively-certified women had only bachelor's degrees.

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGE OF CERTIFIED PERSONNEL IN EDUCATION
AND LEVEL OF ADVANCED TRAINING BY SEX*

DEGREE	1961		1971	
	MEN	WOMEN	MEN	WOMEN
Less than BA	4.2%	19.3%	2.1%	3.4%
BA	55.1%	65.1%	54.8%	77.4%
MA or 6 years	39.8%	15.5%	42.6%	19.0%
Doctorate	.9%	.1%	.6%	.3%

*United States only

Data from NEA Status of the Public School Teacher, p. 67

Many state departments of education have not collected lists of certifications by sex, as is the case in Pennsylvania. Thus, many statistics on preparation are difficult to ascertain. Neidermayer and Kramer (1974), however, showed that in 1971, women earned 56.2% of all Master's degrees in education, and 21.2% of all doctorates in education, but only 8.6% of these degrees were in educational administration. Centra (1974), in his Princeton study of men and women doctorates, learned that the average number of years between the bachelor's degree and the doctorate for women was 13; for men, 11 years. Forty-three percent of the women and 37% of the men received their doctoral degrees after the age of 37. Women thus earn their doctorate at a later age, and take longer doing so.

It has been argued that female interrupted career patterns give males a lead on experience. Howard (1975) suggests evidence to the contrary. This researcher opined that men advance faster with less experience simply because they are men. Gross and Trask back in 1964 had found that 34% of male elementary principals had never even been elementary teachers, while only 3% of the women had not. Hoyle and Randall (cited in Muhich, 1971) determined that 67% of male principals had less than six years of classroom experience prior to promotion, while 88% of

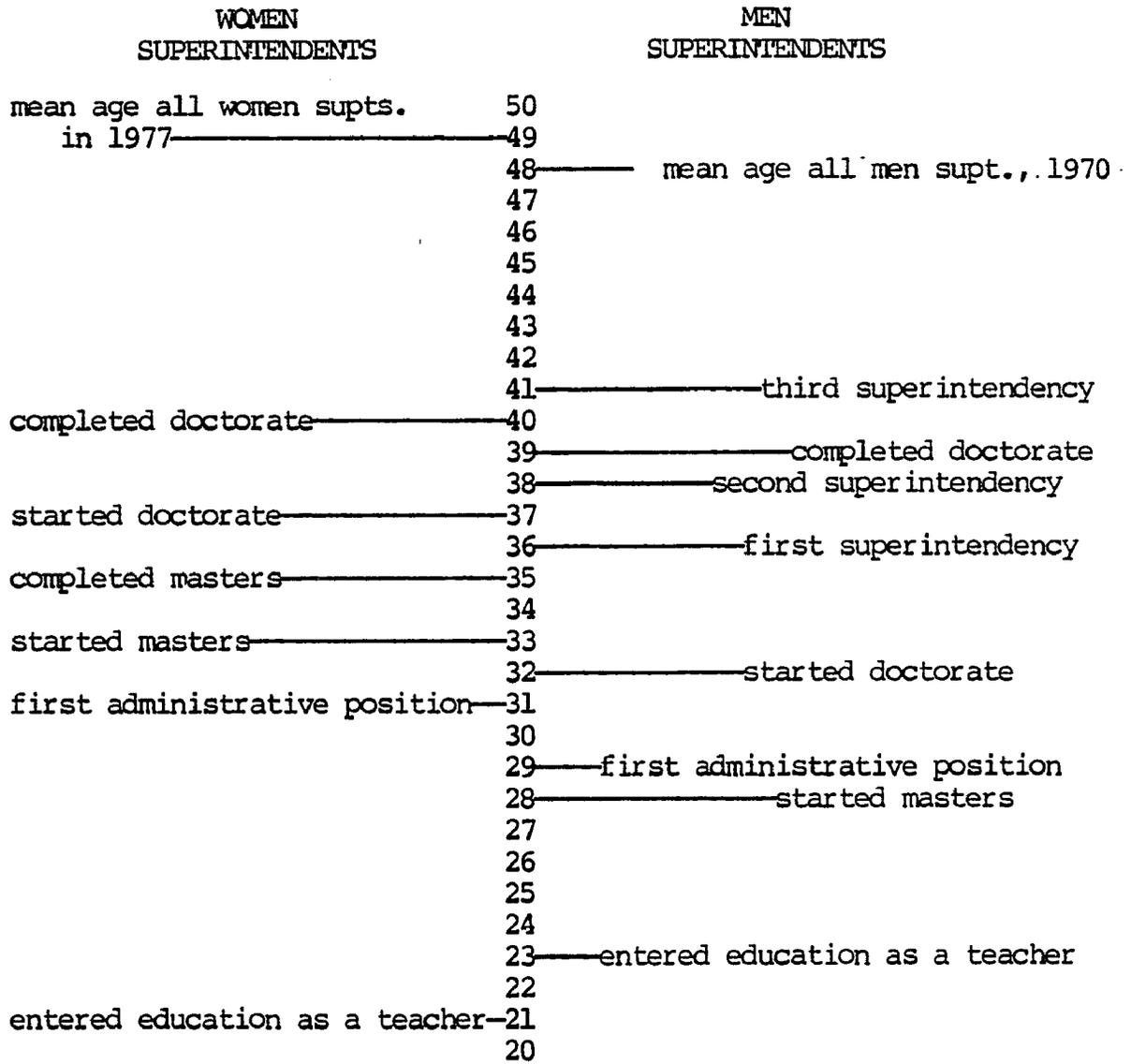
the males become principals after six or more years of teaching. Figure 1 depicts some of the important steps in the career development of men and women, with comparisons easy to make.

A study of 219 females and 430 males participating in the Computerized Research and Placement System in 1974-1976 (cited in Silver, 1977) is of importance here. The study found that the "typical" female job candidate is 35 years old, enrolled in a doctoral program she expects to complete at age 36 or 37, holds a regular teaching license, and taught for 7½ years. There is a 50% probability she has one child, is Caucasian, and was raised in New England or the Midwest. There is a 40% probability that she has had some supervisory or administrative experience. Her undergraduate degree was taken in education or the humanities, and her Master's in education or administration. She is usually seeking a position in a government agency or an elementary principalship. In comparing these women with the males in the study, the differences were interesting:

- women had been teaching slightly longer than men prior to entering the graduate program
- no minority females had been principals and only white males had been superintendents
- men cited personnel administration as their area of specialization more frequently than women

FIGURE 1

MEAN AGES OF MEN AND WOMEN SUPERINTENDENTS
AT MILESTONES IN THEIR PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCE AND GRADUATE STUDY



AGE

Adapted from Knezevich, 1971, p. 47 and Paddock, 1978, p. 11.

- females were seeking principalships and program directorships, whereas men sought superintendencies and assistant superintendencies
- women expected annual salaries \$636 less than men

Clement (1973) found that women outnumber men at every age group and have more teaching experience in every group as well. Goerss (1977) also discovered that the age of women administrators at all levels is 5-10 years older than their male counterparts. The husbands of these women usually held equal or higher level positions in their respective fields. Similarly, Niedermayer and Kramer (1974) suggest that women have to wait longer and offer more to get the few administrative jobs that they have. Clement found in 1975 that all of the variables relating to sex, such as age, experience, and education, are not generally reported in much research. The researcher speculates, however, that women superintendents are older, have more experience and education, and receive less salary than their male counterparts. They also appear to achieve the superintendency frequently in very small districts (300 children or fewer).

Women do not change jobs as often as men, according to Williams (1978). Management seems more inclined to promote women from within, probably because these women seem more familiar to them, and are seen as less

threatening. Interviews by Williams showed that women who had progressed fastest had changed jobs a number of times, and thus were believed to be aggressive in their career climb. In contrast, Warwick showed that most women were content with their present position, whether in teaching or administration, while most men were not (cited in Zimmerman, 1971). Carlson (1972) found that most women are place-bound, waiting in one place until the next job opens up, and not moving. These women develop their career options later in life than the career-bound person. Gross and Trask (1964) had earlier listed place-bound characteristics of women:

- women enter administration at a later age
- women have more years teaching experience before moving up
- women stay in one position longer
- women do not usually seek jobs; they find themselves "in the right place at the right time"
- women come up through the ranks, are not mobile
- women seldom aspire to hold a higher administrative position than they do right now
- women have no clear-cut goals and plans for their career

Angrist (1969) states that the major perception about career commitment and ambition to achieve in women professionals is that women tend to have neither, at least relative to men. Women tend to have "job" rather than "career" orientation. Poloma and Garland (1971) bear out these findings, saying that women are also less

ambitious in attaining leadership positions, and less motivated to reach the uppermost levels of power and money.

Florence Howe, President of the Modern Language Association and editor of the Feminist Press, identifies aspiration as the crucial element in women's education and advancement (1973). Horner (1970) cites a growing body of literature on "training the woman to know her place". The process results in the woman's motivation to avoid success.

There is a portion of Theodore's introduction to The Professional Woman (1971) in which the author explores various reasons for the small percentage of women in professions or positions of authority. She indicates that the choice of teaching may not necessarily be real career commitment; rather it is the path of least resistance. It would appear that women who aspire to be teachers are not those success- and career-minded women who would be motivated to choose careers in administration anyway.

We know that expectations have a great influence and effect on performance (the "self-fulfilling prophecy"). Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) showed that when teachers expected selected students to "bloom" during the year, those students' IQ increased significantly above those

of a control group. These two researchers had previously shown in 1966 that experimenter expectation made a significant difference in the performance of the subjects. We can only presume that this phenomenon carries over to graduate schools and life choices (Harris, 1974).

Lower expectations lead women to apply for jobs less often than men, too. Schmuck (1976b) found that men applied three times during a given four year period, while women applied only once in that period. She also found that of 329 applicants for administrative posts in school districts, only 14% were women, and most of those were applying for elementary principalships. She concluded that persistence may be more important than either competence or credentials.

Robinson (1971) found that men in educational administration had three times the initial job offers and were able to secure positions in institutions they preferred in a greater proportion than women. Many women did not apply for jobs in administration because of nepotism rules, immobility, or because they felt that women who took the time to apply would not get the job anyway (Muhich, 1974).

Howard (1975) listed some societal attitudes which hinder women's advancement to administrative posts:

attitudes toward married women as workers, attitudes toward the leadership skills of women administrators, and the negative image of women in administration as a career.

In general, marriage is a career asset to a man, whereas it is a deterrent for a woman. Men in high administrative posts are expected to be married, according to Carlson (1972), who says that simply being married enhances a school superintendent's career opportunities. He further states that marriage is so crucial to the superintendent's career that editors of professional magazines allocate space to the role of the superintendent's wife and her importance to her husband's career. The implication, of course, is for males. Education is not unique in this regard, however. A successful man in the public eye is expected to be married. For women, it is a different matter. Women with careers in administration are more likely than men to be unmarried, but marriage itself no longer remains the principle reason that women leave education; child-bearing is. There continue to be negative judgments about the working mother. Carlson continued to write:

Raising a family affects women's careers in direct ways. Women who want to pursue advanced education do not uproot husbands and children to take up residence at a university. Women more often interrupt careers to be at home with young children.

And women do not advance in their careers by moving their families from one school district to another. (p. 12)

Thus it can be seen that marriage and family do handicap a woman's career mobility. Yet there are many women unwilling to make the either/or choices professional jobs have traditionally demanded; men have never had to make that choice.

Schmuck has shown that women administrators who are unmarried have followed a career line more similar to married women than to married men. Women, regardless of marital status, fit the description of place-bound persons. The normal man, then, is expected to have a wife and children; the normal woman with husband and children is not expected to be upwardly mobile. There is a higher divorce rate for women doctorates (and professionals) than men (Astin, 1969; Centra, 1974). Support by husband and family is thus seen as crucial to women who decide to pursue advanced degrees and the professions after first having been established in marital life.

There also exists the feeling that women have more breaks in their careers than do men. While they do have twice the "breaks in service" in teaching that men do, Schmuck (1976b) found that none of the female administrators she studied had interrupted her career

after becoming an administrator, although some of the men did. The researcher felt that since women gain their administrative positions later in life than men, their "breaks in service" have occurred years before. East (1972) and Hoffman and Nye (1974) documented that women do not take more sick leave or job interruptions than men.

Howard (1975) found that as many men interrupt their careers, but for different reasons.

In a curious paradox of human values, men have been criticized only slightly for career interruption in which their task was to kill off other members of the human race; but women have been severely criticized for taking time away from their profession in order to raise the next generation. (p. 29)

Both military service and child-raising are temporary interruptions of one's career, and both are fulfilling societal expectations and obligations at approximately the same age. But, Centra (1974) points out that males returning from military duty were welcomed as heroes and offered the G.I. Bill, with the same job waiting them. A woman is usually out longer, with no job awaiting her return, and then has to juggle both child care and job. With the end of the draft, this point is no longer as pertinent, but it has formed part of the foundation for our thinking on leaves of absence.

Harris in 1974 cited a study completed that year

by the Woman's Committee at the University of Chicago, which confirms that women receive significantly less perceived support for their career plans than men do. It has probably always been true that men have had someone to aid and assist them as they climbed the ladder. Recently, this person has come to be called a "mentor", defined as "a guide who counsels and teaches a younger person in a paternalistic fashion" (Williams, 1978). Women have traditionally not had the advantage of mentoring, though Hennig in her doctoral dissertation (1970) showed that all 25 of the high-level executive women studied had had a male mentor along the way.

Recruitment for administrative positions often occurs within the schools. It is in the schools that administrators are spawned. It is informal associations as training grounds and the "old boy network" that foster promotion into many administrative jobs (Striffler, 1977). Women have traditionally been removed from these informal associations, and it has not been until recently that women have begun to foster these relationships and devise their own "old girl network". Peer relations also affect a woman's decision not to seek promotion into managerial ranks, where she will no longer be part of a group of women; for men, of course, peer relationships are a given throughout the managerial ranks (Kanter,

1975). Few researchers have focused on "mentoring" as a variable in success and the reaching of goals, however, and it is for this reason that this study seeks mentoring information from persons who have received a superintendent's certificate.

Niedermayer and Kramer (1974) devote a lengthy section of their position paper to sex discrimination. Pervasive, yet difficult if not impossible to document and prove, it is certainly a factor in the disproportion of female administrators. Blanchard (1976) cites study after study to demonstrate that it is an attitude of prejudice that is the most significant obstacle to a woman seeking a position in educational administration.

Even when unquestionably qualified, women tend to lose out in the selection process. The focus must then come to rest on the process, the system through which administrators are sought, evaluated, chosen, and moved ahead, according to Niedermayer and Kramer (1974). It is within "the system" that discrimination is apparent. Discrimination occurs, stated Theodore (1971), when "females of equivalent qualifications, experience, and performance as males do not share equally in the decision-making process nor receive equal rewards" (p. 88). It may be intentional or unintentional, though both are equally unlawful. Patterns of discrimination form an

invisible barrier for women who aspire to administrative and policy-making positions, stated Dale in 1974. The criteria set up for selection often rule women out; job descriptions are often set up for a particular person or few people. Most school boards and screening committees are all men (Schmuck, 1976b), and we have previously seen the results of attitudinal studies on school board members. Although women are sometimes prejudiced against other women, the research showed that female school board members evidenced the most favorable attitude toward women administrators (Taylor, 1973).

