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**Similarities and differences in leadership styles and career paths
between women in K-12 education and women in business
administration within the state of Michigan**

Sage, Karen S., Ed.D.

Wayne State University, 1993

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**SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND
CAREER PATHS BETWEEN WOMEN IN K-12 EDUCATION AND WOMEN
IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION WITHIN THE STATE OF MICHIGAN**

by

KAREN S. SAGE

DISSERTATION

**Submitted to the Graduate School
of Wayne State University,
Detroit, Michigan**

**in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of**

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

1993

**MAJOR: ADMINISTRATION &
SUPERVISION - GENERAL**

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**This study is dedicated to
Neal,
Stephanie Nicole
and
Benjamin David
with love.**

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CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

As more and more women attempt to enter into the ranks of educational and business administration, it becomes necessary to determine the specific leadership styles and career paths of those women already in those top administrative positions to serve as guides to those who wish to duplicate their efforts. From previous literature and research it has been shown that women are under-represented in top management positions within their respective fields. Additional research is called for to help determine what is the best way for women to enter into management in their respective fields. This study will determine the similarities or differences in leadership styles and career paths of women executives in K-12 education and business administration from small business to major corporations within the state of Michigan.

This study will present three aspects of the problem. The first aspect is to study two samples of women, one from educational administration, the other from business administration in order to note the similarities and differences in leadership styles they currently possess.

The second aspect of the study will be to study the biographical information provided by the two groups to determine the similarities and differences in their backgrounds.

The third aspect will examine the possible reasons as to the

failure of women to advance to the top leadership positions in both education and business, how the problem is currently being addressed and to suggest possible solutions.

Rationale for the Study

Women have played an important part of the American labor force since the early twentieth century. As early as 1890, one sixth of the work force was made up of women. Certainly since World War II there has been an increased number of women who are a part of the total labor force (Benedetti, 1975). However, as the total number of women has increased, it has become apparent that the total number of women occupying top executive positions has not been representative of the total number of working women (Dohrman, 1982).

This is not to say that women have not advanced into leadership roles. Women have achieved management positions, but they are primarily mid-level positions with the number of women in top leadership positions remaining small (Durnovo, 1988). This is despite an increased number of qualified women with advanced degrees and appropriate credentials (Pounder, 1990).

A common response to this problem is that of sexual discrimination. However, a closer examination of the issues finds that many factors including sociological, biological, psychological and educational conditions have contributed to this problem. Society has tended to accept women on face value and not to see them as a valuable resource. Cynthia Epstein notes, "Our best women - those in whom society has invested most heavily - underperform, underachieve and underproduce. We waste them and they waste themselves."

This research will explore the relationships between women in educational administration and business administration, specifically as they relate to leadership style and career paths. This is done to extend knowledge about what constitutes a female executive leadership style and career path within these two arenas. Furthermore, this project will indicate how the individuals achieved their current positions as examples for those who seek to emulate their success. The need for this research contributes to the advancement of educational and business administration in three ways. It makes a contribution to the field of organizational development; it will clarify the necessary steps one must take to advance professionally within these organizations and it identifies the most effective leadership styles employed by female administration.

Those to have made it to the top executive positions of their chosen profession have become role models. The career paths that these executive women have followed, as well as the leadership styles they employ in the work place, need to be highlighted and examined for commonalities so that they may be employed for the overall advancement of qualified women. These two professions were selected to contrast careers in education, which have traditionally allowed women limited advancement into management, and business, which has been less willing to acknowledge the worthiness of female candidates.

Limitations of the Study

This study will be limited to the identification of leadership styles and career paths of women in educational administration and

business administration and is not intended to be a history of the women's labor movement or the women's liberation movement.

Assumptions Underlying the Study

The following assumptions together with the Review of the Literature will provide the theoretical underpinnings and basis for this research project. These assumptions and theoretical underpinnings will be focused on women's advancement into top management positions within education and business. Theoretical foundations of these areas will center around the development of leadership theories and the identification of specific leadership styles and career paths as they apply to women in executive positions.

1. This research project will assume that those who answer the survey questions actually hold the executive positions as defined.
2. This research project will assume that the sample population is representative of all women executives in business and education in Michigan.
3. This research project will assume that the women executives in the sample advanced into their current positions following a career path that is directly related to the position they now hold within their organization.

Research Questions

1. What are the similarities or differences in leadership styles between women in educational administration and women in business administration?
 - a. Do women in educational administration have different leadership styles than their female colleagues in business administration?
 - b. Are the groups comparable in terms of educational and/or leadership training?
2. What are the similarities or differences in career paths between women in educational administration and those in business administration?
 - a. Do both groups have comparable career paths?
 - b. Did the groups take similar career paths as compared to men within their respective organizations?
3. How do women achieve the top positions within their organization?
4. What common behavioral descriptors can be attributed to each group?
 - a. Are the groups similar in terms of age, number of siblings, marital and family status?
 - b. How do the groups compare in terms of salary, size of their organization, and feminist/civic/ professional affiliation?
 - c. Is one group more mobile in terms of frequency of job moves?

5. What have been the most important influences in obtaining their current position?
6. What common problems in administration do the two groups share?
7. How does the information gathered in this study compare with earlier studies?

Definition of Terms

The terms listed below will have the following operational definitions for this study.

Leadership Style

The manner in which an individual influences the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Hersey and Blanchard, 1968, p.60).

Task behavior - The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members; to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

Relationship behavior - The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and

members of their group by opening up channels of communication, providing socioemotional support, psychological strokes and facilitating behaviors (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982).

Career Path

A career path is the employment history of the individual that is directly related to the obtainment of their current position.

Women Executives in Education

Women who currently hold the position of superintendent, assistant superintendent or deputy superintendent within a K-12 school system.

Women Executives in Business

Women who hold positions in business with the title of owner, chief executive officer, chairman, assistant chairman, president, vice-president, publisher, or editor.

Population and Sample

The population for this study consists of women in K-12 education and women in business administration within the state of Michigan. In order to obtain a representative sample of this population

the current membership lists from the 1992 Michigan Educational Directory and the Harris Michigan Industrial Guide - 1992 were used.

Seventy one women executives in education with the title of superintendent, assistant superintendent or deputy superintendent were selected from the listing of the 1992 Michigan Educational Directory from a total population of seventy one.

An equal number of women executives in business with the title of owner, chief executive officer, chairman, assistant chairman, president, vice-president, or editor were also selected from the membership of the Harris Michigan Industrial Guide - 1992. The number in the total population was not determined.

It was considered that these titles would provide relative similarities in position and administrative function within both groups.

The data for this study was collected through questionnaires that were mailed to the selected participants from each group. The two questionnaires that were sent were the LEAD - Self by Hersey and Blanchard and a Biographical Questionnaire derived from the work of Northcutt and Benedetti.

The mail questionnaire method was chosen for several reasons. It was not feasible to personally interview the large number of administrators due to the large area of the state of Michigan that is represented by the sample. Also, by mailing a questionnaire the respondents will have time to reflect upon the questions asked to give more complete and thoughtful answers.

Data Tabulation

The results of the LEAD -Self were tabulated and analyzed for each group and each individual. The results of the Biographical Questionnaire were tabulated for each group and analyzed according to the numerous variables.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Overview

This study focused on the leadership styles and career paths of women in educational administration and business administration. A review of the literature was conducted in five interrelated areas: 1. leadership theories 2. women's leadership styles 3. characteristics of successful women administrators 4. career paths of women administrators 5. possible reasons for the comparative lack of advancement for women administrators in both of these areas.

Leadership Theories

Defining what constitutes a leader and what is meant by leadership has no single explanation. Throughout the years a variety of definitions have made their way to the forefront of the literature (Benedetti, 1975):

The leader is one who succeeds in getting others to follow him. (Crowley, 1928, p. 154.)

Leadership is the process of influencing group activities toward goal setting and goal achievement. (Stodgill, 1948, p. 35.)

Leadership is the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives. (Terry, 1961, p. 493.)

Leadership is the process of influencing thoughts, behaviors, and feelings of others in pursuit of common goals. (Cummings, 1971, p. 184.)

