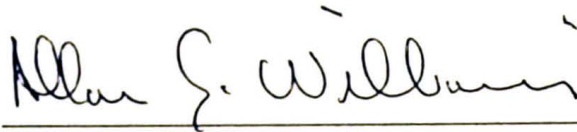


**WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS:
SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES AS COMPARED
TO MALE ADMINISTRATORS IN EDUCATION**

ANITA FAYE KING

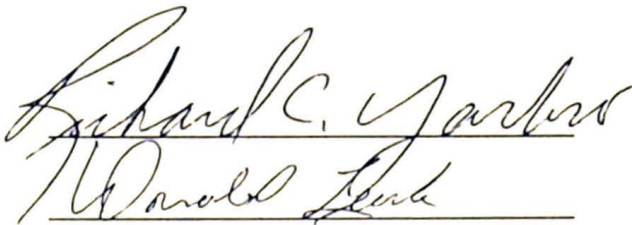
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WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS:
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COMPARED TO MALE ADMINISTRATORS IN EDUCATION

A Field Study
Presented for the
Education Specialist
Degree
Austin Peay State University

Anita Faye King

July 1994

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to determine if differences existed between the entry level demographics, duties, management styles, career barriers, compensations, and promotions of male and female administrators in education in both K-12 and post-secondary populations. This study was limited to current research regarding gender differences within educational administration published within the previous ten years. Findings indicated female administrators were younger, had fewer children, and were more often single than male administrators. A greater percentage of female administrators are at community, private, and small colleges rather than at larger universities.

Differences in the compensations of male and female administrators were found with the male salaries exceeding the female salaries in the field of educational administration. Management styles of women in educational administration were found to be different from men with women being more democratic and people centered. Women had more years teaching experience than men and held more central office positions prior to administrative appointments. Women experienced career barriers that were not experienced by men, and women administrator's career paths to educational administration was different from the career paths followed by their male counterparts. No differences were found between men and women regarding administrative promotions.

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Although females dominate the classrooms in this country, few hold administrative positions in both K-12 and university or college populations. Educational institutions, from the elementary school to the university, continue to be male-dominated in their leadership, despite the great number of female faculty members. Cimperman (1986) found at community colleges, where approximately 92,500 females and 142,000 males were faculty members, there were only fifty female chief executive officers. At the university level, few female administrators had advanced beyond the positions of assistant to the dean, assistant dean, or associate dean.

Ginn (1989) stated the lack of female representation in administration is a hindering factor for our nation as it attempts to achieve excellence in the school systems. The number of women earning doctorates in education is growing every year but Wyatt (1992) stated these women will only be accorded low power status unless stereotypical attitudes toward their leadership qualities change. Weller (1988) stated administrative training and roles must be evaluated and updated to ensure continuous growth for a future where female members of this society are perceived as being capable of functioning as educational leaders. The purpose of this study was to determine if differences existed between male and female administrators, and if so, what those differences were.

Statement of the Problem

The problem investigated in this study was to determine if differences existed between the entry level demographics, duties, management styles, career barriers, compensations, and promotions of male and female administrators in education in both K-12 and post-secondary populations, and if so, to determine what those differences are based on a review of current published research concerning educational administration.

Importance of the Study

Previous research on gender in educational administration asked, "Are women competent as administrators?" If the answer to this question is yes, why are they so under-represented in the field? Another question posed by research on educational administration is, "Where are the women in educational administration?" Women have consistently represented more than 80% of the elementary and 46% of the secondary school teachers (Marshall, 1987). While women once occupied 62% of elementary principalships, this declined to 17%. Women held 6% of secondary principalships, but now hold only 3.5%. Women serve in 3% of the U.S. school district superintendents, and when women do enter administrative positions at the college or university levels, they are far more likely to be in staff rather than line positions, or advisors rather than decision-makers (Wyatt, 1992).

Why are there so few women who reach senior-level administration, and how do male and female administrators differ in their career paths? The research

shows the importance for redefining, rethinking, and reorganizing current assumptions and policy in the educational administration profession that may be unfairly reducing women's career chances as aspiring administrators.

Definitions of Terms:

The following definitions are applicable for the terms used in this study.