Women may be given different job titles once on the job, though still performing similar duties to men in similar positions. Women may be called curriculum coordinators, program directors, and department chairmen, while men doing the same job are called assistant superintendents. This eliminates line experience for women (Clement, 1973). Women are also more apt to work in isolation, with little support or sponsorship. Niedermayer and Kramer (1974) explain that:

A newly appointed woman usually has to make her own way. Because her employers are doubtful about the ability of women in general, they seldom commit themselves in advance to her success. They hedge so that if she doesn't work out they will not have been caught in an error of judgment. They give the new appointee and those she must direct the impression that "we will let her try to see how it goes".

Under these circumstances, complaints are likely to arise. (pp. 23-24)

The school, as a microcosm of American society, functions to reinforce the sex prejudice and discrimination increasingly recognized as widespread in our society. In its traditional role as an agent of socialization, the schools contribute to a selecting and sorting process that perpetuates the status quo, according to Howard (1975).

She continues to write:

The relationship between education and society is reciprocal: to eradicate inequality in our society, we need to change our schools. Historically, public schools have invariably been followers rather than leaders of it. Nevertheless, the schools can and should serve as a major vehicle of social change in our society. (p. 18)

Women in Graduate Schools of Education

Because all who aspire to the superintendency must spend many hours of time and effort past the Master's degree, the schools of education, specifically the departments of educational administration within them, must also be scrutinized.

The proportion of women receiving graduate degrees is less today than in 1930, according to Howard, writing in National Academy of Sciences in 1973. Reasons include less financial aid for women, negative attitudes of some counselors and professors toward women as professionals,

lack of campus services for mothers and children, higher academic standards for women at some universities, male bias in curriculum, and the lack of female role models. The graduate school years and those immediately following are especially critical in an individual's career. Encouragement and advice given by members of the faculty at that time can have a notable effect (Centra, 1974).

There are not enough women to provide the support and encouragement females need. A study of the University of Chicago Graduate School (Freeman, 1971) found that the school provided female students with a "null environment", which caused less successful graduate careers and lowered aspirations. The University Council of Educational Administration in 1972 determined that only 2% of all professors of educational administration are women. Kaye (1975) added to that by saying that since only 2% are women, this might cause many to reach the conclusion that the "know-how" is with men and educational administration is only for men.

Doctorates are becoming increasingly needed for the attainment of the superintendency. But females earn only 10-20% of all doctorates annually (Lyon and Saario, 1973; Centra, 1974). Only 13% of all female earned doctorates are in educational administration (Young, 1976).

Nearly all sources state that women need and receive less financial aid than men. At the City University of New York, analysis of graduate financial assistance indicated that graduate women had more restricted access to financial aid (Muhich, 1974). In 1971-1972, only 43% of all aid monies went to women, and the amount received per woman averaged \$1000 less than the amount received per man. Muhich also cites examples of low financial aid for women at Wayne State University, with 22% more men receiving graduate professional scholarships, 23% more undergraduate men receiving all kinds of assistance financially. Across the nation, more women students required financial aid than men (32% vs. 26%) and needed help finding a job (41% vs. 32%) (Cross, 1972).

At the Harvard School of Education in 1970, only 6% of the students in educational administration were female. Few women apply to Harvard, as Useem discovered in her 1974 study, since they have been systematically discouraged all along the line from doing so. She concludes that "male faculty members . . . have a sexist notion of the ideal school administrator and this attitude provides a convenient rationalization for maintaining a male-dominated department and profession" (p. 345). Modifications in the preparation and

experiences for women would enhance their chances for success as school administrators. Encouragement from professors and district administrators might help to raise aspiration levels of promising females (Chisholm, 1976; Clement, 1973; Horner, 1971). Sponsorship by graduate school professors could help to increase the range of job options available. McClure and McClure (1974) venture to say that job placement is not a function of quantity or quality of preparation for administration, but of the social milieu in which such preparation occurs.

A recent editorial in the newspaper of the Pennsylvania Department of Education (Pennsylvania Education, Dec. 9, 1977) decried the paucity of female superintendents in the Commonwealth in this manner:

It has been exceedingly difficult for women to complete a program for eligibility in Pennsylvania's schools of education. Then, it has been equally difficult to be hired. . . . Clearly, our institutions of higher education responsible for preparing people to be Superintendents could do much more to encourage women. Clearly, most of Pennsylvania's school boards could do a more effective job of encouraging females to apply. (pp. 1-2)

Needed Research

The previous pages have included a wide array of research done in many areas of the problem being studied in this dissertation. There remain large gaps in our

knowledge, however. Women's career behaviors have not been extensively studied, for example, because "women as workers have been perceived as individually transient and collectively insignificant" (L. Vetter, 1973, p. 54). Neither have the masculine-based theories of career development provided explanations or concepts to deal with women's special problems (Osipow, 1968). Since more women are entering the professions, the need for detailed study of their career behavior and paths is apparent (Ginzberg and Yohalem, 1973).

Research is needed to trace the influence of variables on women's (and men's) education, work, and family plans. These variables included status variables (age, sex, ethnic group), combinations of female and male responsibilities perceived as options, and personal values toward marriage, family, sex roles, and work. Tittle and Denker in their lengthy article on the re-entry woman (1977), call for the previously listed research, and add that studies have not been completed successfully in predicting women's career patterns.

Ashburn (1977) called for research in the complicated issue of sex differences in career ambition, instead of the currently popular "status studies" which are simple to conduct and contain easily measurable criteria. The literature is replete with statistics comparing men

and women professionals on such criterion variables as productivity, rank, promotion, salary, and time spent working, and Ashburn seeks new studies of a more meaningful nature.

Although career research on male school administrators has shed no light on patterns of women's career development, it has at least identified four variables with which to further study and compare men and women, according to Schmuck (1976b):

- career patterns of administrators
- effects of marriage and parenthood
- levels and fields of graduate training
- career aspirations and geographical mobility

At the conclusion of her study on the lack of women in educational administration, Schmuck (1976b) points out the need for further examination of the ways we prepare boys and girls to develop and use their own potentials and to appreciate and support the same development in others. She calls for further research in ways to help adults evaluate their sex-role attitudes that limit their own personal lives and the lives of others. Further, research is needed to identify skills needed in competent administration of our complex educational systems, with schools of education developing programs to meet those needs.

Additional research is called for by Clement

CHAPTER 3

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

This study was designed to test the hypothesis that women fail to achieve the position of Superintendent of Schools because their career path is different from the norm set by men. Since it was further hypothesized that females stay in each position longer than males, experience more interruptions during their career than males, are more apt to move to staff rather than line positions, and have lower career expectations than men, it was necessary to devise a method to elicit specific data concerning these areas and to evaluate that data statistically in a useful way.

The Population

In order to compare female patterns with those of males, both sexes were utilized in this study. All persons earning certification as a superintendent (letter of eligibility) in Pennsylvania between January 1, 1970 and December 31, 1977 were to be questioned. This eight year period was chosen to keep the sample large enough for validity, yet small enough to be manageable. Certification requirements were changed by the Pennsylvania Department of Education in 1968-1969,

and the choice of a date after that change serves to keep cohort differences minimal.

Since the Bureau of Certification, Department of Education, in Harrisburg does not classify certificates issued by type or by name of recipient, but by social security number, the names of such recipients could not be received from the Department. Consequently, names and addresses of recipients of superintendent's certificates between the given dates were obtained directly from the six Pennsylvania Schools of Education which prepare students for that certificate (Temple University in Philadelphia, University of Pennsylvania in Philadelphia, Lehigh University in Bethlehem, Bucknell University in Lewisburg, Pennsylvania State University in State College, and University of Pittsburgh in Pittsburgh). This group of recipients became known as Population I.

The Instrument

A search for a proven questionnaire or other data-gathering instrument was made, but no adequate tool was found to meet the needs for this study. Thus, a six-page questionnaire was devised by the researcher (Instrument I), in consultation with the United States Bureau of the Census, Philadelphia, and the consultants

to this study. Careful attention was paid to surveying technique (Erdos, 1970; Parten, 1966). The questionnaire was adapted in part from the questionnaires of several other similar studies, and created with the goal and objectives of this study in mind. Phrasing was carefully written and proper questioning technique was used.

The resulting questionnaire was pre-tested on the 75 persons attending the American Association of School Administrators' "Women and the Superintendency" workshops in December 1977 and January 1978, with 100% returns. The responses were evaluated, and several unclear or ambiguous items revised. Several other items were deleted as unnecessary, and two new items were added as a result of this trial step. One-third of the pre-test group offered comments and suggestions for the improvement of the instrument.

The final Instrument I was a more concise and professional tool for eliciting the required data for this study. The instrument is a six-page questionnaire with 66 items, not every item to be answered by any respondent. One-third of the items are open-ended; two-thirds require specific boxes to be checked.

Conducting the Study

Every person in Population I was mailed a copy of Instrument I, accompanied by a cover letter explaining the general purpose of the study (see Appendix B for copies of instrument and letter). There was no mention of the importance of the sex of the respondent to the purposes of the study. Confidentiality of returns was stressed. A stamped, self-addressed envelope was enclosed to further facilitate return of the questionnaire. Follow-up letters were written to non-respondents four weeks and also six weeks after the initial mailing in an attempt to increase the percentage of responses.

Two months after the initial mailing, telephone interviews were completed on 5% of the respondents, the individuals being selected using proper random sampling technique. Selected questions from their original Instrument I were re-asked for validation purposes, and comparisons of both sets of answers made. Personal perceptions and experiences were solicited and recorded.

Analyzing the Results

The returned questionnaires were divided into three groups:

- A. those who have successfully achieved a position as superintendent since January 1, 1970

- B. those who have applied for a position as superintendent but have never been selected
- C. those who have never applied for a position as superintendent

Each of the three groups was divided by sex. Responses to all items on the questionnaire were first analyzed, using descriptive statistics and simple cross-tabulation. A six-celled contingency table was created, and responses to selected questions were compared using the Chi Square technique. From the responses, five common career paths were determined, and these were analyzed by sex, also using Chi Square. Mean years of experience at each job in the usual career path for males and females were compared by t-tests. Significant findings were determined at 95% confidence levels ($\alpha < .05$) (Tate and Clelland, 1957; Miller, 1975).

Supplemental Data

It was determined that several other groups should have significant input into this study. Superintendents of local school districts could tell of programs, philosophies, and policies in their districts which could impede or facilitate women being appointed superintendent. They could also predict the likelihood of a female superintendent in their district. Consequently, the superintendents

of all of Pennsylvania's 505 school districts became Population II.

Instrument II

Developed to survey the superintendents of Population II, Instrument II was also researcher-developed, using the same care and consultation described in the previous section. This questionnaire is a three-page form of 27 items, half of the questions open-ended and half requiring that specific boxes be checked. The respondents were also invited to express comments and opinions about any subject mentioned in the questionnaire.

The form was pre-tested on the 25 superintendents who are members of the Lehigh Valley School Study Council, with improvements made at their suggestion. The adjusted instrument was then mailed to all persons in Population II, accompanied by a cover-letter explaining the purpose of the study and promising confidentiality (see Appendix C for copies of instrument and letter). A stamped, self-addressed envelope was enclosed to facilitate replies. A follow-up letter or phone call was made to those not responding within one month, to ensure a high number of responses.

Data from Instrument II was tabulated, compared,

and analyzed, using descriptive statistics.

Instrument III

The Executive Directors of the 29 Intermediate Units in Pennsylvania seem to be in a unique position to know expressed preferences and subtle prejudices on the part of their local school boards. They often serve as consultants or chairmen of search committees in the superintendent selection process. This group became Population III.

Instrument III was developed by the researcher to survey the 29 Executive Directors of Intermediate Units in Pennsylvania. The form is a three-page questionnaire, the final page to be a narrative. The form was developed with the same attention to proper technique and care as the two previously described. Pre-tested on the four Executive Directors of Intermediate Units which are members of the Lehigh Valley School Study Council, one change was made in the questionnaire at their suggestion. The survey was then mailed to Population III, accompanied by a cover letter explaining the purpose of the research and promising confidentiality of returns (see Appendix D for copies of instrument and letter). A stamped, self-addressed envelope was included to facilitate responses. A follow-up letter or phone

call was made to those not responding within one month.

Data from Instrument III was tabulated, compared, and analyzed, using descriptive statistics.

Interviews

Interviews were completed with the Department Chairmen of the Departments of Educational Administration at each of the six Graduate Schools of Education which prepare persons for the superintendent's certificate. Introductory letters were sent to each Chairman prior to the interview. Perceptions of male and female differences in achievement, motivation, and expectations were elicited in a planned interview following a specified format (see Appendix E for interview format). Department programs and philosophies which would encourage or inhibit women as potential superintendents were discussed. Interview results were recorded and analyzed.

Final Phase of the Study

Integration of the findings of all three surveys, as well as the interviews, was important as the study terminated. Findings were also integrated with the wide array of current literature on this subject, as discovered through DATRIX and ERIC searches. Conclusions were drawn and recommendations made. These and a list of possible programs and suggestions for improvement are

important features of the study. Implications for the future are included.

Evaluative criteria include meeting the goal of the research as set forth in Chapter 1, and validation of Instrument I upon interview.

Chapter 4, which follows, will describe in detail the findings and results of the study.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Identification of the Sample

The population for this study is all persons earning certification as superintendent (letter of eligibility) in Pennsylvania between January 1, 1970 and December 31, 1977. Contact with the department chairmen of each of the six Pennsylvania Schools of Education which prepare persons for that certificate (Bucknell University, Lehigh University, Temple University, University of Pittsburgh, University of Pennsylvania, and Pennsylvania State University) revealed that not all of the colleges had kept such records since 1970. The University of Pennsylvania had a list of recipients only since January 1, 1976, and the University of Pittsburgh had kept such records only since January 1, 1975. The program in educational administration at Bucknell began on January 1, 1976. One university (Pennsylvania State) refused to participate in the study. Another (University of Pittsburgh) refused to reveal the names of their certification recipients, but volunteered to mail the prepared sealed questionnaires to their list of such people. No college kept an up-to-date address file, and the addresses for all persons had to be

searched in permanent records and other such files. Since there seemed to be no alternative for the procurement of the required names, the study was carried out with the following sample of Population I:

Lehigh University (persons since January 1, 1970)	183
Bucknell University (since program started January 1, 1976)	9
Temple University (persons since January 1, 1970)	146
University of Pennsylvania (since January 1, 1976)	30
University of Pittsburgh (since January 1, 1975)	102

The distribution according to sex of the total sample of 470 persons is shown in Table 3.