Leadership is a process in which an individual takes initiative to assist a group to move toward production goals that are acceptable to maintain a group, and to dispose of those needs of the individuals within the group that impelled them to join. (Boles, 1973, p. 3.)

Leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969, p.60.).

Initial research into leadership theory concentrated on the identification of common inherent leadership traits that could be identified and then applied to given managerial candidates. Various instruments were developed to identify these traits and make the selection of excellent managers routine (Benedetti,1975).

This search for a single model to improve leadership effectiveness is an outgrowth on many studies on leadership trait theory. Trait theory is based on the idea that by identifying the common traits of successful leaders prospective administrative candidates might be compared to that standard. These studies were popular between 1920 and 1950 with the development of psychological testing instruments (Harriman, 1985). The traits most often studied included personality, ability, and physical characteristics (Yukl, 1981). The most common traits found among male leaders included height, high socio-economic status, intelligence, exhibition of superior judgement, decisiveness, knowledge, verbal ability, interpersonal skills, and high achievement skills (Aldag and Brief, 1981). Harriman states that:

. . . these traits are more related to the probability of being selected as a leader than to success as a leader. They may, however, tell us about why women are less likely to be chosen as leaders, since on the average women are shorter than men, and are seen stereotypically as being less intelligent, decisive and motivated. Women are, of course perceived as having good

interpersonal skills, but are not seen as being powerful or influential (1985).

Studies on trait theory have not met with satisfactory results. A study by Bird (1940) found only 5 percent of all traits thought to be related to leadership or success showed up in four or more studies on trait theory. Subsequent studies showed that leadership traits changed from one situation to another and could also be found among followers (Stodgill, 1948). A more recent study by Pfeifer and Shapiro (1978) found no significant differences in male and female personality traits between candidates for Master's degree in Business Administration. In a three year study Harlan and Weiss (1982) found strong similarities between women and men managers. Both groups had definitive career plans or were readily able to identify their strengths or weaknesses. Many men, in fact, had more career problems than had been anticipated. This study suggests that many of the past studies may have compared women's experiences to a male myth rather than to the actual male experience, resulting in skewed conclusions regarding women's career advancement (Harriman, 1985).

Unfortunately, studies on trait theory concluded that no simple identification process could guarantee the selection of those individuals with high leadership potential. Jenkins (1947) examined the literature throughout the 1940's and concluded that trait identification was not an accurate method to determine leadership potential. Stodgill (1948) concurred after a similar study and concluded:

The qualities, characteristics and skills required as a leader are determined to a large ex-by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader. (Stodgill, 1948, p. 63)

A person does not become a leader by virtue of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers. (Stodgill, 1948, p. 64)

Studies of personality traits as an indicator of leadership potential continued into the 1950's. An examination by Myers (1954) of over 200 studies on trait theory brought him to conclude that:

- 1. No physical characteristics are significantly related to leadership.**
- 2. Although leaders tend to be slightly higher in intelligence than the group in which they are members, there is no significant relationship between superior intelligence and leadership.**
- 3. Knowledge applicable to the problem faced by the group contributes significantly to leadership status.**
- 4. The following characteristics correlate significantly with leadership: insight, initiative, cooperation, ambition, originality, persistence, emotional stability, judgement, popularity, and communication skills.**
- 5. Leaders tend to remain leaders only in situations when the activity is similar. No simple characteristic is the possession of all leaders (pp. 105-107).**

Trait theory is no longer accepted as a predictable method of identifying successful managers. While early studies attempted to identify leaders in terms of personality, size and ability, and later theories attempted to distinguish between effective and ineffective

leaders, neither have been successful in identifying a single, definitive profile of an effective leader.

Research by Mann (1959) led him to conclude that successful leaders were not so much born as made by the goals of the groups in which they operated. It is from Mann's conclusion that the situational approach to leadership was formulated. Hersey and Blanchard suggest that "a number of leader behaviors may be effective or ineffective depending on the important elements of the situation" (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969, p. 72).

This, in itself, was not a new concept. Katz (1955) had proposed various behavioral descriptors for different kinds of leadership behaviors and skills: human, conceptual and technical. Human is defined as empathizing, interviewing, leading discussions, participating in discussions, role playing, and reflecting feeling and ideas. Conceptual is defined as visualizing, analyzing, diagnosing, synthesizing, criticizing, and questioning. Technical is defined as speaking, writing, reading, listening, outlining, demonstrating, chairing a meeting, graphing and sketching.

Further work in this area (Bavelas, 1948; Kahn and Katz, 1956; Livingston, 1971) suggested that informal leaders arise to respond to given situations developed from the three skills essential to leadership, opportunity finding, problem finding, and problem solving.

The situational approach to leadership is problematic because it depends solely on the identification of the right situation. Unless the correct situation is found it becomes difficult to determine whether an individual is suited to a leadership role.

The leadership style approach recognizes that leadership styles

can vary from leader to leader (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969,p. 64). The worth of the leader is displayed through various leadership acts that involve both human relationships and tasks (Benedetti, 1975). Lewin, Lippit and White (1939) made one of the earliest attempts to define leadership styles. Although the initial study was conducted with ten year old boys, it has been replicated many times using adults. Their results identified three types of leadership styles: autocratic, democratic, and laissez-faire. The most effective type of leadership style was found to be the democratic because leaders were viewed as being concerned about members of the group.

Bennis (1989) identifies an important distinction between true leadership and those who simply manage. "Leaders are people who do the right thing; managers are people who do things right" (pg.18). Leaders must define measurable goals that are derived from input by members of the community. To achieve these goals they must be allowed to sidestep the bureaucracy that often hinders productivity. Leaders use creativity in themselves and others, risk taking behaviors, and take an attitude of defying failure to achieve these mutually agreed upon goals. He identifies four leadership competencies as found in a group of highly successful leaders found throughout the country. The first is the management of attention in terms of having a sense of direction for the organization by way of goals or outcomes. The second is competency of meaning where leaders are able to communicate their goals to others in the organization and align them to work together. Third is the management of trust. It is an essential ingredient in all organizations in which reliability and constancy are the mainstays. Last is the competency of self, knowing one's strengths

and being able to use them effectively (pgs.21-22).

Bennis identifies the direct benefit of the above leadership competencies as the empowerment of the worker as embodied in four themes:

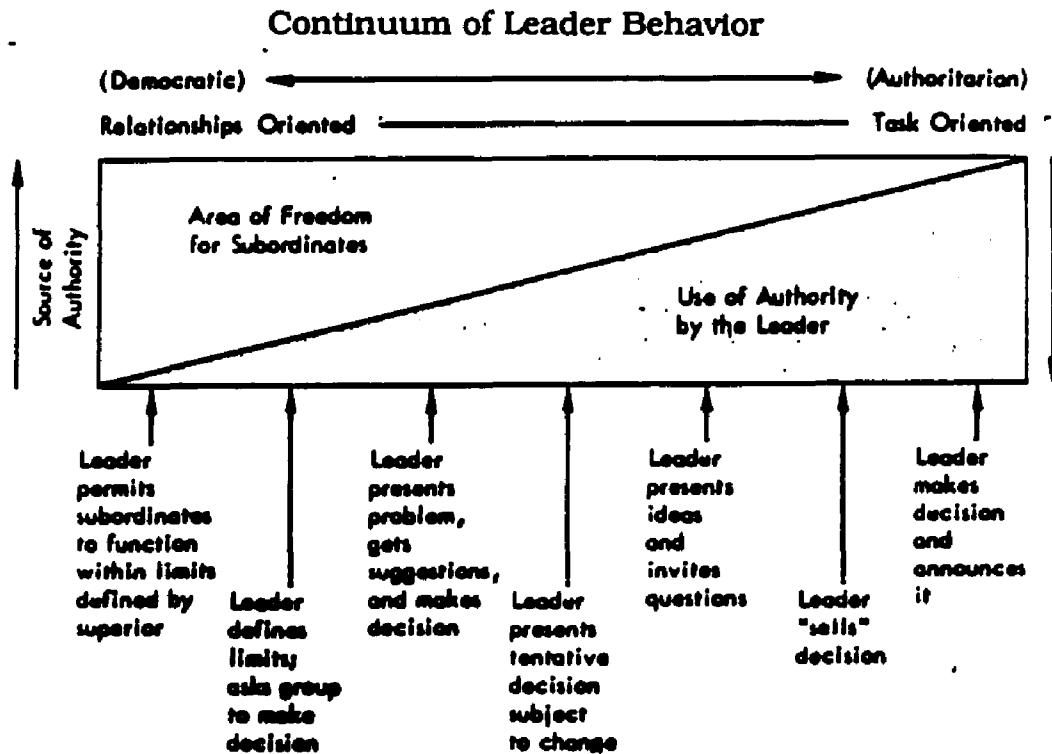
1. People feel significant. Everyone feels that he or she makes a difference to the success of the organization. The difference may be small ... But where they are empowered, people feel that what they do has meaning and significance.
2. Learning and competence matter. Leaders value learning and mastery, and so do people who work for leaders. Leaders make it clear that there is no failure, only mistakes that give use feedback and tell us what to do next.
3. People are a part of a community. Where there is leadership, there is a team, a family, a unity. Even people who do not especially like each other feel a sense of community.
4. Work is exciting. Where there are leaders, work is stimulating, challenging, fascinating and fun. An essential ingredient in organizational leadership is pulling rather than pushing people toward a goal. A "pull" style of leadership attracts and energizes people to enroll in an exciting vision of the future. It motivates through identification rather than through rewards and punishments. Leaders articulate and embody the ideals toward which the organization strives (pg.23).