Academic Administrator - those degreed individuals who are responsible for academic issues relating to all academic aspects of the student body (Marshall, 1985).

Line positions - those lower level administrative positions that have direct linkage to senior level administration. These positions include assistant dean and associate dean in a college or university population which is comparable to assistant principal in a K-12 population (Pavan, 1990).

Mentor - someone in a position to teach, guide, and promote the career of a protege (Schneider, 1991).

Mid-level Administrator - those individuals who report to the top level officers of a university or to other middle administrators, and who often supervise assistants and first line administrators. They may hold either line or staff positions, but they may not have their primary appointments as faculty members (Austin, 1985).

Non-academic Administrator - those individuals who are responsible for the supportive administrative areas including financial aid, student affairs, testing and counseling, etc. (Marshall, 1985).

Principal - those individuals considered to be the head or chief of a K-12 school or institution. This position is comparable to the position of dean in a college or university population (Schneider, 1991).

Protege - an individual who is aspiring to a position in educational leadership and is not limited to those who pursue career patterns that are identical to mentors (Schneider, 1991).

Provost - those individuals who serve as academic officers or in a vice president position at a college or university. This position is comparable to the assistant superintendent or supervisor of instruction in a K-12 population (Pavan, 1990).

Senior-level Administrator - those individuals who are in the top or highest positions of administration in colleges or universities, and in K-12 populations. These positions include deans of both academic and non-academic departments, vice president, and president of colleges or universities as well as principal, assistant superintendent, and superintendent of K-12 populations (Wieneke, 1988).

Staff Positions - those lower level academic positions which are considered support and directorship areas which do not have a direct linkage to senior-level administrative positions (Pavan, 1990).

Superintendent - those individuals with the authority to oversee, direct, control, regulate, and supervise K-12 school maintenance within a school district. This position is comparable to the president of a college or university (Schneider, 1991).

Limitations of the Study

A limitation of this study is all reported information is limited to current research studies regarding gender differences within educational administration which have been published within the last ten years.

Basic Assumptions

Educational administrative positions in this study have been generalized to include elementary principalship, secondary principalship, superintendencies, and college and university level administration, based on the similarities found in the literature between women administrators in both K-12 and post-secondary populations.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The intent of this research was to determine if differences existed in the entry level demographics, duties, management styles, career barriers, promotions, and compensations of male and female administrators of education in both K-12 and post-secondary populations. Only recently have studies of educational leadership included women or looked at gender differences in styles and characteristics. Schneider (1991) reported women represented 69% of the teachers in the United States but only hold 4% of the positions as school superintendents. Women comprised 24% of all principalships, 30% of elementary level principals were women and only 10% of secondary level principals were women. Warner (1988) stated research on administration in higher education suggest while women made progress obtaining senior-level administrative positions over the last fifteen years, their gains were not distributed throughout all types of institutions and across all departments or areas within institutions. Women constitute approximately 54% of those who earn administrative certification, however, they are far less likely to hold an administrative position after two years than are the men of similar aspiration and education. Only 38% of the women find a position after two years (Schneider, 1991). In the areas of higher education, women continue to hold lower level academic administrative positions while men continue to hold the traditional positions of power and influence in the administration field (Ginn, 1989).

Do differences exist between male and female aspirants in the field of educational administration, and if so, where do these differences lie? Schneider (1991) identified the lack of visible, accessible female role models as a reason women had not moved into administrative positions in greater numbers. Warner (1988) suggested career barriers in higher education had posed particular difficulties for women. This study attempts to determine in what ways male and female administrators are similar, and in what ways male and female administrators of education are different concerning the areas of entry level demographics, duties, management styles, career barriers, compensations, and promotions in both K-12 and post-secondary populations. Based on the similarities found in the literature between women administrators in both K-12 and post-secondary populations in this study, cross generalizations can be made between the two groups. Both populations will be discussed in a combined fashion throughout this study.

Entry-level Demographics

Age and Family Status

In Austin's (1985) study of mid-level administrators, results of the survey indicated a significant difference in the mean ages of the male and female respondents in post-secondary administration. The mean age for men was 47.3 years compared to 43.0 years for women administrators. Sagaria's (1985) study on differences in management styles in male and female administrators in post-

secondary education found the average female was 43 years old and her average male counterpart was 48 years old.