TABLE 3
PERSONS IN SAMPLE IDENTIFIED BY UNIVERSITY AND SEX

	Lehigh	Bucknell	Temple	U. of Pa.	U. of Pgh.	Total
Male	174	7	133	22	75	411
Female	9	2	13	8	27	59
Total	183	9	146	30	102	470
% Female	4.9%	22.2%	8.9%	26.6%	26.5%	12.6%

The Return of the Instrument

Instrument I, a copy of which can be found in Appendix B, was sent to all persons in the sample. Of 470 questionnaires distributed, 317 usable instruments were returned (67.4%). Of those sent to males, 66.6% were returned, and 72.3% of the females returned the instrument. It should be noted that 45 of the returned questionnaires were unsigned. Though the sex of the respondent was indicated in every case, it is not known to which schools' totals to credit these 45. Table 4 shows the total number and percentage returned from each university, as well as the number and percentage returned by each sex.

TABLE 4
USABLE RETURNS IDENTIFIED BY UNIVERSITY AND SEX

	Bucknell	Lehigh	Temple	U. of Pa.	U. of Pgh.	Unsigned	Total
Total Sample	9	183	146	30	102		470
# returns	6	117	76	15	58	45	317
% returns	66.6%	64.4%	52.0%	50.0%	56.9%		67.4%
Total Males	7	174	133	22	75		411
# returns	5	109	70	9	42	39	274
% returns	71.4%	62.3%	52.6%	40.9%	56.0%		66.6%
Total Females	2	9	13	8	27		59
# returns	1	8	6	6	16	6	43
% returns	50.0%	88.8%	46.1%	75.0%	59.2%		72.3%

Analysis of Instrument I

The returned questionnaires were divided into three groups:

Group A: those who have successfully achieved a position as superintendent since January 1, 1970

Group B: those who have applied for a position as superintendent but have never been selected

Group C: those who have never applied for a position as superintendent

The groups were then divided by sex, with the distribution as shown in Table 5.

TABLE 5
DISTRIBUTION OF RESPONDENTS BY GROUP AND SEX

	A	B	C	Total
Males	50	81	143	274
Females	0	9	34	43
Totals	50	90	177	317

It can be observed that no females appear in Group A; that is, no females responding to the survey instrument have been superintendent.

The items on Instrument I were analyzed one item at a time, for pages 1, 2, and 6 of the questionnaire. Pages 3, 4, and 5 were to be answered only by a segment of the population and were the distributing factor for the three groups.

Age

The respondents' ages varied the greatest in Group C males, where 2.1% were under 30 and .7% were 60 years or over. No other group had any respondents in these two extremes. Group A and B persons were heavily concentrated in the 40-49 year range, the "prime of life," as can be observed from Table 6. The wide range of ages in Group C, which was the largest group, may partially explain why some of them had not applied for a superintendency: some were still too inexperienced and others were near retirement age and unlikely candidates for a superintendency.

TABLE 6

AGES OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP

Age	A	B	C	Mean Age
Males:				42.27 yrs.
60 or over	0	0	.7%	
50-59	20.0%	12.4%	12.6%	
40-49	52.0%	64.2%	41.3%	
30-39	28.0%	23.4%	43.3%	
under 30	0	0	2.1%	
Females:				43.57 yrs.
60 or over		0	0	
50-59		33.3%	23.5%	
40-49		66.7%	32.3%	
30-39		0	44.2%	
under 30		0	0	

Marital Status

Males in all three groups were found to be nearly always married (percentages ranging from 93.0% in Group C to 97.6% in Group B). Group A, those who had achieved the superintendency, had no person who was never married. No male in any of the three groups was widowed, and few were divorced or separated. The picture is quite different for the female respondents. Among those women who have applied for a superintendency (Group B), 44.5% have never married and 11.1% were divorced. These findings are consistent with Carlson's research which states that marriage and a "normal" home life are prerequisites and expected for a successful man, but that a woman may or may not be married. Table 7 illustrates these data.

TABLE 7

MARITAL STATUS OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP

Marital Status	A	B	C
Males:			
Separated	4.0%	1.2%	0
Widowed	0	0	0
Divorced	2.0%	0	4.2%
Married	94.0%	97.6%	93.0%
Never married	0	1.2%	2.8%
Females:			
Separated		0	2.9%
Widowed		11.1%	2.9%
Divorced		11.1%	8.8%
Married		33.3%	64.8%
Never married		44.5%	20.6%

Presence of Children

Statistics on whether or not the respondents had children coincided closely to those in Table 7. Most of the males had children (from 88.8% to 93.8%), while only about half of the women in either group had children. Table 8 shows that a small percentage more of the men in Group C were childless than in the other two groups. The wider disparity in age in Group C males group may be a factor.

TABLE 8
PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH
GROUP WHO HAVE CHILDREN

	A	B	C
Males	91.8%	93.8%	88.8%
Females		55.6%	55.9%

Present Salary

As could be expected, males earn more money than women in this sample. No women earn over \$39,999. No women in Group B earn over \$29,999, yet 21.3% of the females in Group C earn between \$30,000 and \$39,999. Almost every woman in this higher income bracket was a Coordinator or other staff person in the School District of Philadelphia. A full one-third of the women in Group B earn below \$20,000. Men fare better, with about two-thirds of the men in Groups A and B earning between \$25,000 and \$34,999, as shown in Table 9. The one man in Group C who is earning over \$45,000 is in private industry and gave the amount of his salary as the reason he was not applying for a superintendency.

TABLE 9
PRESENT SALARY OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP

	A	B	C
Males:			
\$45,000 and over	4.0%	0	.7%
\$40,000-\$44,999	2.0%	0	0
\$35,000-\$39,999	14.0%	2.5%	4.1%
\$30,000-\$34,999	32.0%	13.7%	13.3%
\$25,000-\$29,999	32.0%	48.8%	32.2%
\$20,000-\$24,999	10.0%	28.8%	37.8%
\$15,000-\$19,999	4.0%	6.2%	10.5%
\$14,999 and below	2.0%	0	1.4%
Females:			
\$45,000 and over		0	0
\$40,000-\$44,999		0	0
\$35,000-\$39,999		0	6.0%
\$30,000-\$34,999		0	15.3%
\$25,000-\$29,999		44.4%	18.2%
\$20,000-\$24,999		22.2%	48.5%
\$15,000-\$19,999		22.2%	9.0%
\$14,999 and below		11.2%	3.0%

Possession of a Principal's Certificate

The male career path to the superintendency usually includes a principalship on the way up. Percentages shown in Table 10 bear out this expectancy: 100% of the men in Group A have earned a principal's certificate. A very high percentage of Group B and C men have also earned a principal's certificate. In contrast, only 77.7% of the females who had applied for a superintendency (Group B) have a principal's certificate.

TABLE 10

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP
WHO HAVE A PRINCIPAL'S CERTIFICATE

	A	B	C
Males	100.0%	96.3%	94.4%
Females		77.7%	91.2%

Possession of Certificates other than Superintendent's

Bowman's 1965 study showed that women had to be exceptional and "over-qualified" to succeed in educational administration. Pertinent to his study are the findings here. Table 11 shows the number of certificates other than the superintendent's certificate earned by the respondents in this study. Only 30% of the "successful" men (Group A) had earned more than one certificate other than the superintendent's certificate. With women, none of whom have yet achieved the superintendency, 55.5% had earned more certificates in Group B, and 64.6% had earned more in Group C. These additional certificates included of course the principal's, but also the supervisor's, reading specialist, and special education.

TABLE 11

PERCENT OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP WHO HAVE
EARNED MORE THAN ONE CERTIFICATE OTHER THAN THE
SUPERINTENDENT'S CERTIFICATE

	A	B	C
Males:			
2 others	24.0%	34.6%	28.0%
3 others	6.0%	8.6%	3.5%
4 others	0	0	.7%
Females:			
2 others		33.3%	38.2%
3 others		22.2%	17.6%
4 others		0	8.8%

Age When Superintendent's Certificate Earned

For an undetermined reason, respondents in Group B, both males and females, were some three or four years older when earning the superintendent's certificate than those in any other group. Table 12 shows that the successful males in Group A, who have achieved the superintendency, comprise the youngest group of any. The mean age for males is 39.3 years, as compared with that of females at 42.2 years. The difference is significant at the .05 level ($t_{315} = 58.0$).

TABLE 12

MEAN AGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP
WHEN SUPERINTENDENT'S CERTIFICATE
EARNED

	A	B	C	Mean Age
Males	35.9	43.8	38.2	39.3
Females		44.2	40.1	42.2

Number of Years between Principal's and Superintendent's
Certificates

The number of years between earning the principal's and the superintendent's certificate differed between the men and the women of the sample. When mean years were calculated for men and women in each group, females were found to have significantly fewer years between the two certificates than men, regardless of group. As Table 13 shows, females in both groups spent 4.7 years. The difference between males and females is significant at the .05 level ($t_{315} = 266.6$).

TABLE 13

MEAN NUMBER OF YEARS FOR MALES AND FEMALES IN
EACH GROUP BETWEEN PRINCIPAL'S AND
SUPERINTENDENT'S CERTIFICATE

	A	B	C	Mean No. Yrs.
Males	6.7	7.9	6.6	7.1
Females		4.7	4.7	4.7

Doctorates

Males in Group A, who have already achieved the superintendency, have the highest percentage of men in any group with the doctorate, at 54.0%. Group B males, who have applied for at least one superintendency, have 50.6% with doctorates. Only 36.3% of the Group C males have doctoral degrees thus far. The wider disparity in ages in this group must be remembered, however. Females have earned the doctorate at higher rates, with a full 88.8% of Group B women and 61.8% of Group C women holding doctorates. These findings, summarized in Table 14, again support Bowman's 1965 research which claims that women are often more qualified than men for the same positions.

TABLE 14
PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH
GROUP WITH DOCTORAL DEGREES

	A	B	C
Males	54.0%	50.6%	36.3%
Females		88.8%	61.8%

Number of Years between Master's and Doctoral Degrees

Just as males in Group A earned their superintendent's certificate at the youngest age of any other group, they also spent the fewest years between the master's degree and doctorate. Table 15 also shows that Group B and Group C persons, regardless of sex, took approximately the same number of years within each group to go from master's degree to doctorate. There is, however, still a significant difference at the .05 level between males and females ($t_{315} = 69.2$).

TABLE 15

MEAN NUMBER OF YEARS BETWEEN MASTER'S DEGREE
AND DOCTORATE FOR MALES AND FEMALES
IN EACH GROUP

	A	B	C	Mean No. Yrs.
Males	9.5	11.3	10.5	10.4
Females		11.9	10.9	11.4

Receipt of Financial Aid During Graduate Study

Group B women, the most "successful" of the two groups of women in their quest for the superintendency, have the highest percentage of persons receiving financial aid during their graduate study, at 55.6%. Group C women have the lowest percentage of financial aid recipients, as is shown in Table 16. The statistics on men show an inverse proportion of them receiving financial aid: the men in Group A received the least of any group of males, and Group C males had the highest percentage of financial aid recipients.

TABLE 16

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH
GROUP WHO RECEIVED FINANCIAL AID
DURING THEIR GRADUATE STUDY

	A	B	C
Males	37.5%	38.3%	44.1%
Females		55.6%	32.4%

Grades Received During Graduate Study

Group A males, showing the widest range of academic ability, have the highest percentage of A students among any male group, but also are the only group of either males or females with any C students at all (2.0%). Table 17 shows that approximately one-fifth of men in all of the three male groups claim to have been B students. In contrast, only 2.9% of women in any group had been B students, with none claiming an academic average below a B. All of the Group B females claim to have been A or A/B students, never the case in any male group.

TABLE 17

GRADES RECEIVED DURING GRADUATE STUDY BY
 MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP

	A	B	C
Males:			
A	54.0%	40.7%	46.1%
A/B	24.0%	43.2%	37.8%
B	20.0%	16.1%	15.4%
B/C	0	0	.7%
C	2.0%	0	0
Females:			
A		55.6%	70.6%
A/B		44.4%	26.5%
B		0	2.9%
B/C		0	0
C		0	0

Plans to Continue Formal Education

When asked if they planned to continue their formal education, approximately 50% of male respondents in each of the three groups said that they did. This corresponds fairly closely with the percentage in each of the three male groups who have not yet earned doctoral degrees. In contrast, 44.4% of the females in Group B said that they did plan to continue formal education, and yet we know that 88.8% of them have already received doctorates, a possible indication that they plan either post-doctoral work or study in some other area. The same trend holds true for Group C women, but to a lesser degree. Table 18 illustrates this finding.

TABLE 18

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP
WHO PLAN TO CONTINUE FORMAL EDUCATION

	A	B	C
Males	50.0%	54.4%	56.0%
Females		44.4%	55.9%

Mentorship During Graduate Study

Research by Harris (1974) and Williams (1978) supported the notion that mentorship plays an important role in the success of a person. Since their studies show that females are less likely to have a mentor than male students, the researchers state that females may be handicapped in reaching the top in their chosen careers. Table 19 shows that about 80% of males in each of the three groups had a mentor during their graduate years. In contrast, only about two-thirds of the females in either group claimed a mentor in their graduate work. Nearly all mentors, for both men and women, were male. Since there are few female faculty members in departments of educational administration, there would be little chance of their having mentor relationships with a significant number of students.

TABLE 19

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP
HAVING A MENTOR DURING THEIR GRADUATE
STUDY, AND SEX OF THAT MENTOR

	A	B	C
Male:			
Male Mentor	76.0%	74.0%	78.3%
Female Mentor	6.0%	2.5%	4.9%
No Mentor	18.0%	23.5%	16.8%
Female:			
Male Mentor		66.7%	58.8%
Female Mentor		0	5.9%
No Mentor		33.3%	35.3%

Number of Times Leaving the Field

Many more females left education at some point in their careers than did men, consistent with much of the current research. A full 55.6% of the females in Group B left the field at least once, with only 23.5% of the females in Group C leaving. This percentage rate is still double that of any male group, however. Nearly all of the women who left, did so for family and child

raising. In contradiction to the faster and more direct path that Group A males have been shown to have taken in this study, Table 20 shows that 12% of these men left education at some time in their careers. Both Group A and B males left only one time, when they did leave, whereas Group C males left once, twice, or even three times, again illustrating the wide disparity between individuals in Group C men.

TABLE 20

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP
WHO LEFT EDUCATION SINCE STARTING THEIR
CAREER, AND NUMBER OF TIMES

	A	B	C
Males	12.0%	7.4%	9.9%
	1 time 100.0%	1 time 100%	1 time 71.4%
	2 times 0	2 times 0	2 times 21.4%
	3 times 0	3 times 0	3 times 7.1%
Females		55.6%	23.5%
		1 time 40.0%	1 time 62.5%
		2 times 60.0%	2 times 25.0%
		3 times 0	3 times 12.5%

Service in the Armed Forces

As expected, few of the women left education to serve in the Armed Forces; their primary reason for leaving was family and motherhood-oriented. More than half of the males have served in the Armed Forces, although many of them did so before entering education as a career, and thus avoided the break in years of service. Table 21 shows that between 48.2% and 58.0% of all males in the population were in the Armed Forces at some time.