Bennis notes that "nothing serves an organization better especially during times of agonizing doubts and uncertainties - than leadership that knows what it wants, communicates those intentions, positions itself correctly and empowers its work force" (pg.86).

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) found a wide range of leadership style between the authoritarian and democratic styles of leadership. They refer to the two extremes as manager power and

influence and non-manager power and influence. Managers who are task oriented and make wide use of their power are considered to be authoritarian. Those who use a style of leadership emphasizing relationships and allow workers some decision making power are considered to be democratic. The democratic leader behavior can also include those who establish no rules in the work place and allow the workers to act without the constraints of policy or procedure. This is, in effect, a lack of formal leadership. This continuum of leadership is shown with the figure below.

Figure 1*



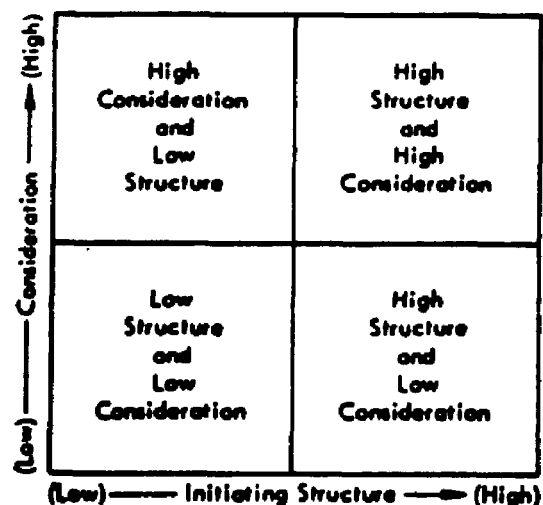
*Source: Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K., Management of Organizational Behavior, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1982.

Studies at Ohio State University have been important in identifying two dimensions of leadership style that are seen as

effective. These studies, beginning in the 1940's, identified Consideration and Initiating Structure as those terms which best described effective managers. Consideration is described as leader supportiveness, friendliness, consideration, consultation with subordinates, representative of subordinate interests, openness of communication with subordinates, and recognition of subordinate contributions. These behaviors are seen as establishing and maintaining good relationships with their subordinates. Terms that describe Initiating Structure include clarifying subordinate roles, planning, coordinating, problem solving, criticizing poor work, and pressuring subordinates to perform better (Yukl 1981).

Figure 2*

The Ohio State Leadership Quadrants



*Source: Hersey, P., and Blanchard, K. Management of Organizational Behavior. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1982.

Blake and Mouton (1964) have taken the concepts of task accomplishment and personal relationships and developed the Managerial Grid which expands on concepts identified in the Ohio State studies. The grid represents five different types of leadership styles contained in the previously identified four quadrants. A rating scale is used to identify behaviors in production (horizontal axis) and concern for people (vertical axis). The five leadership styles are described as follows:

Impoverished - Exertion on minimum effort to get required to get work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

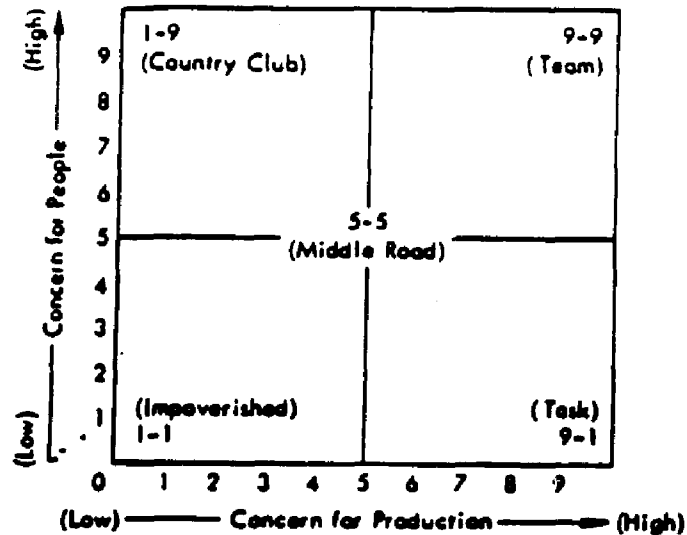
Country Club - Thoughtful attention to the needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly atmosphere and work tempo.

Task - Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

Middle of the Road - Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

Team - Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organizational purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect (pg. 90).

Figure 3*
The Managerial Grid Leadership Styles



*Source: Hersey, P., and Blanchard, K., Management of Organizational Behavior, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1982.

Fiedler (1965) carried this idea one step further as it became apparent that leadership style alone could not explain leader effectiveness. He was one of the first to add the dimensions of situational variables to the leadership style theory. Fiedler, (1967) in the development of the Leadership Contingency Model, cited three situational variables which determine whether a situation is favorable or unfavorable to a leader.

1. The leader's personal relations with the members of the group (leader-member relations)
2. The degree of structure in the task which the group has been assigned to perform (task structure)

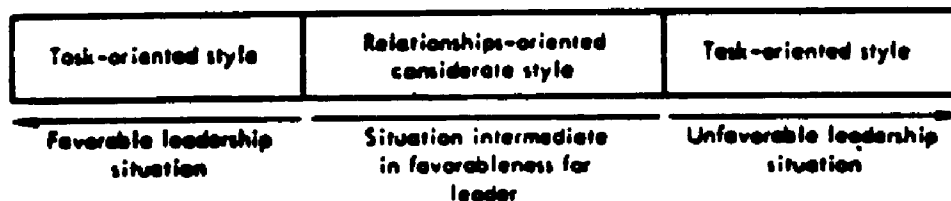
3. The power and authority which his position provides
(position power)

The favorableness of a situation is defined by Fiedler as "the degree to which the situation enables the leader to exert his influence over the group" (Fiedler, 1967, p.13).

Within these three situational variables, there are eight possible combinations that can occur from most favorable to most unfavorable. Fiedler suggests that there are only two types of leader behavior, task-oriented and relationships-oriented leaders. He concludes that task oriented leaders tend to perform best in group situations which are either very favorable or very unfavorable to the leader. Relationship-oriented leaders tend to perform best in situations which are intermediate in favorableness (Fiedler, 1967, p.14).

Figure 4*

Leadership Styles Appropriate to Various Group Situations



*Source: Hersey, P., and Blanchard, K., Management of Organizational Behavior, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1982.

Other leadership acts concerned with both tasks and human relationships were classified by Hemphill (1961) as 1. attempted

leadership acts which are intended to affect the behavior of the group to achieve a given goal; 2. successful leadership acts, which do change the behavior of the group and 3. effective leadership acts, that achieve the goals of the group. It is possible for an individual to use a combination of styles in a given situation to achieve results. The style used may depend on the group itself rather than the leader; individual leadership style is made up of an individual's traits in conjunction with the behavior of a given group (Benedetti, 1975, p.15).