Analysis of demographic characteristics from Pavan (1988) indicated women in post-secondary administration were older than men when starting administrative positions with females averaging 39 years old and males averaging 32 years. This study also indicated 17% of the women and 2% of the men had never been married, and 68% of the women and 93% of the men were married. Only 27% of the women compared to 56% of the men had children aged 17 and older.

Results of the study conducted by Schuster and Foote (1990) showed women in K-12 administration not only held few of the superintendencies nationally, but they also received them much later in life. Nearly 36% of the women superintendents were over 46 years old when starting the superintendency compared to only 14% of the men. In addition to age, this study also found female superintendents were significantly more often single than males (32% versus 5%), and had fewer children, an average of 1.7 for females versus 2.9 for males. Pavan (1990) found men were an average of 31.6 years old when they began their administrative career while women were four years older averaging 36 years of age.

Radich (1992) found while 71% of male superintendents were married, only 57% of women superintendents were married. Men in this study had more children than the women with 92% of the children of male superintendents

between ages five and eighteen compared to 56% of the female superintendents. The men were also younger than the women. Radich (1992) concluded women were more independent in status due to the absence of children, and in 43% of the cases, the absence of a spouse.

Previous Employment Status

Gips (1989) studied outstanding educational leaders found several differences between men and women administrators in K-12 administration with respect to the development of their careers. Women in the study had more years of teaching experience than the men. The women had been in the field of education longer, began teaching at a younger age, taught longer prior to their first administrative role, and were older when they received their first administrative appointment. The women demonstrated their leadership capacity more fully before they moved to a leadership position. The men were more frequently groomed for their administrative roles, had conducted their entire careers in one district more frequently than women, and were more likely to have been hired into their first administrative positions in the districts in which they were employed as teachers.

Schuster & Foote (1990) also concluded women worked as teachers longer than men before moving into administrative roles. More than three-fourths of the women superintendents studied, compared to two-thirds of the men, had more than five years teaching experience. More women had held a central office

position (59% of the women, 41% of the men), while relatively fewer had been building principles (74% of the women compared to 85% of the men).

Soranno (1991) found in a survey of public school administrators that female principals, when compared with their male counterparts, entered their administrative role with more teaching experience and more school committee leadership as teachers, but with less experience in other work related settings that could have enhanced their leadership skills including noneducational union membership and athletic coaching. Specifically, women had been teachers an average of 2.8 years longer than men. The men again were more likely to have been principals where they had taught and to have been in administrative roles longer. The difference found in the length of time men and women had been in administration was significant with the men averaging 7.2 years longer than the women.

Radich (1992) found in the state of Washington career paths to the superintendency were different for men and women. The career path for male superintendents was achieved by working through the secondary principalship. No women in this study had held secondary principalships. Prior to the superintendency, women largely held central office positions including: curriculum coordinator, business manager, grants manager, or director of special services. The uniqueness of women's previous experiences prepared them to better meet district challenges generally not associated with women.

Education

Sagaria's (1985) study of differences between male and female administrators in post-secondary administration found noticeable disparities in their educational attainments. More men had earned doctorates (55.8%) than women (44.2%). Warner (1988) concluded male and female administrators did not differ with respect to the amount of education received, but they did differ in the areas in which their highest degree was attained. Both men and women in this sample received their degree in education, but women were twice as likely to have done so. Men were also more likely than women to have received degrees in all other academic areas.

Radich (1992) found more women superintendents in the state of Washington held doctorates than their male counterparts. Twale (1992) stated the area in which one receives a degree is a significant predictor of mobility into senior level administrative positions. Physical science graduates were found to be more likely to secure senior level administrative positions. Degrees in education improve the likelihood of an administrative position in a nonacademic area. Since men are more likely to gravitate to the sciences and women to education, women decrease their chance of entry into senior level academic affairs administrative positions.