TABLE 21

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP
WHO SERVED IN THE ARMED FORCES

	A	B	C
Males	58.0%	58.0%	48.2%
Females		11.1%	0

Age When Decided to Enter Administration

Consistent with most of the previously-reviewed research, the "successful" superintendents stayed in each position a shorter time than aspiring women. Table 22 illustrates that males in this study did leave teaching at an earlier age than women. Group A males decided

earlier than any other group in the study to leave teaching for administration. Group B and C men took about one and a half years longer to leave teaching for administration, while females taught on the average more than four years longer. The difference between men and women in this sample was found to be significant at the .01 level ($t_{315} = 307.1$).

TABLE 22

MEAN AGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP
AT WHICH THEY DECIDED TO LEAVE TEACHING
FOR ADMINISTRATION

	A	B	C	Mean Age
Males	28.2	29.8	29.7	29.2
Females		34.2	32.8	33.5

Reasons for Entering Educational Administration

When asked to rank seven given statements as reasons for entering administration from teaching, one reason clearly ranked first among all respondents, regardless of group. That reason is "more satisfaction, personal rewards." Group A males' ranking was quite different from any other group, whereas Groups B and C

males' rankings were very similar to each other, with only two statements ranked differently. The two female groups were also similarly ranked, as can be seen in Table 23. Last choice for both female groups was "teaching is too confining"; this was not the last choice for any male group. It may be that women find more quiet satisfaction in teaching, and are less restless to move on to another position. It is also interesting to note that "to pioneer as a woman" was not often chosen by women as a reason for entering administration. The women apparently view their career choice as a decision made regardless of their sex.

TABLE 23

MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP RANK OF REASONS
FOR ENTERING EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

	A	B	C
Male:			
Better pay	4	2	2
More satisfaction, personal rewards	1	1	1
More prestige, status	6	4	4
More varied, interesting pattern	2	3	3
Teaching is too confining	5	6	5
More power, influence on others	3	5	6
To pioneer as a woman	NA	NA	NA
Female:			
Better pay		5	3
More satisfaction, personal rewards		1	1
More prestige, status		3	4
More varied, interesting pattern		2	2
Teaching is too confining		7	7
More power, influence on others		4	5
To pioneer as a woman		6	6

Method of Career Planning

Research by Poloma and Garland (1971), Young (1976), and Hennig and Jardim (1977) documents that males plan their career from beginning to end, compared with women who tend to plan just several years at a time. Results of this study do not strongly support those findings. There was little difference found in the planning by the respondents in this study. For example, 33.4% of the females in Group B said that their career was well-planned from the beginning, the highest percentage of any group choosing that statement. Similarly, no women in either group admitted to not knowing how they planned their career; all had apparently given it some thought. In contrast, some men in each of the three male groups checked that they did not know how they planned their careers. Strangely, the men in the "most successful" group, A, had the highest percent of "don't know" responses, as can be seen in Table 24. No males indicated that there were other responses to the question on how their career was planned; some women in each group gave other reasons and bases for their career planning.

TABLE 24

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP
INDICATION OF HOW THEIR CAREERS
WERE PLANNED

	A	B	C
Male:			
Well-planned from the beginning	30.6%	23.8%	31.0%
Plan a few years at a time	28.7%	42.5%	33.2%
Take each job as it comes	18.4%	10.0%	14.7%
Didn't plan at first, but have begun to recently	4.0%	10.0%	14.1%
It "just happened"	12.2%	8.7%	5.0%
Don't know; never thought about it	6.1%	5.0%	2.0%
Other	0	0	0
Female:			
Well-planned from the beginning		33.4%	23.5%
Plan a few years at a time		22.2%	32.5%
Take each job as it comes		22.2%	8.8%
Didn't plan at first, but have begun to recently		11.1%	23.5%
It "just happened"		0	8.8%
Don't know; never thought about it		0	0
Other		11.1%	2.9%

Satisfaction with Career Path

People who have reached their career goal are generally thought of as happy with the direction their career has taken, and the persons in this population are no exception. Group A males, who have achieved the superintendency, have the highest percent of satisfaction (86.0%). Group B males, who have applied for one or more superintendencies but have not been named, report 67.9% satisfaction. Group C males are slightly above that percentage. In contrast, Table 25 illustrates that there are 33% of the females in Group B who feel satisfied with the path their career has taken to date. These are the "most successful" women, and apparently they feel some frustration at their inability to achieve the superintendency. Double the percentage of women feeling satisfaction with their careers exists in Group C; this group has not yet applied for their first superintendency.

TABLE 25
 PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN EACH GROUP
 FEELING SATISFACTION WITH THEIR
 CAREER PATHS

	A	B	C
Males:			
Satisfied	86.0%	67.9%	75.2%
Not satisfied	2.0%	8.6%	3.5%
Half and half	12.0%	23.5%	21.3%
Females:			
Satisfied		33.4%	67.6%
Not satisfied		0	2.9%
Half and half		66.6%	29.5%

Career Goals

When asked to rank career goals, all groups of respondents rated "growing, becoming the best person I can be" as number one. All male groups rated "contributing to society or community" as second in importance to them. In fact, all three male groups rated nearly every goal with the same rank, as can be seen in Table 26. The females in the study were not so similar in

TABLE 26

RANKING OF CAREER GOALS BY MALES AND
FEMALES IN EACH GROUP

	A	B	C
Males:			
Earning as much money as I can	6	5	5
Contributing to society or community	2	2	2
Growing, becoming the best person I can be	1	1	1
Being a community leader, having prestige	5	6	6
Creating, innovating	3	3	3
Pioneering as a woman	NA	NA	NA
Having power to change what I feel must be changed	4	4	4
Females:			
Earning as much money as I can		7	6
Contributing to society or community		4	3
Growing, becoming the best person I can be		1	1
Being a community leader, having prestige		6	7
Creating, innovating		3	2
Pioneering as a woman		5	5
Having power to change what I feel must be changed		2	4

goals; there were few duplications. Men consistently rated the power-related goals higher than women: "having power to change what I feel must be changed," "earning as much money as I can", and "being a community leader, having prestige." This is consistent with most of the research in the area. Again, pioneering is not very important to the women in this study; they rated pioneering as a woman" as fifth in importance, regardless of their group.

Likelihood of Becoming Superintendent

At the conclusion of the questionnaire, all respondents were asked to indicate on a Likert-type scale (from 1 to 10) the likelihood of their becoming a superintendent with their next job. A second Likert-type rating concerned the likelihood of their becoming superintendent within five years. In both cases, Group A males, already superintendents, were quite sure that they would. In both cases the sureness of males reaching that goal declined by group, with Group C males only expressing about a 50% assurance. As can be expected, females were less sure that they would become a superintendent in every case than were males of the same group. Their lower expectations have been documented in much of the previously-reviewed literature, and this study found the same to hold true. Tables 27 and 28 clearly show these declining expectations.

TABLE 27

RATING BY MALES AND FEMALES OF EACH GROUP OF THE
 LIKELIHOOD OF BECOMING A SUPERINTENDENT
 WITH THE NEXT JOB*

	A	B	C	Mean	Grand Mean
Males	7.9	6.4	5.1	6.5	5.4
Females		4.7	3.6	4.2	

TABLE 28

RATING BY MALES AND FEMALES OF EACH GROUP OF THE
 LIKELIHOOD OF BECOMING A SUPERINTENDENT
 IN FIVE YEARS*

	A	B	C	Mean	Grand Mean
Males	8.4	7.0	5.9	7.1	6.0
Females		4.4	5.1	4.8	

* on a scale of 1 (no chance) to 10 (surely will be)

Number of Positions for Which Applied, and Percent who
will Keep Trying

In addition to the previously described questions asked of all respondents, those persons in Group B (those who had applied for at least one superintendency but had not received the position) were asked how many such positions they had tried to obtain. As was expected from Robinson's 1971 study, males had applied for more jobs than had women (4.5 attempts by men as compared to 3.9 tries by women). While Robinson's study documented that men apply at a ratio of at least 3:1 to women, this study did not support that finding. Here, as can be seen in Table 29, men applied at a ratio of 4:3, with no significant difference found at the .05 level in number of applications ($t_{88} = .263$).

Table 29 further shows that more men than women will keep on trying to obtain the position of superintendent, in spite of rejection. With 82.3% of the males indicating their intention to continue the search, they appear more confident in winning a job than do the females in the sample. Only two-thirds of the women will continue to try.

TABLE 29

MEAN NUMBER OF SUPERINTENDENCIES TRIED BY
 MALES AND FEMALES IN GROUP B, AND
 PERCENT WHO WILL KEEP TRYING

	Mean Number of Superintendencies Tried	Percent Who Will Keep Trying
Males	4.5	82.3%
Females	3.9	66.7%

Reasons for Earning a Superintendent's Certificate

Persons in Group C were asked other questions not asked of Groups A and B. Reasons and expectations for their receiving a superintendent's certificate but not using it were elicited. The next few pages analyze the results of questions to Group C respondents.

Men and women in this group were asked if they had ever considered applying for a position as superintendent. As could be expected from the previous findings, more males answered affirmatively than females. Table 30 shows this response rate.

TABLE 30

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN GROUP C
WHO HAVE CONSIDERED APPLYING FOR
A SUPERINTENDENCY

Percent who have Considered Applying	
Males	64.8%
Females	44.1%

Reasons for not Seeking Positions as Superintendents

Reasons why Group C respondents have not applied were sought. Both males and females rated three reasons similarly: "do not want so much responsibility" clearly stood out as the last choice, with "thought I would not get the job anyway" next to last ranked for both men and women. "Not ready to spend so many hours on the job" was ranked sixth by both males and females. Other than these three, rank order did not coincide for men and women, as can be observed in Table 31.

Ranked first in importance for the men was "decided not to leave present job right now." Ranked first for women was "did not feel ready to be superintendent yet." The difference in these choices is perhaps important. Women express less self-confidence

TABLE 31
 RANKING OF REASONS WHY MALES AND FEMALES IN
 GROUP C HAVE NOT APPLIED FOR A
 SUPERINTENDENCY

	Male	Female
Decided not to leave present job just now	1	2
Decided I preferred present job	4	3
Do not want to move from present home, area	2	4
Did not feel qualified for the job	7	5
Did not feel ready to be superintendent yet	3	1
Thought I would not get the job anyway	9	9
Do not want so much responsibility	10	10
Not ready to spend so many hours on the job	6	6
Home responsibilities too heavy now	8	7
Prefer to maintain direct contact with students	5	8

here, less feeling of certainty, and perhaps also a realistic appraisal of their experience so far.

Expectancy of Applying for a Superintendency

More men indicated that they would apply in the future than did women, with 1/3 of the males surveyed not sure. In contrast, just a little over 1/3 of the females (38.2%) stated that they would apply for a superintendency in the future with nearly half of the females not certain. These findings, shown in Table 32, illustrate the greater sense of uncertainty in women, and the poorer expectations for their career success held by many females. These women are all qualified for the superintendency by certificate, yet only 1/3 feel sure that they will even apply for such a position.

TABLE 32

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN GROUP C
WHO WILL APPLY FOR A SUPERINTENDENCY
IN THE FUTURE

	Will apply in the future	Don't know
Males	56.0%	33.4%
Females	38.2%	47.1%

Expectancy of Becoming a Superintendent

When asked if they expected to become a school superintendent at some time in their careers, 58.2% of the males in this group stated that they did. Table 33 shows this in contrast to 27.6% of the females. More than half of the males expect to reach that career goal, but only a little over one-fourth of the females hold that expectation.

TABLE 33

PERCENTAGE OF MALES AND FEMALES IN GROUP C
WHO STATE THAT THEY EXPECT TO
BECOME SUPERINTENDENT

	Expect to Become	Don't Know
Males	58.2%	32.3%
Females	27.6%	55.9%

Reasons for Earning the Superintendent's Certificate

With such a large percentage of respondents earning the superintendent's certificate, and yet indicating that they did not intend to become a superintendent, or that they did not know, the question of why the certificate was earned in the first place could be significant. While the reasons varied for men and women, the first and second choice reasons were identical. The top reason listed for earning the superintendent's certificate was "plan to become superintendent"; second was "just wanted to have it as 'insurance'." As Table 34 shows, the widest disparity in choice was with "it came along with doctorate." Males chose this as their third reason; for females it was last choice.

TABLE 34

RANKING OF REASONS WHY MALES AND FEMALES IN GROUP C
EARNED THE SUPERINTENDENT'S CERTIFICATE

	Male	Female
Just wanted to have it as "insurance"	2	2
Plan to become superintendent	1	1
It was expected of me	6	4
Happened to take the right courses and just earned it without planning	7	6
It came along with doctorate	3	8
Because it was available	4	7
Pressure from superior or mentor	8	5
Pressure from spouse	5	3

Mentorship During Career

Just as a mentor is important to the success of a person in graduate school, so is a mentor crucial to the first years in one's career. Consequently, Group C respondents were asked if they had felt the presence of a mentor who had "helped, assisted, and supported" their rise up the career ladder. As expected, more females claimed the lack of mentor (41.1% to 34.8% of the males). Table 35 shows male and female mentor percentages.

TABLE 35

PERCENTAGES OF MALES AND FEMALES IN GROUP C
WHO HAD A MENTOR DURING THEIR CAREER,
AND SEX OF THAT MENTOR

	Males	Females
Male mentor	54.6%	55.9%
Female mentor	10.6%	3.0%
No mentor	34.8%	41.1%

The analysis of the individual items of Instrument I has provided statistics and data on many facets of career path and expectations. Information has been provided upon which to build conclusions as to similarity or differences between male and female career paths and expectations for the superintendency. The culmination of Instrument I, however, and to this part of the study, is the establishment of a contingency table on career path. The Chi Square test of significance as to difference was carried out.

The null hypothesis stated in Chapter 1 of this study was that male and female career paths are the same as they prepare for and travel toward the position of Superintendent of Schools. A Chi Square contingency table was set up, and the four most common career paths identified and used as column heads:

Path 1: Teacher, Assistant Principal,
Principal, Assistant Superintendent

Path 2: Teacher, Principal, Assistant
Superintendent

Path 3: Teacher, Assistant Principal,
Principal

Path 4: Teacher, Principal

A fifth column was set up for other paths.

The observed frequencies of respondents following

each path were enumerated, and the expected frequencies calculated, using standard procedure (Miller, 1975, Chapter 9). Chi Square (χ^2) was calculated to be 12.8 with four degrees of freedom. Table 36 illustrates the procedure, and shows that the null hypothesis was rejected at the .05 level, giving significance to the notion that indeed male and female career paths are not the same.

TABLE 36

CAREER PATH TO THE SUPERINTENDENCY
CHI SQUARE CONTINGENCY TABLE

Career Path	#1 Teacher Asst. Princ. Princ. Asst. Supt.	#2 Teacher Princ. Asst. Supt.	#3 Teacher Asst. Princ. Princ.	#4 Teacher Princ.	#5 Other	
Male	25* 23**	37 35	57 53	62 60	93 103	R ₁ = 274
Female	2 4	3 5	4 8	8 10	26 16	R ₂ = 43
	C ₁ = 27	C ₂ = 40	C ₃ = 61	C ₄ = 70	C ₅ = 119	N = 317

* frequency observed
** frequency expected

df = 4
x² = 12.08
signif. @ .05

In comparing paths to the superintendency, years in each position could turn out to be a significant factor in the differences between male and female career paths. Consequently, t tests were run on mean years in each position for both males and females. No significant difference was found between males and females on any of these levels: teacher, assistant principal, principal, or assistant superintendent ($t_{315} = .643$). The number and percent of persons who held each position and mean number of years in each position are shown in the following tables, Table 37 for males and Table 38 for females.