Reddin (1970) in his development of the 3-D Theory, continued to study the effects of integrated leadership styles. It focuses on the idea that there is not one single leadership style, but a variety of styles that adapt to given situations. His model is an eight point typology with three independent variables: Task Orientation (TO) the extent to which a leader directs his/her efforts, Relationship Orientation (RO) the extent to which a leader has personal job relationships, characterized by listening, trusting, and encouraging and Leadership Effectiveness (E) the extent to which the behavior is perceived as appropriate to the demands of the situation (Reddin, 1983, p.50-51). An individual can be rated as being high or low in each of these areas yielding eight possible combinations of leadership style:

1. Separated - (Deserter): low TO, low RO, low E
2. Related - (Missionary): low TO, high RO, low E
3. Dedicated - (Autocrat): high TO, low RO, low E
4. Integrated - (Compromiser): high TO, high RO, low E
5. Separated + (Bureaucrat): low TO, low RO, high E
6. Related + (Developer): low TO, high RO, high E
7. Dedicated + (Benevolent Autocrat): high TO, low RO, high E

8. **Integrated + (Executive): high TO, high RO, high E**

It is clear to see from this typology that a Reddin places a premium on flexibility as the key to effective leadership, whereby an individual uses a variety of styles to match a variety of situations. In doing so, this model is able to meet the individual needs of many organizations who are looking for a single model to improve leader effectiveness.

The Tri Dimensional Leadership Model by Hersey and Blanchard (1982) is also based on the earlier work of the Ohio State Leadership Studies. The terms task behavior and leadership behavior used by Hersey and Blanchard are used to describe the same behaviors as the terms Consideration and Initiating Structure in the Ohio State studies. Leadership style is defined as "the behavior pattern that person exhibits when attempting to influence the activities of others as perceived by those others. This may very well be different from how the leader perceives his or her own behavior, which we shall define as self-perception rather than style. A person's leadership style involve some combination of task behavior and relationship behavior" (pg.96)

The concept of leadership style is defined as follows:

Task Behavior - The extent to which leaders are likely to organize and define the roles of the members of the group (followers); to explain what activities each is to do and when, where, and how tasks are to be accomplished; characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting jobs accomplished.

Relationship Behavior - The extent to which leaders are likely to maintain personal relationships between themselves and members

of their group (followers) by opening up channels of communication, providing socioemotional support. "psychological strokes" and facilitating behaviors.(pg.96)

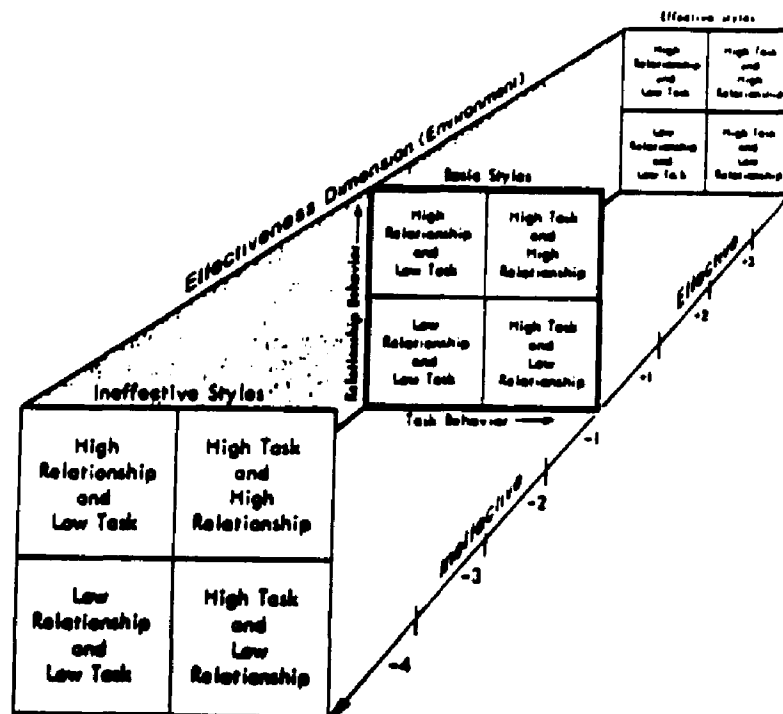
The work of Hersey and Blanchard was greatly influenced by the 3-D Management Style Theory by Reddin who felt that a useful theoretical model "must allow that a variety of styles may be effective or ineffective depending on the situation"(Reddin,pg. 13). The Tri-Dimensional model incorporates the task behavior and relationship behavior components of the Ohio State leadership model by integrating the concepts of situational leadership in specific environments (Hersey and Blanchard, pg.97). According to Hersey and Blanchard, effective leadership depends not only on the behavior of the leader, but the leader's behavior in the particular situation. Therefore, when the style of the leader is appropriate to the situation, it is considered effective; when the behavior is inappropriate, it is considered ineffective. The third dimension of this model is effectiveness, as most often specific performance criteria is used to judge the effectiveness of the leader. The authors feel:

. . .it is important to keep in mind that the third dimension is the environment in which the leader is operating. One might think of the leader's basic style as a particular stimulus, and it is the response to this stimulus that can be considered effective or ineffective. This is an important point because theorists and practitioners who argue that there is one best style of leadership are making value judgements about the stimulus, while those taking a situational approach to leadership are evaluating the response or the results rather than the stimulus (pg.97).

This model stands out because it does not rely on a single leader

behavior to represent all situations. It allows for a flexibility of behavior to meet the demand of whatever situation may arise and takes into consideration time constraints that the leader may be working under (pg.98). The model is represented by the figure below:

Figure 5*
Tri-Dimensional Leader Effectiveness Model



*Source: Hersey, P., and Blanchard, K., Management of Organizational Behavior, Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey: Prentice Hall, Inc., 1982.

Studies concentrating on differences in leadership style as determined by sex have found few differences. Within the male dominated U.S. Air Force, male and female civilian supervisors were found to very similar in term of leader behavior and effectiveness (Day and Stodgill, 1972). In two mental health clinics which were females dominated, researchers found no differences in leadership style as

well as no difference in subordinate satisfaction (Osborn and Vicars, 1976). Although women have traditionally been thought to rate higher on the Consideration scale, corroborating studies have found that women leaders were perceived higher on the Initiating Scale than men leaders (Bartol and Wortman, 1975), and that female leaders' styles have become increasingly task oriented (Chapman, 1975). In turn, men may not be receiving recognition for behavior that rates high on Consideration. "The male potential for empathetic and sympathetic emotional reaction and male potential for kindly, helpful behavior towards other ... is seriously underrated" (Jacklin and Maccoby, 1975, pg.31).

Additional thought must be given to the idea that leadership style may be evaluated differently depending on gender. Bartol and Butterfield (1976) found that college students rated men and women differently when they performed in identical ways. Males were evaluated more favorably than females on Structuring behavior, while females were evaluated more favorably than males on Consideration behavior. In addition, women tend to be judged punitively when had a negative dealing with a male subordinate as well as when they were thought to be too lenient with a female subordinate (Jacobson et al., 1977).

This dual perspective on leadership seems to imply that leadership denotes maleness and that males are assumed to carry out the inherent qualities of leadership (Adler and Izraelie, 1988). They state that:

Everywhere, leadership in general, and
management in general, and management in

particular, are a masculine domain. Managerial roles are filled by men, popular beliefs about the requisites of management are socially constructed from stereotypically masculine traits, and social codes that govern interaction in the managerial arena from the collective experience and interests of men (pg.8).

Leadership Styles of Women

The general perception of women in business until very recently has been a structure that has been dominated by leadership styles that are hierarchical, action-oriented and even quasi-military (Nelton, 1991). The ideal leader was seen as an independent, John Wayne-like character. However, as more and more women enter into leadership roles, women are bringing a consensus building style that is seen as more open and inclusive, more likely to encourage participation by others, and creating a generally more caring atmosphere. This change in leadership style is encouraged by the high numbers of young professionals now entering business organizations. "They demand to participate and contribute. In some cases they have knowledge or talents their bosses don't have" (Rosener, 1991). These kinds of workers are seen as more likely to respond with leadership that provides interactive opportunities. "Today's companies require leaders who are not only risk takers and visionaries, but are also strong enough people that they're capable of hearing the ideas of others and really empowering them to use some of those ideas in changing businesses and making them successful" (Moldt, 1991). Moldt also suggests that women may be more suited to this type of leadership role because they are comfortable with the idea of persuading and motivating individuals while men are more used to giving orders and

expecting to have them followed.