Administrative Duties

Job Type

Faulwell & Gordon (1985) studied the American Conference of Academic Deans membership and found female administrators in post-secondary education were more likely than male administrators to work at small private institutions. Only 5.9% of the female administrators, compared to 13.9% of the male administrators, worked at institutions with over 300 faculty members. The comparison of the institutions on the basis of size of student body yielded similar results. No female administrators in this study were at institutions with more than 15,000 students. Only 16.1% of female respondents worked at institutions with more than 3,000 students as compared to 28.6% of the male administrators. Results of the study also indicated 37.3% of the females were employed as assistant or associate deans as compared to 16% of the males. Further, only 4.5% of the females were employed as vice president or provost as compared to 18.9% of the males.

At Duke University, women comprised the majority of the administrator in its academic aspects, as well as in the Medical Center (Clarke, 1988). Although women held 59% of the administrative positions at Duke University, women held far more positions at the lower ranks, and fewer than 8% of all women managers and administrators were at the senior administrative level.

A study conducted by Wieneke (1988) of women administrators in New South Wales institutions found there were no women employed in senior

administrative positions in the fifteen colleges of advanced education. Wieneke stated there had been few attempts in any of the New south Wales colleges to encourage women to act in higher positions when their senior level male colleagues were on leave. There also had been no attempts by the sector itself to conduct courses for women who may have aspired to senior administrative positions, nor was there encouragement to allow women to participate in management courses outside their own institutions. There did not appear to be any specific affirmative action strategies which had been assigned to assist women to move into the top positions.

Pavan (1990) found two-thirds of the female administrators in post-secondary education studied continued to be channeled into staff positions where their performance was directed by line officers. Pavan stated the positions afforded to women caused their contributions to remain largely unrecognized or undervalued since organizations tend to recognize only overall goal accomplishment which were attributed to the line officers.

Schneider and Wallich (1990) found a significant difference between respondents in a study between the administrative positions occupied by women and men in K-12 education. Results indicated men held more administrative positions at the secondary school levels than women. Also, significantly more men were certified as secondary principals than women, and more women than men were certified as curriculum coordinates or directors of instruction.

Twale (1992) found women represented 8.5% of all higher education administrators in both 1975 and 1980. In 1990, women constituted 38% of the total higher education administrative staff nationally, but they were still more likely to be associated with the nurturing fields including counseling, nursing, library science, social work, and education. Women appeared frequently in supportive staff positions rather than authoritarian line positions and were often clustered in pockets at the lower levels of the administrative hierarchy. Women often headed special programs for women, minorities, or international populations, or oversaw advising and resource centers. Twale also stated that women were mainly in directorships and other lower paying, lower ranking line and staff positions. This study pointed out again that women were more likely than male colleagues to be employed by small, private colleges having small sized faculties and small enrollments. The women in the study were concentrated in small colleges, liberal arts colleges, and women's colleges.

Job Commitment and Satisfaction

In the study of mid-level administrators conducted by Austin (1985), respondents were asked to rank the degree of their commitment to the position held, the institution where employed, and the career in higher education. No differences were found between males and females in regard to their ranking of their commitment to the institution. When differences between gender on the ranking of commitment to the career were examined, no significant differences were found, however, women tended to indicate their commitment to the career

was of primary or secondary importance to a greater extent than did the men (46.3% of women compared to 35.2% of the men). O'Rourke (1989) found staffs of women principals, in both elementary and secondary levels, had higher job satisfaction and were more engaged in their work than staffs of male administrators.

Years in Current Positions

Faulwell and Gordon (1985) reported a greater preponderance of males, 16.4% compared to 4.4% of females in post-secondary administration, had been in their present position nine or more years. The median number for males in their present position was 4.5 years compared to 3.3 years for females. No female administrator in this study had been in the same position for over 13 years. Barrax (1985) found the greatest number of the administrators, both male and female, had been in their current positions one to five years (53% of women and 40% of men). No women and only 20% of the men had held their current position 10 to 15 years. As for those with the least experience, only females (20%) had been in their current positions less than 1 year. At Duke University, Clarke (1988) found no differences between men and women at any job level in the number of years spent in current positions.

Schuster & Foote (1990) concluded female superintendents had been in their present jobs fewer years than male superintendents. Sixteen percent of the females had spent seven or more years in a superintendency compared to 41% of the males. At the time the survey was completed, 78% of the women were in

their first year of superintendency compared to 58% of the men. Pavan (1990) concluded the women who participated in the study reported being in administration an average of 8.6 years as compared to men who reported acquiring four more years of experience averaging 12.7 years.