TABLE 37

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF MALES IN EACH GROUP WHO HELD EACH POSITION IN
THE CAREER PATH TO THE SUPERINTENDENCY, AND MEAN
NUMBER OF YEARS IN EACH POSITION

Group	Number Holding Each Position			Percent Holding Each Position			Mean No. Years		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
Teacher	49	81	143	98.0%	100.0%	100.0%	7.3	7.7	9.1
Asst. Princ.	24	36	67	48.0%	44.4%	46.9%	3.4	4.0	4.1
Princ.	43	60	77	86.0%	74.1%	53.8%	4.6	6.9	5.6
Asst. Supt.	25	31	35	50.0%	38.3%	24.5%	3.0	4.3	4.0

TABLE 38

NUMBER AND PERCENT OF FEMALES IN EACH GROUP WHO HELD EACH POSITION IN
THE CAREER PATH TO THE SUPERINTENDENCY, AND MEAN
NUMBER OF YEARS IN EACH POSITION

Group	Number Holding Each Position			Percent Holding Each Position			Mean No. Years		
	A	B	C	A	B	C	A	B	C
Teacher		7	34		77.7%	100.0%		8.2	10.1
Asst. Princ.		2	11		22.2%	33.3%		1.8	2.5
Princ.		4	12		44.4%	36.3%		5.0	6.3
Asst. Supt.		5	5		55.5%	15.1%		4.4	4.2

Interviews

Telephone interviews were carried out on 5% of the responses received on Instrument I, to validate the questionnaire and to elicit further perceptions and comments. Every 20th return was called for the interview, except for the two cases in which the return had been submitted anonymously. In those two cases the 21st return was called.

Respondents were in nearly every case willing to re-answer several of the original questions from Instrument I, and understood the need for this validation check. Many were in fact eager to relate opinions and experiences which had some bearing on the subject under investigation. All of the women called had experienced some frustration as they sought to climb the ladder to an administrative job in education. One seemed bitter about her experiences; the other two accepted the frustration as to be expected in today's social climate.

Nearly all of the men were at least somewhat sympathetic to the peculiar plight of a woman seeking the superintendency. Several stated flatly that "it must be rough, knowing you are good enough, but that you won't have a chance." Others felt that women gave up too soon, didn't fight hard enough for the positions

they wanted, didn't cultivate "something like the old boy network," and didn't "go about it like a man would." In summary, the telephone responses echoed closely the responses that had been sent in on the questionnaire, and it seems apparent that the instrument was successful in eliciting truthful and sincere responses from the sample.

Analysis of Instrument II

Instrument II was sent to all superintendents of the 505 school districts in the Commonwealth of Pennsylvania, with 329 questionnaires returned (65.2%).

In the districts represented by the returns, 246 had no female principal or assistant principal employed there (74.4%). Of the remaining number of districts who did have one or more females employed in principalships or assistantships, the percentage of their females averaged 20.1%. As for central office personnel, 268 of the districts had no female employed in any of these positions (81.1%). The remaining percentage who did have one or more females in the central office had an average percentage of 25.5% women.

How Leadership Potential is Identified

Superintendents indicated in Instrument II that 44 of their districts did not identify leadership

potential in any way (13.4%). Of the remaining 86.6% who do, the first method used is supervisor's observation. Table 39 shows the ranking by superintendents of the methods used.

TABLE 39

RANK BY SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS OF METHOD
USED TO IDENTIFY TEACHERS WITH
LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL

	Rank
Supervisor's evaluation	1
Study of teacher's credentials	4
Superintendent's observation	2
Teacher interest	3

Bases on which Potential Leaders Identified

"Leadership ability" is ranked first most common by the superintendents in their listing of the bases on which teachers in their districts are identified. Interpersonal relationships is the second most widely used basis, as can be seen in Table 40. The superintendents ranked the sex of the teacher as the least important consideration when deciding on leadership potential.

TABLE 40

RANK BY SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE BASES
TO IDENTIFY POTENTIAL LEADERS
IN THEIR DISTRICTS

	Rank
Intelligence	4
Interpersonal relations	2
Amount of graduate school education	6
Leadership ability	1
Classroom management ability	5
Sex of teacher	7
Desire to be administrator	3

The superintendents listed 440 men and 228 women as potential leaders which their districts have identified in the past year. When asked if they would encourage a woman to seek a position as superintendent, four of the respondents said they would not, sixteen said they were uncertain, and 309 replied that they would do so (93.6%).

To sense the current entry of women into the principalship, often thought of as a doorway to the superintendency, the respondents were asked about the most recent principal they had hired. Of the total

324 principals hired in the past year, 136 (41.9%) were elementary and 188 (58.1%) were secondary. Of those same 324, 272 were male (83.9%) and 52 were female (16.1%).

Likelihood of a Female Superintendent

The respondents to Instrument II were asked to rate on a Likert-type scale the probability of the next superintendent in their district being a woman. Another Likert-type scale asked them to rate the probability of their district having a female superintendent in five years. On a scale of 1 (no chance) to 10 (surely will be), the ranking for next superintendent was 3.6, lower than that of Population I and identical to that of Population III. Similarly, the probability for a female superintendent in five years was 4.1, considerably lower than that given by Instrument I respondents and shown in Table 29. If the superintendents accurately assess the feelings of their local school boards and communities, the prospect is gloomy indeed for female superintendents in the next five years.

Analysis of Instrument III

Of 29 Intermediate Unit Executive Directors in Pennsylvania, 24 responded to Instrument III (82.8% response rate). The Intermediate Units represented 459

of the state's 505 school districts (90.9%). Findings from these questionnaires will now be summarized.

Identification of Leadership Potential in School Districts

In an attempt to trace the recruiting process for educational leadership back to its early roots, the executive directors were asked if districts in their Intermediate Units identified teachers with leadership potential. Table 41 summarizes the responses to this question.

TABLE 41

PERCENTAGE OF I. U. EXECUTIVE DIRECTORS INDICATING THAT THEIR SCHOOL DISTRICTS IDENTIFY TEACHERS WITH LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL

	% of Directors Indicating their Districts do Identify
Yes, all do	8.3%
Most do	29.2%
Some do	37.5%
A few do	0
None do	0
Don't know	25.0%

How Leadership Potential is Identified

Since a majority of the districts are seen by executive directors of their Intermediate Units as identifying at least some teachers with leadership potential for educational administration, the next question asked was "How do the districts identify such people?" Responses to this question, shown in Table 42, reveal that in more than one-third of the districts, the superintendent himself observes those teachers in a rather informal way. Second most frequently-employed method is by the observation of the supervisor. Each of these methods could be subjective and could be without real criteria, since they are done on an informal basis.

TABLE 42

PERCENTAGE OF THOSE SCHOOL DISTRICTS IDENTIFYING
LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL WHICH USE EACH
METHOD, AS INDICATED BY I. U.
EXECUTIVE DIRECTORS

	% of Districts Using Each Method
Supervisor observation	16.7%
Study of credentials	8.3%
Superintendent observation	37.5%
Teacher interest	12.5%
Other or no response	25.0%

District Offerings to Potential Leaders

When asked to rate frequency of offerings by districts to their potential leaders, the executive directors listed "administrative association" first in most cases. An informal, almost casual relationship, "association" may range from conversation about possible administrative careers to letting the prospective administrator sit in on decisions and meetings. Without intent, this "association" could become the "old boy network" at its most discriminatory. It would be unlikely that a male superintendent would identify and take a woman teacher "under his wing" in this manner, due to dissimilarity of style, possible rumors at the close contact, and a bevy of other reasons. Table 43 shows the ranking of offerings by the executive directors responding to the questionnaire.

TABLE 43

EXECUTIVE DIRECTORS RANK OF DISTRICT OFFERINGS
TO THOSE PERSONS IDENTIFIED AS HAVING
LEADERSHIP POTENTIAL

	Rank
Financial assistance	4
Administrative association	1
Advice on career	2
Nothing	3

Observation of Women Being Groomed for Leadership

When asked if they have observed any qualified women in their Intermediate Unit districts being groomed for educational leadership, 60% of the executive directors responded that they did not. Of the 40% who did, a total of twelve women were listed from within the 459 school districts represented by the executive directors.

Likelihood of a Female Superintendent

The respondents to Instrument III were asked to rate on a Likert-type scale the probability of the next superintendent in one of their districts being a woman. Another Likert-type scale asked them to rate the probability of one of their districts having a female superintendent in five years. On a scale of 1 (no chance) to 10 (surely will be), the ranking for next superintendent was 3.6, much lower than the ranks given by persons in the three groups in Table 28. Similarly, the ranking for a female superintendent in five years was 4.8, considerably lower than that given by Instrument I respondents and shown in Table 29. Of course there is no way to assess the correctness of these predictions short of waiting for time to pass to observe what actually does happen. If the executive directors are in touch with their districts and understand the

tenor of local school boards, the prospect is gloomy indeed for the next five years.

Several definite trends were noted in the Likert ratings by executive directors. In the western part of Pennsylvania, ratings were approximately one point above those in the remainder of the state. It is of course in the western section of Pennsylvania where the two female superintendents are located. Perhaps the more accepting attitude in the west allowed these two women to gain that position, or perhaps male superintendents and executive directors have observed that these women are capable and able to manage their school districts successfully. Lowest Likert ratings are in eastern Pennsylvania and in small Intermediate Units. Highest Likert ratings were found with executive directors of the largest Intermediate Units (more than 25 school districts).

Qualities Sought in a Superintendent

The data revealed the 69.2% of the executive directors responding have served as a consultant to at least one district in the search for a superintendent. This puts these men in a unique position to know what a school board is looking for in a superintendent, what the subtle and never publicly expressed instructions are for the search, and priority order and importance of

characteristics and qualities of leadership. All responding executive directors stated that they had never been told specifically to avoid finding a woman for the position (this of course would be a clear violation of federal regulations), and 50% stated that they had at least once been told in fact to search for a woman to recommend among the finalists.

The top quality most often listed as wanted by school boards for their superintendent was "well-rounded administrative experience." Communication skills, and financial acumen and budgeting know-how were listed next in importance. Personality and personal attributes were listed, followed by managerial ability. Lower on the list of qualities wanted in a superintendent were curriculum knowledge, negotiations skill, maturity, realistic outlook, and a philosophy of education compatible with the school board.

When asked to state reasons why they believed there were so few female school superintendents, the executive directors responding to Instrument III offered the following reasons, listed in the order which received the most responses:

Few women are qualified	13
Administration is traditionally a man's field	12

Few women apply	10
Women are not interested in being superintendent	5
Low aspirations of women	4
There are fewer jobs open now for anyone	4
Position is too risky for women	3
"Old boy network" doesn't work for women	3
Women lack leadership skills	3
Women's career too often interrupted	3
Female image not one of strength	3
Women lack mobility	2
Women lack "initiation experiences" (athletics, the military)	1
Women "can't stand the heat"	1
Women are family-oriented	1
No encouragement in Departments of Educational Administration	1

Interviews with Chairmen of Departments of Educational
Administration

Interviews were completed with five Chairmen of Departments of Educational Administration, at the schools of education which prepare persons for the superintendent's certificate in Pennsylvania. To maintain consistency, no interview was held with the Chairman at the Pennsylvania State University, since that

school had declined to participate in the study. Interviews were held with Dr. Donald Walters of Temple University, Dr. William Castetter of University of Pennsylvania, Dr. William Moore of Bucknell, Dr. LeRoy Tuscher of Lehigh University, and Dr. Godfrey Stevens of University of Pittsburgh. After initial conversation and an explanation of the subject of the study, the structured interview format was used in conducting the interview (see Appendix E).

Table 44 shows the number of full-time faculty in each school of education, Department of Educational Administration, with the number of females included in that total.

TABLE 44
NUMBER OF FEMALE FACULTY IN DEPARTMENTS OF
EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, AND
PERCENT OF THE TOTAL

	Total # Full-Time Faculty	# Women	Percent Women
Bucknell University	1	0	0
Lehigh University	6	1	16.6%
University of Penna.	8	1	12.5%
University of Pittsburgh	7	0	0
Temple University	9	1	11.1%

All department chairmen agreed that the calibre of women students in their departments was very high. As students, they usually made A's, were conscientious about assignments and responsibilities, were committed to excellence, and were very able. One professor stated that there were no "poor" women, in contrast to male students whose abilities ranged from outstanding to low average. Another said that his female students were very committed and had clear-cut goals; in fact, he stated that he did not know one female educational administration student who was not working for a specific goal. Another professor seconded that and added that the females in his department tested the highest of any of the students. It was thus the consensus of all chairmen interviewed that the current female students in educational administration were academically outstanding.

When asked to compare female career paths with those of male students, opinions of the department chairmen varied. One man saw a recent move on the part of women to the superintendency, "just in the last six months," as he put it. He said that he saw aspirations being raised, and he attributed this to the Woman's Movement becoming accepted by all women, rather than just "a few liberals."

Another professor stated that men have always

reached the superintendency in "the traditional way" and that they would probably continue to do so. But he added that women are beginning to achieve that goal in their own ways, with their own kind of career paths, and this he saw as good. He questioned the wisdom of expecting everyone to travel the same path.

One department chairman said that he observed that women do stay in each job longer and take longer to travel to top positions. The reason he believed this happened was that women were not as restless, and were more content for longer periods of time. He said that school boards are mostly made up of men, and until that changed, he doubted whether many women would be allowed to proceed to the superintendency.

The final professor interviewed indicated that he had thought about male and female career paths at great length prior to the interview. He felt that women pursued a career in a secondary fashion, that their families always came first. He stated that a wife helps a man to get ahead through all the years of his career, but that this help could not be duplicated for a woman by even the most cooperative husband. He placed faith in the "fear of success" theory of Horner, stating that almost no women really want to be #1 and to have to take the daily pressure and responsibility

under which a superintendent must learn to live.

When asked what their departments are doing to increase the number of female students and to assure their successful completion of the doctoral or superintendency program, most chairmen listed several actions. One said that although his department had no written affirmative action program, the "word is out" in his part of the state and increasing numbers of women are applying. The truth of his statement can be borne out by the higher percentage of women in his department. Another stated that he has been encouraging his professors to have mentor relationships with female students, and encouraging his one female professor to actively serve as a role model and advisor to women students. He has offered several UCEA (University Council for Educational Administration) courses for women, and is planning a doctoral level course on school administration for women. One of his department's female doctoral students of several years ago has become quite well-known for her dissertation in the area of women in administration, and he stated that since her study was completed, several other women are beginning similar studies. He encourages this.

Another professor stated that he is exploring the idea of a "mentorship" relationship with some local

school districts. He suggested that the 25 or so nearby districts would choose a top woman, nurture her, and send her to graduate school for a superintendent's certificate and/or doctorate. There would thus be a joint effort between the district and the university to promote and facilitate each woman's career success.