Hoy (1991) sees that female leadership traits can help companies solve three problems in contemporary business: the need for better customer service, the demand for higher quality, and the need for effective leadership. These all can be helped by employing relationship-building skills that women have been shown to use effectively. It will also be necessary to have leaders that will be able to resolve conflicts, encourage team work, and be good listeners. "While these skills are not the sole property of women, research and experience suggest that women are more likely to have them" (pg.17).

Rosener, in a study conducted for the Women's International Forum, found that women tended to use an "interactive" leadership style, which they encouraged the participation of others believing that "... people perform best when they feel good about themselves and their work"(pg.18). This study saw men as using a more traditional "command and control" style, viewing the job as a series of separate "transactions", while giving rewards for assignments well done as well as punishments for less than adequate performances. "While men have had to appear to be competitive, strong, tough, decisive and in control, women have been allowed to be cooperative, emotional, supportive and vulnerable. This may explain why women today are more likely than men to be interactive leaders"(pg.18). Loden (1985) concurs:

In some respects it seems that women managers may be better prepared to cope with the challenges of the workplace than many traditional male leaders who succeeded in the past. For many of the characteristics being touted as critical for future success - concern for

people, interpersonal skills, intuitive management, and creative problem solving - are qualities that women as a group are encouraged to develop and rely on throughout their lives (pg. 19).

It is these very skills that may be allowing women to see some cracks in the glass ceiling, an invisible barrier that has kept women from achieving the top positions within business. Although women and minorities hold 50 percent of the positions in business today, they hold less than 5 percent of the senior management positions. However, some business officials are predicting that women will begin to take these top positions within the next few years (Nelton, 1991). Autry (1991) sees that this breakthrough will come on an industry by industry basis and will focus, at first, on fields where women are already in place in significant numbers, as well as in businesses where women are the primary customer base. Richstone also agrees, noting that women are now only achieving the success that comes from working through the system. Until the 1970's women in large numbers did not attend business school. It is only now that they can expect to take over from leaders who attended business school thirty years ago (Richstone, 1991).

Muldrow and Bayton (1979) in their study looked at ". . . patterns of processes that mediate the performance of a specific managerial task." Male and females groups asked to make a correct personnel promotion decision, were not found to be significantly different. As well, there were no significant differences in dogmatism. However, women were found to be more conservative in risk taking behaviors than men. Interestingly, women showed a stronger identification with the male role than did men on the Personal Attribute Questionnaire.

However, they did not differ significantly in their perceptions in the male female role difference.

A study by Morrison, White and Van Velsor (1987) also found that executive women were more like executive men than different in leadership style. While these women were not less dominant in leadership situations, less able to define and attain goals, handle stress, or be self-disciplined, they were more likely to move in new directions, and behave as individuals. Because of this, executive women are more likely to be viewed as pioneers, having few female role models to emulate. These women walk a constant fine line that includes "such contradictory requirements as taking risks, but being constantly understanding, but not being macho; being ambitious, but not expecting equal treatment; and taking responsibility, but following others' advice. Although men are tested as well, these double messages make life more difficult for women" (Morrison et al., 1987).

The authors found that it was not enough for women to work hard within their organizations. They must take control of their careers, looking toward taking jobs that will place them in positions for advancement, asking for what they want, and avoiding derailment traps. They must learn the ropes, build confidence by taking on challenging new jobs, and be exposed to a wide range of managers. They must also take on a range of successful outside activities, as women are more closely looked at for their ability to integrate home and work activities (Morrison et al., 1988).

Characteristics of Successful Women Administrators

There has been considerable interest in what common personal characteristics are found among successful women administrators. They tend to be thought of as different than men in similar positions, although that has not always been found to be the case.

Moore and Rickel (1980) advance the hypothesis that achievement motivation varies and that women who aspire to non-traditional positions have a higher motivation level than do their traditional counterparts. They found that women in business tended to have spent more time within their organizations than men, as well as saw their domestic role as less important, averaging fewer children. Research by McDade and Drake (1982) points out the women as a group face a special set problems when attempting to advance within their organization. It supported the concept that women must outperform men in order to advance into the same positions. The success that women then achieve by their exemplary effort is seen as extra-ordinary, rather than as a result of ability. If women are viewed as aggressive in the position and in the resulting achievement, this is viewed as a negative behavior. Aggressive behavior, coupled with the supposed emotional instability of women has served to prevent women from obtaining top leadership positions.

In a later study, Northcutt (1991) advanced several hypothesis about successful women administrators. She found that successful career women exhibit a high degree of self-esteem and found no difference in achievement and self-esteem levels between occupational fields or ethnic groups. No relationship between self-esteem and motivation and the variables of age and income were found to be viable.

As well, common personal characteristics were found in different occupational groups. These personal characteristics included a desire to achieve and a high degree of motivation coupled with a positive outlook and high energy. This supports the earlier work of Harlan and Weiss (1982) who state that, "Men and women were found to have very similar psychological profiles of high power and achievement needs, high self-esteem and to be highly motivated to manage." The ability to be flexible and even tempered was considered to be an asset. Successful women were also seen as creative problem solvers, hard working and enthusiastic. These women had strong organization skills, exhibited risk taking behaviors, and had set definite goals for themselves. The women in Northcutt's study defined their success as achieving their goals and receiving recognition for their accomplishments. They were also able to enjoy their work and felt that they were contributing to the success of others.

Successful women were also seen as having excellent interpersonal skills that are useful in becoming productive managers. They are able to work and relate well with others at all levels of the organization, including understanding how others feel and be able to motivate them toward superior performance. They must also be willing to take on jobs in which they may not have experience or to take on a lower grade position that might afford them a better chance at promotion. Many times these women took on positions that had a greater chance of failure or involved a large time commitment because of the opportunity for advancement (Wentling, 1992).

The issue of power is one that must be considered when

discussing the leadership of an organization. "The most important unyielding necessity of organizational life is not better communication, or employees participation, but power" (McMurry, 1973, pg.140). Traditionally, men have held the power within the organization because they were the sole members. "Men acquire a lot of power through default; just because they're male we expect them to hold the reins. Women, . . . have to learn - and often fight for - whatever power they get. All other factors being equal, a woman, simply by being female is less powerful than a man" (Stechert, 1986, p.173).

Haskell (1985) feels that there are certain rules that a woman must follow to gain or increase power within her organization. She must:

1. take her career seriously
2. be especially competent in her job
3. act as if she is important enough to her organization to move up
4. develop credibility by getting things done and getting results
5. develop connections with people who have power
6. have a strong ego
7. be able to take criticism and implement suggestion

By using the above rules, the female manager is able to be seen as an individual and others will not limit their view of her to stereotypical perspectives. It is important that the female manager be seen as part of the team, whose membership enhances the group's performance. This, of course, must be balanced with recognition of one's own accomplishments.

Morrison et al., (1987) recommend four ideals to ensure professional success: to take risks, but be consistently outstanding; to be tough, yet not be macho; to be ambitious, but not expect equal treatment; and to take responsibility, but to listen to the advice of others. An individual is able to achieve this seemingly delicate balance when "individuals ... choose their behavior and modify their actions based upon their own preference and the probability of using the most effective method, not because a specific behavior is acceptable for their gender" (Rizzo and Mendez, 1990, pg.39).

The ascension of women into large numbers leadership roles seems to question the findings of a large study by Eagly and Karau (1991) that found that males focused on agentic (instrumental) behaviors while females focused on communal (expressive) behaviors. They found a tendency for men to emerge as leaders in terms of task related behaviors. Women were more attentive to interpersonal relations and group harmony, and although they received recognition as social facilitators, they received less as overall leaders. However, the authors conclude that:

Despite these probable disadvantages, women apparently have more chance of achieving leadership under certain circumstances - for example, with socially complex tasks, in longer term groups, in groups larger than dyads, and with tasks requiring skills more commonly possessed by women than men. Women with good leadership skills might find it useful to know that they are more likely to emerge as a leader under such circumstances (pg. 705).