Management Styles

According to Marshall (1985), research has shown women administrators in K-12 populations are different from men in their orientations to administrative roles and skills. Women principals out scored men in their ability to work with teachers and outsiders, and they possess greater knowledge of teaching techniques. Marshall's research indicated women to be more democratic, more friendly and sympathetic to teachers, more favorable to curriculum change, more adept at problem solving, more attuned to individual student differences, and no more inclined to worry or be concerned about petty matters than men.

Cimperman (1986) found no significant difference between male and female administrators' perceived leadership style in post-secondary education. The study indicated what may have been a significant factor in the perceived leadership styles of male and female administrators was the nature of the educational institution. Estter (1987) found while most differences were insignificant regarding how men and women perceived competency demands on the job in both K-12 and post-secondary populations, women described demonstrating higher perceived competency demands across administrative roles. Women in the study scored significantly higher on people related and cognitive

competencies, while the areas in which men scored high related to "things" and conflicts including facilities management, computer usage, and collective bargaining.

O'Rourke (1989) stated women employed a collaborative approach to decision making which resulted in the sharing of power. She also stated in the study that from speech patterns to decision making styles, women exhibit a more democratic, participatory style which encourages inclusiveness rather than exclusiveness in administrative positions more often than males. Women in the study involved themselves more with staff and students, asked for and received greater participation, and maintained more closely knit organizations.

According to Cobelli and Muth (1990), the gender of the administrator affected the ways in which decisions were made. Female administrators in both K-12 and post-secondary populations were seen as being more conscious of people in the decision making process and were better able to nurture colleagues and staff than males in a similar role. Further, female administrators took more time to make decisions than men, were more attentive to detail, and were more process oriented than their male counterparts. Women in this study were also viewed as superior to men in their use of intuition in decision making.

Mohapatra, Rose, Woods, and Bugbee (1990) found female administrators in both K-12 and post-secondary populations differed significantly from their male counterparts on value issues. Women felt to a greater degree that institutions should provide equal treatment for minorities and women, but disagreed to a

greater extent that political influence was important for an institution to help a student. Women agreed that high quality services should be applied at the workplace when dealing with students and others.

Career Barriers

Personal Barriers

Marshall (1984) stated research has shown superintendents, school boards, and teachers prefer male administrators. The "old boys' network" is more prone to men since predominantly white male administrators and university professors spread the word to aspiring proteges about upcoming job openings. This process promotes hiring practices which unfairly discriminate against women.

Research using sociolinguistics for exploring gender issues in educational administration (Marshall, 1987) pointed out a need for exploring whether the language differences of male and female administrators contributed to male dominance in the field of educational administration. Marshall stated women's language should be the language that induces participation, groupness, equality or shared leadership, accuracy, empathy, and sensitivity.

Warner (1988) found women were more likely to have experienced the lack of strong sponsorship in both K-12 and post-secondary administration. Sex discrimination was also noted as still posing problems for women. Family responsibilities continued to be a significant issue for women, more so than men, although many women were choosing lifestyles without husbands or children. Many of the female administrators at Duke University had taken time off to have

children. Most of those who had taken a year's break or longer stated they experienced difficulty re-entering the job market, having to go back to school, or simply starting all over again with more serious career goals (Clarke, 1988). Many Duke women administrators also stated they were, at some time, single parents which not only compounded their child-care problems, but added urgency to their need to advance their careers for the economic benefit of their families (p. 49).

Ginn (1989) stated women are, at times, their own worst enemies. School faculties, which are largely female and often very traditional, are sometimes reluctant to accept a woman as a leader. Women who have a traditional approach to life are openly negative to women who aspire to roles which are non-traditional (p. 9). Schneider (1991) attributes the lack of visible, accessible female roles models as a reason often cited for women not moving in administrative positions in greater numbers. Due to the small number of women with the experience and the expertise to mentor other women, this will continue to be a barrier to access and an opportunity for aspiring female administrators.