When asked to predict the likelihood of more female superintendents in Pennsylvania in five years, all said cautiously that there would be more, but only several more. This was the unanimous opinion of the chairmen interviewed. They reminded the researcher that change in attitudes is a slow process, that social change is perhaps even slower. One man said that if it were just up to the social climate of the times, there would be "five or six more", but the downturn in educational hiring and growth has made the market so tight that women will be the ones to lose out. He sees an upturn in the birthrate for the mid-1980's, and at that time he sees women advancing at a faster rate. Until then, he said, progress will be slow for women.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This study was designed to test the hypothesis that women fail to achieve the superintendency because their career path is different from the norm set by men. It was hypothesized that females stay in each position longer, experience more interruptions during their career, and are more apt to move to staff rather than line positions than are men. It was further hypothesized that females have lower career aspirations than men, and fewer women expect to achieve the superintendency.

Summary of Findings

In this study, it was found that:

1. Women's career path to the superintendency is indeed significantly different from that of men.
 - a. There is a difference between men and women in the age at which they decide to leave teaching for administration, with women on the average 4.3 years older when that decision is made.
 - b. There is a difference between men and women in the number of years taken to earn the doctorate after completion of the master's degree, with women taking one year longer.

- c. There is a difference between men and women in the number of years taken to earn the superintendent's certificate, with women averaging 2.4 years less.
 - d. There is a difference between men and women in the age at which the superintendent's certificate is earned, with women being on the average 2.9 years older when the certificate is received.
2. There is no significant difference between men and women in the number of years working in the positions of teacher, assistant principal, principal, or assistant superintendent.
3. Women experience more interruptions in their career than men, with 39.6% of the women leaving at least once and 9.8% of the men doing so. Most women who leave do so for family and child-rearing reasons.
4. Few women are in principalships or other line positions. Most women in this study are in staff positions in central offices of school districts.
5. Women have lower career expectations than do men, as expressed in their rating of the likelihood of their becoming a superintendent with their next job, or in five years. Of the men, 58.2% expected to become superintendent, as compared with the women, in which group 27.6%

expected to become superintendent.

There are other findings, relating to the men and women in this study. Many can be listed as inferences, based on the results of some of the individual items of Instrument I:

1. There is no significant difference between men and women in the number of superintendencies for which they apply.
2. Women aspiring to be superintendents are less likely than men to have a "mentor" or sponsor, either in graduate school or in the early years of their career.
3. The women participating in this study claim to have received higher grades in their graduate school work than did men.
4. A larger percentage of the women aspiring for the superintendency have doctorates than do their male counterparts.
5. Women aspiring to be superintendents have earned more certificates on the average than have men.
6. Most men aspiring to be superintendents are married with children; their female counterparts are more apt to be unmarried, divorced, or childless.
7. Women in educational administration plan their careers as far ahead as do men.
8. Women aspiring to be superintendent express less

satisfaction with their career path so far than do the men.

9. "Pioneering as a woman" is not an important reason for the goals that women in this study set for their career, for wanting to be superintendent, or for earning the doctorate.

10. The main reason both men and women in this study left teaching for administration is for "more satisfaction, personal rewards."

11. The main career goal for both men and women aspiring to be superintendents is "growing, becoming the best person I can be."

12. Men in educational administration rate career goals commonly associated with power ("power to change what I feel must be changed") higher than do their female counterparts.

13. Few female role models exist for women in educational administration, either as professors of administration or as superintendents.

14. Nearly all current superintendents state that they would encourage a qualified woman to seek a position as superintendent if she so desired.

15. Nearly all school districts identify teachers with leadership potential, usually by supervisor's evaluation, and most often on the basis of "leadership ability."

16. Intermediate Unit Executive Directors state that reasons for the lack of female superintendents are:

- a. few women are qualified
- b. few women apply
- c. educational administration is traditionally a man's field

17. In Pennsylvania schools of education, Departments of educational administration, there are few full-time female faculty members. In no case is there more than one in any school.

Conclusions

Some conclusions can be drawn from the summarized findings of this study:

1. The career paths of the women in the study are different from those of men, both in age at which degrees and certificates are earned, and in kinds of positions held. There was not a significant difference found in length of time spent at each of the typical positions found in the typical career path. Educational administration has been a male-dominated system, with the male career path considered the norm. Women may be at a disadvantage in achieving the superintendency since their path toward that goal is unlike the majority of persons striving toward that goal.

2. The women studied had more career interruptions than

their male counterparts, usually due to family and child-rearing reasons. When men interrupted their careers, it was mostly for the Armed Forces or a try at a career in business, both "acceptable" reasons on most job applications. Reasons for career interruptions, different for men and women, accentuate the differences to be found in male and female career paths.

3. On every question or scale in the instrument which was associated with career aspirations and expectations, women in this study indicated lower expectations. When not chosen for a superintendency position for which they had applied, fewer women state that they will continue to try, indicating in addition, less confidence that they will eventually succeed.

4. Women aspiring to be superintendent feel less support and encouragement from mentors. This may be a factor in their not reaching their goal and their not continuing to strive once they have been rejected for a position. Similarly, women were found to have fewer female role models in the superintendency or on the faculties of departments of educational administration. Educational administration may be perceived by the women in the study as not for women, and be another factor in their lower expectations.

5. Of the 77 known female superintendents in the United

States, more than 50% are chiefs of very small districts of under 1000 students (some districts having as few as 22 or 30 students).

6. The pool of women in Pennsylvania known to possess superintendent's certificates and thus be prepared for the superintendency is at least the 59 women found in this study. However, there are surely other women now in Pennsylvania who have earned their certificate in a state other than this one, or have earned their certificate before 1970 or before the years when the schools of education began keeping records of such recipients. Consequently, they were not included in this sample. A conservative estimate of the pool of qualified women in Pennsylvania would be at least 100.

Recommendations

It is clear that assigning blame to women or men is neither meaningful nor productive. The emphasis should instead be on increased understanding, continued research, and innovative change. Sex equity in educational administration should occur for the sake of our children, for the sake of male and female educators, for the sake of educational policy-making, and for the sake of our schools.

It is in the interest, then, of achieving greater sex equity in educational leadership that the following

recommendations are made. The recommendations are grouped according to the organization or individual seen as best able to implement them.

School Districts (personnel offices in hiring)

1. Advertise fairly and post widely all administrative positions at every level. Informal word-of-mouth recruiting, or golf course and "locker room advertising" should be avoided if both sexes are not included.
2. Recruit women aggressively for administrative openings. Quotas, affirmative action, and target dates should be utilized if necessary to assure that the district hires women for positions in administration.
3. List job qualifications openly, being certain that the requirements are pertinent to the position.
4. Employ women in school personnel offices as recruiters, interviewers, referral sources. Train district personnel staff to be objective and aware of discriminatory practices.
5. Provide space on job applications for applicants to list relevant volunteer and committee work, to give credit for non-traditional experiences.
6. Consider flexible scheduling, job sharing, part-time opportunities which could allow women to remain in education while raising children.
7. Review lock-step situations and requirements usually

expected for promotion to the "next step up." Some jobs can be substituted for others; some staff positions provide valid experience for some line jobs.

8. Identify leadership potential by a formalized procedure or method. Encourage good teachers to consider career advancement. Establish in-service career development workshops for women.

9. Hold sensitivity sessions to help men and women become more aware of attitudes, practices, and stereotypes which perpetuate discrimination.

School Boards (as makers of policy)

1. Provide policies which ensure absolutely fair hiring practices in every opening in the district.

2. Make it a practice to actively seek and recruit qualified women for every administrative opening.

Organizations such as the American Association of University Women, League of Woman Voters, and the National Council of Administrative Women in Education can provide lists of qualified women.

3. Be certain that women also serve on the interviewing and selection committee when interviewing candidates for top administrative positions.

4. Avoid common subtle discriminatory practices when interviewing finalists, such as selecting an unqualified woman knowing that she will soon be eliminated, switching

selection criteria when a woman appears in the pool of finalists, asking questions no longer allowed by current Federal and state legislation.

5. Avoid the practice of selecting only from within, especially when it is known that there are no women from within who are qualified.

6. Be certain that those criteria for administrative positions are pertinent and reasonable. Setting criteria that only men could meet (i.e. "previous experience as a Lehigh Valley high school principal for ten years") is unfair. Be flexible in the criteria; many life experiences can substitute for rigid lock-step criteria. Comparable experiences should be evaluated on their own merit (Armed Forces, volunteer work).

7. Promote women for school board openings, and help them get elected.

Superintendents (as district leaders)

1. Present to the public, through whatever media, an image of a district with both men and women in leadership roles, working together as a team.

2. Give administrative tasks to women, to provide practical experience and to give them visibility.

3. Send women with leadership potential for leadership training. Have such women lead in-service programs in

the district.

4. Avoid one-sex staff lounges; have men and women eat and relax together where job opportunities are discussed.
5. Serve as a "mentor" to several outstanding women in the district. Provide them with support, advice, counseling, references, job leads, and other informal assistance.
6. Learn to recognize sexism in one's own attitudes, behavior, expectations, conversations. Recognize sexist practices commonly found in interviews.

Schools of Education

1. Help women entering education in college to understand that teaching can be just the first rung on a career ladder.
2. Promote women faculty members, especially in educational administration where previously there have been few or none.
3. Actively and aggressively seek women for study in the department of educational administration. Create a professional awareness in women of the advantages of an administrative career. Seek women candidates for doctoral programs.
4. Restructure educational placement services to provide more counseling for women planning careers in

administration, to identify the employment of women in leadership positions as a priority, to publicize this commitment to all prospective employers. Avoid such subtle discriminatory practices as telling only men about the best jobs, delaying a few weeks to tell women about job openings, sending highly qualified women to mediocre jobs.

5. Provide special counseling for female administration students, so that they may be aware of the difficulties to be faced in the job search, of the special problems and needs of women in a man's field.

6. Provide more financial aid for women, as well as chances for choice graduate and research assistantships.

7. Offer flexible scheduling, flexible course options, innovative ways to complete certification or doctoral programs.

8. Promote research on career paths, special needs and problems of women, other research on administrative women.

9. Serve as a clearinghouse for material related to women in educational administration. Be certain that the education library includes recent books on administrative women, as well as journals of women's professional education organizations such as National Council of Administrative Women in Education and the National

Association of Women Deans and Counselors.

10. Seek funding for innovative programs to train women administrators.

11. Encourage "mentor" relationships among the faculty and female students. Provide support, advice, help when needed.

12. Hold or sponsor workshops and seminars on women in administration, alternatives to traditional career paths, other issues of interest to women. Provide one or two graduate courses on unique problems women face in educational administration for both prospective and practicing administrators.

13. Establish a cooperative program with local school districts to provide joint sponsorship of highly qualified women. Help these women get certification and doctoral degrees, to find advancement in their home district or perhaps a new position elsewhere.

14. Explore and implement alternative means for certification as a school administrator. Work with the Department of Education to broaden criteria, make more flexible requirements.

15. Keep more complete records of persons completing specific programs and degrees. Provide lists of women certified in each area to recruiting school districts.

16. Reward special achievements, publications,

outstanding research done by students.

State Departments of Education

1. Revise certification procedures. Move toward competency-based criteria, substitute experiences or additional education for some requirements.
2. Fund research in competencies needed to be a good administrator. Promote experimental programs, innovative changes.
3. Remove specific lock-step requirements for each certification and job title (i.e. must have served three years in an administrative capacity to receive a superintendent's letter).
4. Maintain an accurate file of persons receiving each kind of certification. Require that addresses of recipients be kept up to date. Compile an accurate list of minorities and women with special certification, to be made available to recruiting school districts.

Organizations

1. Promote national organizations (with state and local affiliates) or professional organizations designed to aid women in education (such as National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, National Council of Administrative Women in Education).
2. Stimulate national professional organizations

(previously mostly male) to have task forces, subcommittees, seminars, and research on various aspects of women in the profession (such as the American Association of School Administrators, Phi Delta Kappa, National Association of Secondary School Principals).

3. Promote equity in the number of women on policy-making boards of all organizations.

Women

1. Assess own capabilities, strengths and weaknesses, and learn to accentuate and stress the positive.

2. Think clearly about career path, goals and expectations, and then plan those career moves which will lead directly to those goals.

3. List volunteer activities associated with administrative experiences on job applications.

4. Support other women, provide assistance to them, foster an "old girl network."

5. Decide that to succeed in administration takes an intense personal commitment: spend time, earn degrees and certificates, research and publish, and become very competent.

6. Face discrimination squarely for what it is, and overcome it in the best way possible.

7. Foster a "mentor" relationship with a professor or

superior. Don't hesitate to use him/her for advice, references, counsel, job leads.

8. Learn to take risks, be independent, make decisions quickly and in a straightforward way. Don't be afraid to admit your ambition and aggressiveness to reach your goals.

Further Research Needed

While this study has answered some questions, it has simultaneously suggested other areas for additional research. Some areas for needed research include:

1. Various career path options to the superintendency need to be explored. Questions about the necessity for experience as an assistant principal, or assistant superintendent become relevant. Staff positions vs. line positions is an area which needs deeper exploration.
2. Attitudes of female school board members and superintendents toward the hiring of female administrators need to be systematically explored.
3. Competency-based training and certification of administrators is still a new area. Such factors as specific skills needed for success, how to measure affective competencies, and criteria need to be explored.
4. Longitudinal studies on young women with administrative potential have seldom been carried out. Aspiring

women who have failed comprise a sensitive group, but need to be studied.

5. Specific administrative job requirements and descriptions which detract from the desirability of those jobs for women need to be investigated.

6. Innovative training programs for all administrators need to be originated and tried out.

7. The special needs of women in administration need to be documented and met. The counseling needs must be recognized, and special classes or courses for women administrators need to be started.

8. Variables affecting the careers of women in educational administration need to be studied, one by one. Roles of husbands, personal values toward family and work, geographic mobility, parenthood, ethnicity are some of the factors which may play a part in the success or failure of a woman aspiring to a career in educational administration.

9. Identification of leadership traits and how to recognize them early in one's education and career is an important facet of the development of women's full potential.

10. The apparent stabilization of the declining number of females needs to be carefully monitored. Determination of social events in 1972-73 which may have caused

the stabilization needs to be made.

Closing Statement

Denying women partnership in educational administration is illegal, unfair, and wasteful. But it has become apparent that any change in the existing pattern of educational leadership will require efforts to deal with both the individual variables and the societal variables.

As is probably true with many studies of this kind, much more has occurred in the mind of the researcher than is apparent to the reader of the formal presentation. One outcome of the study was the researcher's growing awareness of the magnitude of the social change, the upheavals in traditional living arrangements, the changed ways of thinking, and the changes in accepted patterns of behavior that will be required to substantially increase the number of women who are school superintendents.

But the single statistic representing the tiny number of women who actually are the chief administrators of local school districts is most significant. And the statistic provides reason for optimism. These women have made it. These women have reached their goal. And other women, through preparation and hard work, can make it too.

EPILOGUE

"If a man does not keep pace with his companions,
perhaps it is because he hears a different drummer.
Let him step to the music which he hears, however
measured or far away."