Career Paths of Women Administrators

While the leadership style is important in determining the success of an individual within a given field, the career path that an individual takes is important in determining the final position that one will achieve within an organization. Women have traditionally assumed subordinate roles in both business and education. Although advancement has occurred, promotions have not resulted in the top managerial positions being awarded to women. Warner (1987) sees several reasons for women's lack of advancement.

1. A lack of sponsor or mentor is seen to be a significant handicap. A mentor is able to keep the candidate apprised of various situations as well as to represent the candidate within the organization as needed.
2. Family responsibilities early in their career is seen as a career detriment as it prevented women from having those experiences on the job that would directly effect their upward mobility.
3. Women have often not prepared themselves educationally for career advancement. Although more and more women are now pursuing advanced degrees, this is a relatively new phenomenon. As well, additional education is often put off until family responsibilities are less burdensome.
4. Sexual discrimination is still prevalent within the work

place. Although women may be equally qualified for positions, there is still a tendency to select men for top managerial positions.

The career paths that women have followed have often been hampered by myths about their competence in the managerial role. Reif, Newcombe and Monczka (1975) identified myths that include that: 1.) women are more emotional than men, 2.) women are uncomfortable in a man's world, 3.) women work as a hobby, 4.) women exhibit higher absenteeism, 5.) women don't understand statistics. Their study found that, far from supporting these commonly held beliefs, that males and females are more similar than dissimilar in feelings regarding organizational climate. Females tend to view the organization as an integrated whole, while males differentiate between formal and informal organizational concepts and prefer formal organization. They also found that general decisions made about women on the basis of sex were likely to be wrong. In addition, they concluded that it was probably a questionable practice to provide special programs for women to develop as managers. Woman managers were found to have much in common with men and the differences that did exist tended to increase the probability of women functioning well as managers.

The path to the superintendency has not been the same for men and for women. Research by Pavan and D'Angelo (1990) indicates that men are more likely than women to follow a line career path. Two thirds of the female superintendent certificate holders were found in staff positions where their work was directed by line officers. Their

accomplishments were largely unrecognized as the organization only recognizes, for the most part, the accomplishments of the line officer (Dalton, 1959). The majority of male superintendent certificate holders follow line paths that provide longer career path opportunities (Kanter, 1975). This study also suggests that the gender disparity in line/staff patterns may be widening in that from 70% to 94% of women aspiring to administrative positions are following a staff path as opposed to a line path. If women continue to be promoted to staff positions it will decrease their potential mobility into line positions by limiting their visibility and inhibiting their ability to learn administrative skills (Edson, 1988, Pavlicko, 1985). Men tend to move directly from teaching positions into line positions, while females are more likely to be appointed to staff positions before being considered for line positions (Pavan and D'Angelo, 1990).

Even with this additional career step, women are tending to move into superintendencies more quickly than they have in previous decades (Plate, 1980). The jobs they are receiving are concentrated in large urban areas (Mauter, 1980) or in districts having less than 3,000 students (Mertz and McNeely, 1990, Dorner, 1982).

A study by Jones and Montenegro (1982) concurred that school administrators face many external barriers in their search for upward career mobility. They found that women often lacked an influential sponsor, had personal characteristics and abilities incongruent with job demands, and was not involved in a professional network. Training from a large professional organization was found to be influential in helping women make the desired career change. As well, the authors recommend that the careful selection and training of women teachers

may produce long term benefits for sex equity in educational administration.

Mertz and McNeely (1988) found that the career paths of superintendents had several variables. The size of the school district has direct bearing on how the superintendency is achieved. In a schools district of 3,000 or more students, the most common sequence of jobs is teacher, principal, central office, superintendent. In districts less than 3,000 students, individuals will go from teacher to principal to superintendent. They also found that the number of females reaching the superintendency had changed little over a ten year period. In 1972, 1.3% of the superintendencies were held by females; in 1982 1.2% of the same positions were held by women.

Laidler (1982) found in study of Michigan superintendents both male and female, that not one defining career path was evident. There were, however, many identifiable social, academic experiential factors that were common to a majority of the successful candidates. The superintendents identified several major career paths ranging from simple and direct to complex. Laidler concluded that candidates to the superintendency should improve their academic preparation, accept a career bound orientation, seek a wide experiential background, develop a mentorship as well as be an aggressive applicant.

Gender was seen as a definite factor in the career path to the superintendency. In the state of Tennessee women superintendents were found to be, in comparison to their male counterparts:

1. Younger
2. Having fewer years of administrative experience

3. Having more years of teaching experience
4. More likely to have an earned doctoral degree (44% female, 19% male)
5. More likely to have an elementary background
6. Having never coached

The majority of female superintendents in Tennessee were elected rather than appointed and this suggests that this may be the preferred professional route to women who desire a superintendency in states where this is possible. These superintendents were found to have followed a different career path than males. The dominant career paths for female superintendents were equally divided between: teacher to central office supervisor to superintendent (33.3%); teacher to central office supervisor to principal (33.3%); teacher to elementary principal or assistant principal to superintendent (33.3%) (Mertz and McNeely 1988).

A major difference between the two groups was the fact that a majority of male superintendents had held an interscholastic coaching position as well as having been a high school principal. Mertz and McNeely suggest that:

. . . the failure of females to follow the dominant career path may be a serious impediment to their advancement to the top spot in appointed superintendencies. The importance of coaching and high school positions in the career paths of male superintendents suggests the perceived importance of these experiences in the superintendent selection process. Unless the criteria used change, the fact that few females have/get to be high school principals, no less interscholastic coaches, may be a factor in their failure to make greater progress in winning appointment as superintendents.(pg.15)

A later study by Mertz and McNeely (1990) found that successful women administrators have two primary patterns of advancement. The first group believes in the ethic of hard work and expressed a willingness to do whatever it takes to succeed. Within this group most of the women did not actively seek an administrative position, but took advantage of opportunities that became available. They tended to rationalize disappointments about their work. As well, very few of these women indicated that they were assisted by a mentor in achieving their positions. As a whole the group did not feel that they had experienced any overt discrimination in their careers.

The second group also has a strong work ethic and believe that they can find success by actively working toward it. These women identified their desire to be administrators and prepared for that eventuality. They sought positions that would enhance their experience and were confident in their ability to succeed. Women who followed this pattern were identified as being more assertive in their behaviors within the organization, as well as having had a mentor at some time in their career. Some of these women had taken legal steps to obtain their positions, but were perceived as threatening. As a result, they were unlikely to be promoted again within that organization. This group was well aware of discrimination within their organization and felt the need to push the female cause as well as a need to mentor other women.

Both groups of women agreed that as a whole women are not supportive of other women. "Females are critical of other females, more critical than of males, and more open to their criticism." (pg. 17) They agreed that "... the absence of a network of agreement amongst

women to support each other and be effective counterforce to the 'good old boys,' was seen as a major impediment to the advancement of females in administration" (pg.17).

Pavan (1985) also supports the idea that women follow different career paths resulting in fewer women being hired for top positions. Again, males dominated the ranks of the secondary schools administration and progressed directly to the superintendent via line positions. The experience of women came primarily from the ranks of elementary administration and continued through a variety of support positions. The career paths of these women resulted in their being hired at the same rate as men for central office positions but at consistently lower levels.

The discrepancy in hiring results from a number of specific internal and external barriers. These barriers include societal attitudes, family responsibilities, low self confidence, lack of administrative experience, low visibility, low risk taking, and stereotypic expectations. Perhaps most importantly, women perceive more than men that these barriers exist and prevent them from advancing (Pavan, 1985).

Shakeshaft (1986) agrees that the career paths of men and women within educational administration differ. One primary difference may occur in that women may not fit the traditional definition of career. Their responsibilities to the family may lead to an inherently different definition of career. Biklen notes that:

In spite of changes in the force, the opening of fields that were previously more resistant to women, of the addition of women in professional and upper management positions, the structure

of career is based on the ways in which men have been able to live their lives, free from primary responsibility of the family (1985).