Education Barriers

According to Warner (1988), a significant barrier to higher administrative positions, especially in academic areas, is the area in which the degree is received. The largest percentage of those with education degrees in the study were in non-academic dean positions. Warner stated since women are found to be disproportionately represented in the education field, a good number of them may be kept from rising to the top.

There were no significant differences found between the male and female administrators at Duke University in terms of their fields of education. As many women as men had college degrees in unrelated fields and had advanced through on-the-job training. As many women as men had known from the beginning what type of career they wanted, and had maintained a straight career path even in terms of beginning their careers as student interns (Clarke, 1988).

Mertz & McNeely (1991) found less than 3% of the professors of educational administration which prepared students for administrative positions in elementary and secondary principalships or superintendencies were women. The study showed not only are women under-represented as higher level educational administrators, but as professors of educational administration as well.

Experience Barriers

Marshall (1984) found most women had little training to prepare them for their administrative positions. Women in the study seldom had access to the mentor-protege relationship which was experienced by many of the male respondents. A reason given for women not experiencing this relationship was men and women are not accustomed to working as caring, supportive colleagues. Another reason given was informal interactions between men and women sometimes give the appearance of love or sexual relationships which may harm marriages and careers. The women in the study had to find or create replacement mechanisms to substitute for the mentor-protege socialization because formal training, special expertise, and extra degrees were not enough to take the place of

this missed interaction. Since mentors or role models were rare, and they seldom held enough power to help promote women, this crucial informal process which trained and supported men and which defined the criteria for administrators was often not available to women.

Marshall (1987) found women's career paths seldom lead to administrative positions. Positions such as the elementary principal or central office staff, which were accessible to women, did not lead to the superintendency. Women in the study were more likely to move from assistant elementary principal to principal to retirement, or from specialist to administrator of instruction or supervisor to retirement.

According to Warner (1988) those women in the study who had faculty experience were significantly more likely to hold administrative positions at a university (55%) than those women without experience (38%). Women with non-faculty career paths were more likely to be at colleges or technical schools.

Wieneke (1988) stated it is difficult to break the cycle of exclusion and discrimination at senior levels of administration because women have not, on the whole, had mentors or senior colleagues who were prepared to provide them with encouragement and opportunities. Wieneke also stated the men who currently hold the senior level administrative positions and who have some interest in maintaining the male exclusivity of these jobs are the very ones responsible for selecting their successors. Wieneke suggests women need to depend on either being exceptional in competing for top positions or hope that some of the

selectors for top administrative positions are sympathetic and alert to the covert forces which are operating to discriminate against qualified women in these situations.

Compensations

In Austin's (1985) study of mid-level university administrators, results indicated men and women differed significantly in their reported salary levels. While the mean salary for male administrators was between \$30,000 and \$34,999, for females the comparable mean was between \$25,000 and \$25,999. According to Faulwell and Gordon (1985), one of the most surprising results emerging from their study was the differences in salaries between male and female respondents. Only 25.2 percent of the males had a salary less than \$35,000 as compared to 53.8% of the females. At the other end of the continuum 25.6% of the males, but only 6% of the females earned salaries over \$50,000. The median salary was \$43,275 for males and \$34,412 for females, a difference of \$8,863.

In a study of male and female professors of educational administration (Mertz & McNeely, 1991), it was found that female professors of educational administration earned about \$10,000 less than their male counterparts. Even when rank and years of experience were included in the analysis women earned, on the average, \$3,000 less than their male counterparts. It was also found that 80% of the female assistant professors of educational administration, compared to 47% of the male assistant professors of educational administrators, earned less than \$30,000.

Promotions

Austin (1985) found in a study of mid-level administrators that perceptions of opportunities for career advancement did not differ significantly by sex. Both men and women perceived only a small likelihood of having an opportunity within the next five year period to move into a new position at their university or at another university.

According to Gips (1989) men and women differed in terms of their reasons for moving from teaching roles to administrative roles. Over 50% of the men were "tapped" by their supervisors for administrative jobs, significantly more than the 37.5% of the women in this study. Regarding the help they received in gaining new administrative positions, men and women gave significantly different reports. Women reported more support (67%) from subordinates than men did (37%).