Henry David Thoreau

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

NUMBER OF FEMALE SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS
THROUGHOUT THE UNITED STATES*

This information was compiled from a questionnaire sent to each of the fifty state departments of education in February 1978.

STATE	# DIST. IN STATE	NAME OF DISTRICT	CITY/TOWN	DIST. ENROLL.	ELECTED OR APPT.
Alabama	127	Lowndes County	Haynesville	3,521	Appt.
Arizona	240	Ganado El. #19	Ganado	1,616	"
		Globe Unified #1	Globe	3,004	"
		Litchfield El. #19	Litchfield Park	1,519	"
		Sunnyside Unified #12	Tucson	12,847	"
		O'Brien El. #00	Florence	76	"
		Pinal County Sp. Program	"	80	"
Arkansas	385	Arkansas City	Arkansas City	185	"
		McNeil	McNeil	392	"
California	1044	12 districts - unable to list			
Connecticut	176	Bridgeport	Bridgeport	22,823	"
		Canterbury	Canterbury	567	"
		New Britain	New Britain	9,931	"
Florida	67	Liberty	Bristol	1,027	Elect.

STATE	# DIST. IN STATE	NAME OF DISTRICT	CITY/TOWN	DIST. ENROLL	ELECTED OR APPT.
Georgia	187	Bryan County	Pembroke	2,019	Elect.
		Decatur City	Decatur	3,218	Appt.
		Glascock County	Gibson	570	Elect.
		Taliaferro	Crawfordsville	367	"
Idaho	115	Worley #275	Worley	149	Appt.
		Ladd #94	Ladd	220	"
Illinois	1013	Bureau Consol. #250	Princeton	66	"
		Damiansville #62	Albers	151	"
		Albers #63	Albers	148	"
		Central Stickney #110	Chicago	316	"
		Worth #127	Worth	1,388	"
		Midlothian #143	Midlothian	2,316	"
		Community Consol. #168	Sauk Village	2,234	"
		Evanston Township #202	Evanston	4,522	"
		Addison #4	Addison	4,724	"
		McCauley #27	West Chicago	18	"
		Carol Stream #93	Carol Stream	1,174	"
		Otter Creek El. #56	Streator	55	"
		Wallace #195	Ottawa	250	"
		Sunbury #431	Blackstone	44	"
		Owego Consol. #434	Pontiac	22	"
		Union #81	Joliet	263	"
Indiana	305	North Vermillion	Perrysville	1,137	"
		West Central Community	Maynard	600	"
Iowa	449				

STATE	# DIST. IN STATE	NAME OF DISTRICT	CITY/TOWN	DIST. ENROLL.	ELECTED OR APPT.		
Kentucky	181	Green County	Greensburg	2,068	Appt.		
		Harlan County	Harlan	7,836	"		
		Leslie County	Hyden	3,602	"		
		Anchorage	Anchorage	320	"		
		Southgate	Southgate	177	"		
Minnesota	436	Independent #459	Welcome	343	"		
Missouri	558	University City	University City	6,948	"		
Nebraska	1,138	Petersburg	Petersburg	104	"		
New Jersey	610	Glen Rock	Glen Rock	2,123	"		
		Ewing Township	Trenton	4,933	"		
		Middlesex Boro	Middlesex	2,783	"		
		Red Bank	Red Bank	1,098	"		
		Rumson Boro	Rumson	876	"		
		Ogdensburg	Ogdensburg	548	"		
		New Mexico	88	Belen	Belen	3,806	"
		New York	737	Berkshire Farm	Canaan	240	"
Homer	Homer			3,296	"		
Grand Gorge	Grand Gorge			246	"		
Inlet	Inlet			47	"		
Merrick	Merrick			2,299	"		
New Merrick	Merrick			1,327	"		
Westbury	Westbury			3,691	"		
Manhattan #2	New York City			21,166	"		
Brooklyn #17	New York City			27,614	"		

STATE	# DIST. IN STATE	NAME OF DISTRICT	CITY/TOWN	DIST. ENROLL.	ELECTED OR APPT.
New York (Cont'd.)		Brooklyn #23	New York City	16,679	Appt.
		Queens #25	New York City	24,024	"
		Brunswick Common	Troy	196	"
		North Greenbush Common	Troy	25	"
		Sparkill	Sparkill	108	"
		Glens Falls Common	Glens Falls	189	"
North Carolina	145	Currituck County	Currituck	2,535	"
North Dakota	243	Sims #8	Almont	90	"
Ohio	382	Ashtabula County	Jefferson	925	"
		Maple Heights	Maple Heights	3,700	"
		Tallmadge	Tallmadge	3,100	"
Oklahoma	623	Ideal	Welch	30	"
Oregon	333	Marcola #79	Marcola	301	"
		Carlton #11	Carlton	318	"
Pennsylvania	505	Carmichaels	Carmichaels	1,527	"
South Dakota	195	Bowdle	Bowdle	242	"
Tennessee	148	Cocke County	Newport	5,757	Elect.
		Perry County	Linden	1,224	"
		Richard City	Richard City	223	Appt.

STATE	# DIST IN STATE	NAME OF DISTRICT	CITY/TOWN	DIST. ENROLL.	ELECTED OR APPT.
Texas	1107	Windham	Huntsville	3,000	Appt.
Washington	301	Griffin	Olympia	370	"

*states not responding: Alaska, Massachusetts, Michigan



Lehigh Valley School Study Council

LEHIGH UNIVERSITY · BETHLEHEM, PENNSYLVANIA 18015

LEROY J. TUSCHER
Executive Secretary

January 4, 1978

Dear State Superintendent of Education:

We are conducting a survey to determine the number of female Superintendents of local school districts throughout the United States during the current 1977-78 school year. Will you please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to us at your earliest convenience? It is most important to us that we do receive your questionnaire, in order that we may obtain accurate and current statistics.

Please return the questionnaire by January 25, 1978 to:

Mrs. Ann S. Keim
Council Assistant
School of Education
Lehigh University
524 Brodhead Avenue
Bethlehem, Pa. 18015

Thank you!

Sincerely,

Ann S. Keim

Ann S. Keim
Council Assistant



Lehigh Valley School Study Council

LEHIGH UNIVERSITY · BETHLEHEM, PENNSYLVANIA 18015

LEROY J. TUSCHER
Executive Secretary

Survey of Female Superintendents of Schools
Throughout the United States

NAME OF STATE _____

TOTAL NUMBER OF LOCAL SCHOOL DISTRICTS IN STATE _____

For the current 1977-78 school year, we have _____ female
(number)
Superintendents of local School Districts, as follows:

NAME OF DISTRICT	CITY OR TOWN	DISTRICT ENROLLMENT	ELECTED OR APPOINTED?

Please use a second sheet of paper if necessary.
Thank you!

Person Completing Questionnaire _____

Title _____

APPENDIX B



LEHIGH UNIVERSITY

524 Brodhead Avenue, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania 18015 (215) 691-7000

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
Department of Administration and Supervision

March 22, 1978

Dear Recipient of a Superintendent's Letter:

Will you do me a favor?

I am conducting a survey of all persons who received Superintendent's certificates in Pennsylvania since January 1, 1970, to complete my doctoral dissertation in educational administration at Lehigh University. The purpose of this research is to discover the various paths taken by individuals pursuing careers in educational administration. Your answers will enable me to compare the education and experience (career paths) of different people, as well as the career expectations which they hold.

Your name was obtained from the certification lists of one of the six Pennsylvania universities which prepare persons for the Superintendent's certification. Your answers are very important to the accuracy of this research.

It will take only about 10 minutes to answer the questions on the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the stamped reply envelope. Please note that you will be answering only four pages, since several have special skip instructions. Of course all answers are confidential and will be used only in combination with those of other respondents. Please feel free to add comments or narratives to any question you wish.

If you are interested in receiving a report on the findings of this research, just check the box at the end of the questionnaire. I will be glad to send you a complimentary report when ready.

Please return the completed questionnaire at your earliest convenience, or by April 15, 1978 at the latest. Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Ann S. Keim

Ann S. Keim
Doctoral Candidate

Matthew W. Gaffney
Matthew W. Gaffney
Professor of Education

sh

Do Not Write in This Space:

A _____ M _____
B _____ F _____
C _____

SURVEY OF PERSONS RECEIVING CERTIFICATION
AS SUPERINTENDENT SINCE JANUARY 1, 1970
Data Instrument I

Section A. Personal Data.

1. Name (optional) _____ 2. Sex: Male Female
3. Address _____ 4. City, State, Zip _____
5. Age: Under 30..... 40-49 yrs..... 60 or over.....
30-39 yrs..... 50-59 yrs.....
6. Marital Status:
Never married... Divorced..... Separated.....
Married..... Widowed.....
7. Do you have children? No
Yes Number _____ Ages _____

Section B. Current Position.

1. Current position title _____ 2.No. of yrs. _____
3. Place of employment _____ 4. City, state _____
5. Is your current position primarily: (check one)
Teaching..... I.U. or County
Middle management administration.....
(principal or asst.)... Higher education.....
Central Office State Dept. of Education.....
(Supt. or asst.)..... Other (specify _____)
Research, consultant.....
6. Is your current position "line" (ex: principal, asst. Supt.).....
or "staff" (ex: curriculum dir., coordinator).....
7. Current annual salary from this position:
\$14,999 and below..... \$30,000-34,999.....
\$15,000-19,999..... \$35,000-39,999.....
\$20,000-24,999..... \$40,000-44,999.....
\$25,000-29,999..... \$45,000 and over.....

Section C. Certification.

1. Certificates earned: (check all that apply)
Teacher..... Supervisor.....
Principal..... Voc. Ed.....
Reading Specialist..... Superintendent.....
Special Ed..... Other (specify _____)
2. Age when Supt. certificate earned _____
3. No. years between earning principal's and Supt.'s certificate _____

Section D. Education.

1. Degrees: Masters: Subject/area _____ Year _____
College or university _____
- Doctorate: Subject/area _____ Year _____
College or university _____
2. No. years between masters degree and doctorate _____ Not applicable
3. Did you receive any kind of financial aid during your graduate work?
No..... Yes..... Dollar total _____
4. What grade did you receive in most (over 90%) of your graduate work:
A..... C..... Half A's, half B's.....
B..... D..... Half B's, half C's.....
5. Are you, or do you plan to, continue your formal education? Yes...
No....
6. For what purpose? (check all that apply)
Other certification..... Pressure from employer.....
Doctorate..... Other (specify _____)
Personal growth.....
7. Did (do) you feel the support and helpfulness of one or more faculty members during your most recent or current formal education experience?
No.....
Yes..... Sex of that "mentor": Male... Female..

Section E. Experience.

1. Experience Path: Place 1 after your first job in education, 2 after your second, etc. Leave blank any job you never held. Also write total number of years you held that job.
- Teacher (____ yrs.)..... _____
Head teacher(____ yrs.)..... _____
Asst. Principal (____ yrs.)..... _____
Principal (____ yrs.)..... _____
Staff specialist, counselor (____ yrs.)..... _____
Supervisor (____ yrs.)..... _____
Assistant or Assoc. Supt. (____ yrs.).. _____
Superintendent (____ yrs.)..... _____
Other (____ yrs.)(specify _____)..... _____
2. Since you first started working in education, how many times did you leave the field for any non-related activity or job? _____ times
List: Other Job or Reason for Leaving No. of Years

3. Have you served in the Armed Forces? Yes No Age entered _____

Section F. IF YOU ARE NOW OR HAVE EVER BEEN A SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT, PLEASE COMPLETE THIS SECTION. IF NOT, SKIP TO SECTION G.

These questions pertain to your current or most recent Superintendency:

1. How did you hear of this position? (check all that apply)

Read an ad.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Employment service.....	<input type="checkbox"/>
A friend told me.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	College placement service...	<input type="checkbox"/>
Word of mouth, rumor.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Already working in the dist.	<input type="checkbox"/>
Was asked to apply.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other (specify _____)	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. When you applied for the position, did you expect to be called for an interview?

Yes.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Why or why not? _____
No.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____

3. After your initial interview, did you expect to get the job?

Yes.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Why or why not? _____
No.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____

4. To the best of your knowledge, how many others applied for the job?

Under 20.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	70-100.....	<input type="checkbox"/>
20-40.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Over 100.....	<input type="checkbox"/>
40-70.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Don't know.....	<input type="checkbox"/>

5. To the best of your knowledge, how many others were seriously considered in the final stages of hiring?

3 or less.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Over 6.....	<input type="checkbox"/>
4-6.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Don't know.....	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. List reasons you believe you were named Superintendent over the other finalists. Please be frank _____

7. Do you believe that your sex was involved in the Board's decision in any way?

No.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	
Yes.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	In what way(s)? _____

8. Do your career plans call for another Superintendency?

No.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Why or why not? _____
Yes.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	_____

9. How are you preparing for your next position? _____

10. Has there been a person (or several) who has helped, assisted, and supported your rise up the career ladder (a "mentor")?

Yes.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	No.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Sex of "mentor" _____
In what way(s)? _____				

(SKIP TO SECTION I)

Section G. IF YOU HAVE EVER APPLIED FOR A POSITION AS SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT, BUT HAVE NEVER BEEN NAMED TO THE SUPERINTENDENCY, PLEASE COMPLETE THIS SECTION. IF NOT, SKIP TO SECTION H.

These questions pertain to your most recent application for a job as Superintendent:

1. How did you hear of this position? (check all that apply)

Read an ad.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Employment service.....	<input type="checkbox"/>
A friend told me.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	College placement service....	<input type="checkbox"/>
Word of mouth, rumor.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Already working in the dist..	<input type="checkbox"/>
Was asked to apply.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Other (specify_____)	<input type="checkbox"/>

2. When you applied for the position, did you expect to be called for an interview? Yes..... Why or why not? _____
 No..... _____

3. Were you given an interview? Yes..... By whom? _____
 No..... (position)

4. After your initial interview, did you expect to get the job? Yes..... Not applicable.....
 No.....

5. To the best of your knowledge, how many others applied for the job?

Under 20.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	70-100.....	<input type="checkbox"/>
20-40.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Over 100.....	<input type="checkbox"/>
40-70.....	<input type="checkbox"/>	Don't know.....	<input type="checkbox"/>

6. Were you among the finalists? Yes.....
 Don't know..... No.....

7. List reasons you believe you did not get the position as Superintendent. Please be frank _____

8. Do you believe that your sex was involved in the Board's decision in any way? No.....
 Yes..... In what way(s)? _____

9. Do you believe you had a fair chance to present yourself as a candidate for the position? Yes.....
 No..... Why not? _____

10. How many Superintendencies have you applied for? _____
 Will you apply for another Superintendency? Yes..... No.....

11. How are you preparing for your next try? _____

(SKIP TO SECTION I)

Section H. IF YOU HAVE NEVER APPLIED FOR A POSITION AS SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT, PLEASE COMPLETE THIS SECTION.

1. Have you considered applying for a position as Superintendent?
Yes.....
No.....

2. Why have you not applied? (Check all answers that apply)
Decided not to leave present job just now.....
Decided I preferred present job.....
Do not want to move from present home, area.....
Did not feel qualified for the job.....
Did not feel ready to be Superintendent yet.....
Thought I would not get the job anyway.....
Do not want so much responsibility.....
Not ready to spend so many hours on the job.....
Home responsibilities too heavy now.....
Prefer to maintain direct contact with students.....