Because women have moved in and out of the teaching profession as the needs of their families have dictated, many see teaching as careerless or as a semi-career (Lortie, 1975) because it does not involve a sequence of jobs. "Thus, being a third grade teacher in the same school all of one's working life does not constitute a career ..." (Carlson and Schmuck, 1981). By this definition then, teachers have jobs while only administrators can have careers (Shakeshaft, 1986). Shakeshaft feels that this is an important distinction as:

. . . the literature of the field has tended to present the notion that career paths move along the bureaucratic structure. Many women make clear choices that they don't wish to follow the same paths as men, that they have reasons for choosing other routes. Because of these choices and because of sex discrimination in employment practices in schools, women's career paths in education predominately exist at the teacher level. Growth and experience substitute for movement up the hierarchy. For many women, the climb to the top of the mountain is not even desirable -they would much rather gather around the valleys and rivers, 'where life is really lived' (1986, pg. 65).

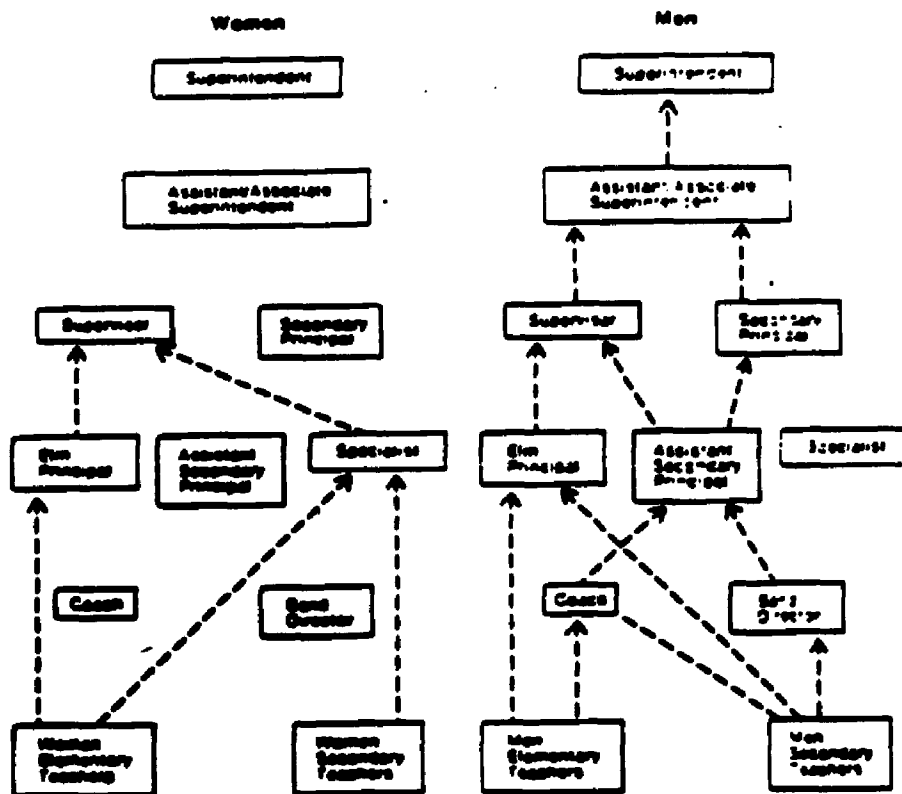
According to Shakeshaft, women do not often consider school administration until they are in their thirties, have borne their children and have pursued graduate work, often during child care leaves. The look toward administration almost always comes at the urging of someone within their school district. The positions achieved are most always staff positions or an elementary principalship. Most women tend to remain in these types of positions rather than pursue

the top positions (1986).

Women who advance to the secondary principalship, assistant or associate superintendent follow career paths that are somewhat different and resemble those of their male colleagues. From a teaching position they move to an assistant principalship or principalship, to assistant superintendent to the superintendency. These moves are generally accomplished without any interruption in their work lives except to gain a doctorate or administrative certification (Shakeshaft, 1986).

Figure 6*

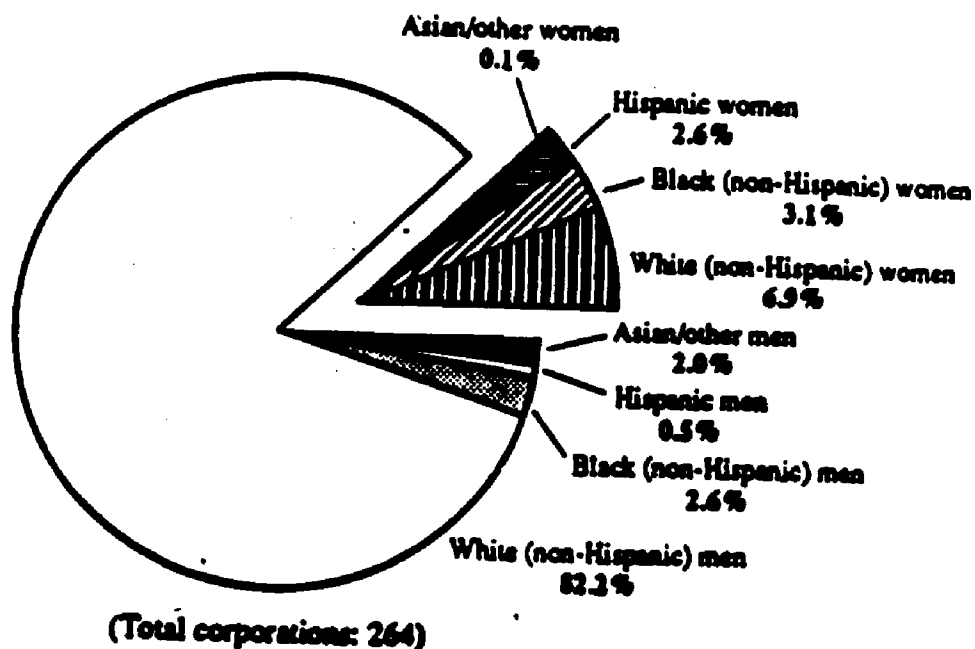
Career Paths of Women and Men Administrators



*Source: Shakeshaft, Charol, Women in Educational Administration. California: Sage Publications, 1986.

This is not to say that women have not made advancement in hiring. Between 1974 and 1985 there was a 93% increase in the number of women chief executive officers. However, these gains are tempered with the fact that in 1985 less than 10% of the presidential appointments were women (Fobbs,1988). Fobbs identifies the problem as that of leadership image. In order to be successful, a role model of behavior is essential to develop a viable self-concept. However, because of the small amount of women in these influential leadership positions, there few for women to emulate (Nieboer,1975).

Figure 7*
COMPOSITION OF BOARDS OF DIRECTORS OF FORTUNE 500 INDUSTRIAL AND SERVICE CORPORATIONS BY SEX AND RACE, 1989 (percent distribution)



*Source: Heidrick and Struggles Communication Department, The Changing Board, 1990.

Research by The Women's Research and Education Institute (1992) suggests that women are beginning to make significant gains in terms the number of businesses owned by women. Since 1977, in

virtually every business category the number of women owned businesses has doubled, with the greatest growth being seen in the areas of services and finance, insurance, and real estate. As of 1987, 30 percent of all business were owned by women, but these business accounted for only 14% of all receipts generated in American business. This is due to the fact that 90 percent of the businesses owned by women are sole proprietorships, with four out of ten having receipts of less than \$5,000 (pg.348).

Figure 8*

NUMBER OF WOMEN-OWNED FIRMS AND PERCENTAGE OF RECEIPTS GENERATED BY WOMEN-OWNED BUSINESSES, 1977 AND 1987

Industry	1977			1987		
	Number of Women-Owned Firms	Percentage of All Firms Owned by Women	Percentage of All Receipts Generated by Women-Owned Firms	Number of Women-Owned Firms	Percentage of All Firms Owned by Women	Percentage of All Receipts Generated by Women-Owned Firms
Construction	21,000	1.9	4.0	94,308	5.7	8.7
Manufacturing	19,000	6.6	9.4	93,960	21.7	13.6
Transportation and public utilities	12,000	2.9	5.7	79,760	13.5	14.3
Wholesale and retail trade	228,000	8.8	8.0	881,209	32.9	19.2
Finance, insurance, and real estate	64,000	4.7	3.2	437,360	35.6	14.4
Services	316,000	8.7	5.9	2,269,028	38.2	14.7
Other	40,000	18.2	5.7	299,150	22.1	11.7
Total, all industries	702,000	7.1	6.6	4,114,787	30.0	13.9

*Source: U.S. Bureau of the Census, Women-Owned Businesses 1977, May 1980, Table E and Women Owned Businesses 1987, August 1990, Tables 1 and 10.