Pavan (1990) stated the continued promotion of women into staff positions will decrease their potential mobility into line positions by limiting their visibility, and providing a sheltered environment that inhibits their ability to learn prerequisite administrative skills. The higher percentage of male superintendents, assistant superintendents, and elementary and secondary principals in line paths also indicates that men tend to move directly from teaching to line positions, while females are more likely to be appointed to staff positions before they are considered for line appointments.

CHAPTER 3

METHOD

The problem to be investigated in this study was to determine if differences existed between the entry level demographics, duties, management styles, career barriers, compensations, and promotions of male and female administrators in education, and if so, to determine what those differences were based on a review of current published research concerning educational administration. In order to investigate this problem a literature search was conducted using the Educational Resources Information Center (ERIC) located in the Woodward Library at Austin Peay State University. Sources from January 1982 through December 1992 were able to be obtained using this process. The first descriptors used in the ERIC search were the terms administrator, women, and education. Based on the initial finding, additional restrictions were added.

Each of the abstracts were viewed on ERIC to determine the relevance and the importance each source would contribute to the study based on the factors stated in the problem statement. Those abstracts which appeared to relate directly to the study's purpose were printed. Only those within the time span of the previous ten years were considered. The Current Index to Journals in Education was reviewed to obtain sources up to the current date. All sources included were previous research studies.

Printed research articles were read and divided into categories based on findings indicated in the studies. The categories included were entry level demographics, duties, management styles, career barriers, compensations, and

promotions, all of which were specific areas of comparison stated in the problem statement of the study. A tally of the findings of each research study was listed as either supporting or not supporting the hypothesis. Articles were tallied from the oldest in publication year to the most current in order to determine if any change occurred over the ten year span.

CHAPTER 4

Results and Discussion

The problem investigated in this study was to determine if differences existed between the entry level demographics, duties, management styles, career barriers, compensations, and promotions of male and female administrators in education, and if so, to determine what those differences were based on a review of current published research concerning educational administration. The first descriptors used in the ERIC search were the terms administrator, women, and education. Based on these initial descriptors, 881 sources were cited. The search was further narrowed by adding the term "men" as a descriptor in the ERIC search. From these descriptors 212 references were cited. A descriptor which was crucial to the study was the term "differences". By including this additional descriptor, the search list was narrowed to 99 sources. Abstracts for the 99 sources were viewed on ERIC to determine their relevance to the study's purpose.

Only 41 references and abstracts met the criteria and were printed to be further examined before actual sources were obtained. Ten references were excluded because the direct focuses of these studies were not related to the problem of this study, but instead included aspects of the problem in a generalized manner. Of the remaining 31 references, 24 were on file on microfilm at the Woodward Library and 7 were retrieved through the "interlibrary loan" process. One additional source was obtained through a review of the Current Index to Journals in Education which indexes source to the current date.

Once the 32 articles were obtained, they were read and classified in categories. Most studies were included in more than one category. The findings of the research studies were tallied as either supporting or not supporting the hypothesis. The categories included were entry level demographics, duties, management styles, career barriers, compensations, and promotions. An additional five sources were excluded from these study because they did not fit into any of the categories.

Entry-Level Demographics

This category was divided into three subcategories including: age and family status, previous employment, and education. Eight studies were included in this category. Six studies were included in the tally of the subcategory "age and family status". Four studies concluded that men were younger than women when obtaining their first administrative position while two studies concluded women were older. Three studies concluded women had fewer children and were single more often than their male counterparts. Four studies were included in the tally of the subcategory "previous employment status". All four studies concluded a difference existed between men and women. All four studies concluded women had more teaching experience than men. Three studies concluded women held more central office positions while men held more assistant principal and building principal positions. A tally of the subcategory "education" included four studies. All four concluded there was a difference in the educational attainments of male and female administrators. Two studies concluded men earned more doctorate

degrees than women, and the other two studies concluded the difference was in the area in which the degree was received with women receiving more degrees in education than men.