3. Do you plan to apply for a Superintendency in the future?
Yes..... No..... Don't know.....

4. Do you feel generally well-prepared to become a Superintendent?
Yes..... No.....

5. Do you expect to become a Superintendent sometime in your career?
Yes..... No..... Don't know.....

6. Do you feel that your sex will have any bearing on your becoming a Superintendent?
Yes..... No..... Don't know.....
If yes, in what way? _____

7. Why did you earn your Superintendent's certificate? (Check two answers that apply most).
Just wanted to have it as "insurance".....
Plan to become Superintendent.....
It was expected of me.....
Happened to take the right courses and just earned it without planning.....
It came along with doctorate.....
Because it was available.....
Pressure from superior or mentor.....
Pressure from spouse.....
Other (specify _____).....

8. Has there been a person (or several) who has helped, assisted, and supported your rise up the career ladder (a "mentor")?
Yes..... No..... Sex of mentor _____
In what way(s)? _____

Section I. Career Expectations and Aspirations.

1. At what point in your career did you decide to go from teaching to educational administration? Year _____ Age _____
2. For what reasons? Place 1 next to answer that is most important to you, 2 next to second most important, etc.
- Better pay..... _____
 - More satisfaction, personal rewards..... _____
 - More prestige, status..... _____
 - More varied, interesting daily pattern..... _____
 - Teaching is too confining..... _____
 - More power, influence on others..... _____
 - To pioneer as a woman..... _____
 - Other (specify _____)..... _____
3. Have you planned your career from its beginning? (Check only one)
- Well planned from the beginning.....
 - Plan a few years at a time.....
 - Take each job as it comes.....
 - Didn't plan at first, but have begun to recently.....
 - It "just happened".....
 - Don't know; never thought about it.....
 - Other (specify _____).....
4. Looking back, are you satisfied with the path your career has taken?
Yes..... No..... Half and half...
5. What would you have done differently, if you could have? Please be frank. _____

6. Rate the following career goals in order of importance to you, 1 being the most important, 2 being second in importance, etc.
- Earning as much money as I can..... _____
 - Contributing to society or community..... _____
 - Growing, becoming the best person I can be..... _____
 - Being a community leader, having prestige..... _____
 - Creating, innovating..... _____
 - Pioneering as a woman..... _____
 - Having power to change what I feel must be changed.. _____
 - Other (specify _____)..... _____
7. How likely is it that you will become a school Superintendent with your next job? Rate the likelihood on a scale of 1 (no chance) to 10 (surely will happen):
- 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10
- How likely is it that you will be a Superintendent 5 years from now?
Rate on scale of 1 (no chance) to 10 (I surely will be):
- ~~1~~ ~~2~~ ~~3~~ ~~4~~ ~~5~~ ~~6~~ ~~7~~ ~~8~~ ~~9~~ ~~10~~

Return by MAY 5, 1978 to: Mrs. Ann S. Keim, Doctoral Candidate
School of Education, Lehigh University
524 Brodhead Ave., Bethlehem, Pa. 18015

Copy of research report.

APPENDIX C



LEHIGH UNIVERSITY

524 Brodhead Avenue, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania 18015 (215) 691-7000

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
Department of Administration and Supervision

February 28, 1978

Dear Superintendent:

Your help will be much appreciated.

To complete my doctoral dissertation in educational administration at Lehigh University, I am conducting a survey of the Superintendents of all school districts in Pennsylvania. The purpose of this research is to discover the various paths taken by persons pursuing careers in educational administration. Your answers will enable me to determine school district philosophies and policies which promote or encourage individuals as potential Superintendents.

Your answers are very important to the accuracy of this research, but should take you less than ten minutes. Please return the enclosed questionnaire in the stamped reply envelope.

Of course all answers are confidential and will be used only in combination with all other respondents. Please feel free to add comments or narratives to any question you wish.

Please return the completed questionnaire soon. We hope by March 15th to have the survey complete.

Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Ann S. Keim

Ann S. Keim
Doctoral Candidate

Matthew W. Gaffney

Matthew W. Gaffney
Professor of Education



LEHIGH UNIVERSITY

524 Brodhead Avenue, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania 18015 (215) 691-7000

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION

Department of Administration and Supervision

April 7, 1978

Dear Superintendent:

About a month ago, I sent you a 3 page questionnaire about your school district's procedures and policies for assisting your professional personnel in their career paths toward educational administration. The survey was sent to all Superintendents in Pennsylvania's 505 school districts.

While the return rate has been better than anticipated, I still have not received your completed questionnaire. I would be very grateful if you would complete the survey and return it to me in the stamped reply envelope which was enclosed. If you have discarded the questionnaire, I will be happy to supply another.

Thank you very much for your cooperation. If you wish a complimentary report of the findings of this research when ready, I will be happy to send you one.

Sincerely,

Ann S. Keim

Ann S. Keim
Doctoral Candidate

Matthew W. Gaffney
Matthew Gaffney
Professor of Education

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SURVEY OF SUPERINTENDENTS
OF PENNSYLVANIA SCHOOL DISTRICTS
Data Instrument II

Section A. School District Data.

1. Name of District _____
2. Name of Superintendent _____
3. No. of Students _____ 4. No. of Professional Staff _____
5. Total no. of Principals and Assistant Principals _____
 No. male _____ No. female _____
6. Total no. of Central Office Administrators _____
 No. male _____ No. female _____

Section B. Promotion of Professional Staff.

1. How does your school district identify teachers with administrative potential? Place 1 next to the method your district utilizes most, 2 next to method utilized second most often, etc.
- Supervisor's observation..... —
 - Study of teacher's credentials..... —
 - Superintendent's knowledge of teacher's abilities..... —
 - Teacher expresses an interest in administration..... —
 - District does not identify such teachers..... —
 - Other (Specify _____)..... —
2. On what bases do you identify teachers with administrative potential? Place 1 next to the basis your district utilizes most, 2 next to the basis utilized second most often, etc.
- Intelligence..... —
 - Interpersonal relationships..... —
 - Amount of graduate school education..... —
 - Leadership ability..... —
 - Classroom management ability..... —
 - Sex of teacher..... —
 - Teacher's desire to be an administrator..... —
 - We do not identify such teachers..... —
 - Other (specify _____)..... —
3. After identifying teachers with administrative potential, what does your district offer them? Please check all answers that apply.
- Special financial assistance for graduate courses (beyond that which is offered to all teachers).....
 - Close association with our administrators.....

- Advice and counseling as to career plans, opportunities.....
- We offer nothing different from what is offered all teachers.....
- We do not identify such teachers.....
- Other (specify _____).....

4. How many teachers with administrative potential did your district identify in the past year?
 No. male _____ No. female _____

5. Does your district have a philosophy on promotion from within the district vs. hiring from the outside? Yes.....
 No.....
 If yes, what does this philosophy state? _____

6. Do you have a formal policy for promotion of professional staff? Yes.....
 No.....
 If yes, what is that policy? _____

Section C. Your Principals.

1. Think of the principal you hired most recently. Was this position:
 Elementary..... Secondary.....
 Is this person:
 Male..... Female.....

2. How many persons applied for this position? _____
 No. male _____ No. female _____
 Did you seek applications from qualified women? Yes.....
 No.....

3. In what places did you advertise this position? _____

4. Please list reasons why this person won the position over the other applicants. _____

5. Do you encourage your principals to further their education to earn the Superintendent's letter? Yes..... No.....

In what ways? Why not? _____

Financial assistance for graduate courses..

Close association with top administrators in the district.....

Advice and counseling as to career plans and opportunities.....

Other (specify _____).....

6. How many principals with superintendency potential did you identify in the past year? Total no. _____
No. male _____ No. female _____

Section D. The Superintendency.

1. Do you believe that a Superintendent should work closely with the Assistant Superintendent(s) to "groom" them for the superintendency? Yes..... No..... Sometimes.....
Under what conditions? _____

2. Knowing that there are almost no Superintendencies held by women, would you encourage a qualified woman in your district to seek a position as Superintendent? Yes..... No..... Not certain.....
Why or why not? _____

3. In your opinion, what is the likelihood of your School Board naming a qualified woman as their next Superintendent? Please rank on a scale of 1 (no likelihood) to 10 (next Supt. will probably be a woman):

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Five years from now, what is the likelihood of your School Board naming a qualified woman as their next Superintendent? Please rank on a scale of 1 (no likelihood) to 10 (Supt. will probably be a woman).

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Please return by March 15, 1978 to: Mrs. Ann S. Keim, Doctoral Candidate
School of Education, Lehigh University
524 Brodhead Ave., Bethlehem, Pa. 18015

APPENDIX D



LEHIGH UNIVERSITY

524 Brodhead Avenue, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania 18015 (215) 691-7000

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
Department of Administration and Supervision

March 7, 1978

Dear Executive Director:

Your help will be much appreciated.

To complete my doctoral dissertation in educational administration at Lehigh University, I am conducting a survey of the Executive Directors of all Intermediate Units in Pennsylvania. Since you are in a unique position to observe persons applying for school district superintendencies, and district reactions to the applicants, your answers will enable me to determine school district philosophies and policies which promote or discourage individuals as potential Superintendents.

Your response is very important to the accuracy of this research, but should take you less than ten minutes. Please return the enclosed questionnaire in the stamped reply envelope.

Of course all answers are confidential and will be used only in combination with all other respondents. Please feel free to add comments or narratives to any question you wish.

Please return the completed questionnaire as soon as possible. We hope to have the survey completed by March 20th.

Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Ann Keim

Ann S. Keim
Doctoral Candidate

Matthew W. Gaffney
Matthew W. Gaffney
Professor of Education



LEHIGH UNIVERSITY

524 Brodhead Avenue, Bethlehem, Pennsylvania 18015 (215) 691-7000

SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
Department of Administration and Supervision

April 19, 1978

Dear Intermediate Unit Executive Director:

Several weeks ago, I sent you a questionnaire and self-addressed envelope, to be completed and returned to me as I complete my doctoral dissertation in educational administration here at Lehigh University. The research and the questionnaire has been approved by Dr. Patrick Toole of Intermediate Unit #16 and his committee on research done through the Intermediate Units.

To date, I find I have not received your questionnaire. With only 29 persons as Executive Directors, it is of course most important that I receive data from most or all of you. The survey takes just five minutes of your time; I would be grateful and most appreciative if you would do me the favor of completing the form.

If you have discarded the instrument, I shall be happy to supply you with another.

Thank you very much for your time and interest.

Sincerely,

Ann S. Keim

Ann S. Keim
Doctoral Candidate

Matthew W. Gaffney

Matthew W. Gaffney
Professor of Education

SURVEY OF EXECUTIVE DIRECTORS
OF PENNSYLVANIA INTERMEDIATE UNITS
Data Instrument III

Section A. Intermediate Unit Data.

1. Name of I.U. _____
2. Name of Executive Director _____
3. Number of School Districts in your I.U. _____

Section B. School District Identification of Administrative Potential.

1. Do the school districts in your I.U. identify teachers with administrative potential?
 - Yes, all do.....
 - Most do.....
 - Some do.....
 - Few do.....
 - None do.....
 - Don't know.....

2. How do the districts identify such teachers? Check the method you believe to be utilized most frequently.
 - Supervisor's observation
 - Study of teacher's credentials.....
 - Superintendent's knowledge of teacher's abilities
 - Teacher expresses interest in administration.....
 - Our districts do not identify such teachers...
 - Other (specify _____).....

3. After identifying teachers with administrative potential, what do your districts offer them? Please check all answers that apply.
 - Special financial assistance for graduate courses (beyond that which is offered to all teachers).....
 - Close association with district administrators.....
 - Advice and counseling as to career plans, opportunities.....
 - Nothing different from that which is offered to all teachers.....
 - Our districts do not identify such teachers...
 - Other (specify _____).....

Section C. The Superintendency.

1. Do the school districts in your I.U. encourage their principals to earn the Superintendent's letter?

Yes..... No..... Don't know.....

2. Do you observe that the Superintendents in your I.U. work closely with their Assistant Superintendent(s) to "groom" them for the superintendency?

Yes..... No..... Sometimes.....

Under what conditions _____

3. Do you observe any qualified women being "groomed" for the Superintendency in your districts?

Yes..... No..... Don't know.....

How many women? _____

4. What are the school district policies, written and unwritten, regarding the promotion of women to central office administrative positions? Please list those of districts with which you are familiar:

5. In your opinion, what is the likelihood of a school board in your I.U. naming a qualified woman as their next Superintendent? Please rank on a scale of 1 (no likelihood) to 10 (next Superintendent will probably be a woman):

1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — 5 — 6 — 7 — 8 — 9 — 10

Five years from now, what is the likelihood of a school board in your I.U. naming a qualified woman as Superintendent? Please rank on a scale of 1 (no likelihood) to 10 (Superintendent will probably be a woman):

1 — 2 — 3 — 4 — 5 — 6 — 7 — 8 — 9 — 10

6. There is only one female school Superintendent in Pennsylvania, and fewer than 100 throughout the U.S. From your experience with many districts, what would you say are the reasons there are so few women?

(please continue on page 3)

7. Many I.U. Executive Directors serve as consultants or search chairmen to school boards seeking a new Superintendent. Have you ever served in this capacity? Yes..... No.....
If you have, what kinds of qualifications have boards listed as being important to them in a Superintendent? Have boards stated that they prefer a man, or do not wish to hire a woman? Please summarize the common board instructions to you as a consultant.

Please return by March 20, 1978 to: Mrs. Ann S. Keim, Doctoral Candidate
School of Education, Lehigh University
524 Brodhead Ave., Bethlehem, Pa. 18015

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

CHAIRMEN OF DEPARTMENTS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
INTERVIEW FORMAT

1. Number of faculty in the Dept. of Educational Administration
Number of women included

2. Impressions of female doctoral and superintendent certificate students, as compared with the same male students.

3. How would you compare male and female career paths to the superintendency?

4. What is your department doing to ensure that women are admitted and complete the program?

5. Prediction: Do you see many female superintendents in Pennsylvania five years from now?

Comment:

VITA

Ann Shultz Keim was born on August 21, 1935 in Reading, Pennsylvania, the first child of Robert Shultz and Dorothy Faust. After graduation from Bassick High School in Bridgeport, Connecticut in 1953, she attended Bates College, Lewiston, Maine, graduating in 1958 with a BA in Nursing Education. She was employed as an Instructor in Medical-Surgical Nursing at Allentown Hospital and Montefiore Hospital in Pittsburgh.

In 1972, she received an M. Ed. degree in elementary education from Lehigh University, and was employed as a first grade teacher in the Bethlehem Area School District. She served for two years as Assistant Executive Secretary of the Lehigh Valley School Study Council, Lehigh University, in 1976-78. She is currently Administrative Assistant to the Superintendent of the East Penn School District in Emmaus.

She is married to Charles L. Keim. They have three children: Jill, Scott, and Mark, and reside in Bangor, Pa.