Administrative Duties

This category was divided into three subcategories including: job type, job commitment and satisfaction, and years in current position. Nine studies were included in this category. Six studies were included in the tally of the subcategory "job type". All six studies concluded there was a difference in the duties of male and female administrators. Three of the six studies concluded women were more often at small private colleges with small student enrollment and small faculties, and all six studies concluded women worked in lower level administrative and staff positions, while men served in higher level line administrative positions. The subcategory "job commitment and satisfaction" included only two studies. Both studies concluded there was no difference between men and women administrators. Five studies were included in the tally of the subcategory "years in current position". Four studies concluded there was a difference with men being in their current positions more years than women. One study concluded there was no difference between men and women in years in their current positions.

Management Styles

Six studies were included in this category. A tally of this category showed four studies concluded there was a difference between the management styles of men and women administrators while two studies concluded no difference existed.

Three studies concluded women were more democratic in their approach to administration, and one study concluded women differed in their perceived leadership style.

Career Barriers

This category was divided into three subcategories including: personal barriers, education barriers, and experience barriers. Eight studies were included in this category. Six studies were included in the subcategory "personal barriers". All six studies concluded there was a difference in the types of personal barriers experienced by women and men. Three studies concluded the lack of a strong mentor/protege relationship was a barrier. Two studies concluded that the tradition of having males as administrators was a personal career barrier. Three studies were included in the tally of the subcategory "education barriers". One study concluded a barrier to higher administrative positions for women was the area in which their degree was received. One study found no differences between the education of male and female administrators, and one study concluded the lack of female professors of administration at the university level was an educational barrier. Four studies were included in the tally of the subcategory labeled "experience barriers". All four studies concluded women had less training and experience to prepare them for their administrative position than men.

Compensations

Three studies were included in this category. Two studies concluded male administrators of education had higher salaries than women, and one study

concluded male professors of educational administration at the college or university level had higher salaries than their female counterparts. One study attributed the difference in salaries between male and female administrators to years of experience.

Promotions

Three studies were included in this category. Two studies concluded male and female administrators in education did not differ in terms of their opportunities for career advancement, but did differ in their reasons for moving into administrative roles. One study concluded the continued promotion of women into staff positions would decrease chances for promotion and potential mobility.

CHAPTER 5

Summary

This study examined if differences existed between the entry level demographics, duties, management styles, career barriers, compensations, and promotions of male and female administrators in education in both K-12 and post-secondary administration. Based on the results of the research studies reviewed it was concluded that men were younger than women when obtaining their first administrative positions, and women administrators had fewer children and were more often single than their male counterparts. Results also concluded a difference existed between the previous employment status of men and women administrators. Women had more teaching experience than men, and held more central office positions prior to administrative appointments while men held more principal positions. This study also concluded there was a difference in the educational attainments of male and female administrators.

Based on the results of this study, it was concluded there was a difference in the administrative duties of males and females. Women served in lower level support and staff administrative positions while men served in higher level line administrative positions. No difference was found between men and women administrators in relation to their job commitment and job satisfaction. There was a difference found in the number of years male and female administrators had been in their current positions, with males in their current positions longer than females.

A difference was found between the management styles of male and female administrators. Women were found to be more democratic in their approach to administration.

Personal barriers to the career were found to be different for females when compared to their male counterparts. The lack of strong mentor/protege relationships was concluded as being a barrier for women as was the traditional system of selecting administrators. No conclusions were reached concerning education barriers, but differences were found between the experiences of male and female administrators. Women held less training and on-the-job experience to prepare them for administrative positions when compared to men.

Based on the results of the research studies reviewed it was concluded male administrators in education had higher salaries than their female counterparts. No differences were found between the opportunities for promotion afforded to male and female administrators of education.

Conclusions

Based on the conclusions reached by the researchers reviewed in this study, it becomes obvious that even though women have made some progress towards becoming senior level administrators, they still remain under-represented in this field when compared to their male counterparts. Society as a whole needs to recognize that women are just as capable of attaining as well as accomplishing the same goals that have been set aside for male administrators for many years.

Women interested in being administrators need to be encouraged to pursue career paths that lead to administrative position attainments.

Women need to be afforded more opportunities to receive training and experience in the fields of educational administration, especially in the areas of senior level administrative roles. Women who are currently educational administrators need to assume the responsibility of becoming positive role models as well as provide mentor/protege relationships for other aspiring female administrators.

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