Even with the identification of a successful role model, women are often not taken seriously (Adams, 1975). As well, Adams reported "that in achieving success, the executive women can expect that people with whom she works, both men and women, will resent her

drive, her ambition, and her desire to achieve on the basis of merit." This also reinforces the findings of Kanter (1977) who found that as women ascend the administrative ladder that they are often confronted with feelings of isolation and loneliness.

In a nationwide study of women in the superintendency (Costa, 1981) the typical woman superintendent had maintained an uninterrupted career path, with 65% not having taken a leave of absence. Most of the superintendents had taught less than ten years and averaged nine years of administrative experience. Over half of the women (61%) had held a principalship. This was the first superintendency for the vast majority of the subjects (94.6%). Most had not previously defined the superintendency as a career goal, and had trouble in defining their exact career goal. Sixty one percent experienced obstacles in their promotion due to their sexual discrimination and or lack of self-confidence.

Women in business administration were found to have very different career paths in a study by Newcomb (1985). Instead of a set number of positions being accomplished as with women in school administration, Newcomb found that most of the top positions in business administration were achieved through inheritance, with sponsorship and recruitment the next most common ways of achieving the top executive rank within the organization. The discrepancies between the high number of women in career entry positions and the extremely low numbers of women in top executive positions result from the same dynamics in both sectors: women's disinclination to seek administrative advancement, their immobility, and discrimination against them.

Anderson (1983) sought to identify the personal and professional attributes of women chief executive officers. The results of the study indicated that these successful women had backgrounds that followed a definitive pattern. They were competitive and extremely achievement oriented in a time when this was considered to be atypical. Twelve elements were identified that seemed to contribute to the success of these women: warm, supportive families in which they received a great deal of parental attention; adversity or growth stimulating situations in their early lives; the opportunity to become full, participating family members when they were young; competition in academics, athletics and argumentation as children and adolescents; extracurricular activities that allowed them to practice leadership skills; successful parents whom they admired and sought to emulate; good communication skills; traditional career paths to the presidency; supportive husbands or no husbands; and the integration of team play into their managerial styles. Most of the CEO's felt that they had sacrificed to reach their current positions in terms of time with others, not having children, relaxation, and personal time. Almost all of the women agreed that they had experienced some form of discrimination which they handled through superior job performance, humor, confrontation, charm, or being able to set their personal feeling aside.

In a similar study, Dickson (1988) found significant differences between women in educational administration and business administration in terms of their response to the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire. The leadership styles were found to vary with the occupational field and managerial level of the women

surveyed. Dickson also found differences in the background characteristics of the two groups at both the upper and mid-management levels.

Also in contrast is the entry level position for each group in their respective organizations. Whereas all superintendents came from the professional ranks as teachers, in business, secretary to the chief executive officer was the most common method of entry for women.

Hindrances to Career Advancement

Hennig and Jardin (1977) found common characteristics that prevented women from an advancement career path. They found that women tended to emphasize the self-improvement aspects of their positions rather than traditional "get ahead" attitudes. As well, they tended to pattern their management style on their own self-concept rather than that of their bosses. Women also feel the need to have to continually prove themselves which may lead to fewer risk taking behaviors.

Others see the socialization process as a barrier of women in to management (Larwood, Wood and Inderlied, 1978). Sex role stereotyping is seen to be in conflict with traditional roles. They suggest that men and women need to know each other better to forget stereotypes and to provide role models to show how to structure activities to limit this ongoing conflict. In addition, they propose that women be trained to overcome conflicting role demands, learn skills to better assimilate into peer groups, seek out appropriate role models as well as make a conscious effort to de-emphasize stereotypes.

Perhaps as a reaction against traditional stereotyping, Pounder

(1990) suggests an androgynous approach to educational administrative roles. "An educational leader who serves as a child advocate and who is sensitive to and promotes the cognitive, psychological and social well-being of students is not consistent with a prototype male role. To the degree that these educational and demographic trends persist, the stereotypes of administrative roles may become more and more gender neutral or androgynous" (pg.14). Cimperman (1986) concurs that "... the recent literature on sex role differentiation, leadership, and more specifically, leadership and gender, has supported the concept that an effective leader can not be defined by gender or gender related traits. Leadership theorists have done away with the traditional measurements of leadership competency by masculine traits and have developed genderless instruments to examine leader behavior which do not place women at a disadvantage" (pg.7).

Within the educational setting, Weber, Feldman, and Poling (1981) cite three areas that prevent women from assuming an upwardly mobile career track. They found that both personal and social roles as described in other studies were an inhibitor, as well as long-held discriminatory patterns within educational organizations in terms of training, hiring and promotion. These practices tended to keep women in mid-level management positions and prevented access to career paths that would lead to the superintendency.

Kanter (1985) found three structural restraints to the executive career path. The actual small number of executive women within the organization, makes it difficult to advance many women. As well, many women do not have access to the real power of the organization.

rather their decision making power is limited to a specific area rather than the total organization. In turn, this limited access to power results in little or no informal networking among the power brokers of the organization.

Among those women who do break into top management, Kanter found that many felt that they had to overachieve in order to be accepted. However, at the same time they were overachieving in their position, these successful women felt that they must limit their visibility within the organization for fear of retaliation from their less successful colleagues.

In a ten year longitudinal study, Edson (1988) followed the female administrative aspirant. The study indicates that although more women are being hired into administrative positions, women are still making little progress as compared to men. The large numbers of women entering and maintaining administrative positions has simply not occurred. While this may reinforce the idea that women fear success, Edson disagrees. "Women do not fear success, they fear never having a chance to try."

In terms of leadership potential, both sexes had a tendency not to see the leadership potential in women candidates as it interfered with what was seen as the female primary responsibility, raising children. In addition, all females were affected by the stereotypes of wives and mothers, particularly as presented by the media. Their ability to juggle the dual responsibilities of work and home influenced their success on the job.

Edson found that the employment interview is a problem and that although a woman may be qualified for a position, there is a

tendency on the part of the organization to continue to hire the same type of manager. Similarly, women who are hired may face difficulty gaining acceptance because hiring does not necessarily negate stereotypical attitudes toward women. Women have difficulty finding bases of support within the entire organization, are forced to create their own support systems and rely on sponsorship in order to advance within the organization.

In a study conducted for The Center for Creative Leadership, Morrison, White and Van Velsor (1988) found that although a small minority of women are able to break into top management positions, they face another barrier described as a "wall of tradition and stereotype," which further sets them apart from their male colleagues and keeps them from obtaining senior management positions. " The glass ceiling is not simply a barrier for an individual, based of the person's inability to handle a higher level job. Rather, the glass ceiling applies to women as a group who are kept from advancing higher because they are women" (pg.33). Once in these top positions they must address relentless demands for time on task, the shadow of being a never ending role model for other women, as well as, for many women, assuming the major responsibility for maintaining a home and the rearing of children.

Women who do succeed are able to follow six determinate steps that kept them in line for promotion. These women had help from a mentor, had a record of accomplishments, a strong desire to succeed, the ability to manage co-workers and subordinates, a willingness to take risks, and were able to be tough, demanding and decisive. They were able to avoid judgmental errors, wanting too much for

themselves or others, and not understanding the complexity of certain key issues. Successful executives were able to obtain critical feedback before major problems sidetracked their careers (Morrison et al., 1988).

The authors found that it was not enough for women to work hard within their organizations. They must take control of their careers, looking toward taking jobs that will place them in positions for advancement, asking for what they want, and avoiding derailment traps. They must learn the ropes, build confidence by taking on challenging new jobs, and be exposed to a wide range of managers. They must also take on a range of successful outside activities, as women are more closely looked at for their ability to integrate home and work activities (Morrison et al., 1988).

In terms of career paths, Morrison (1988) found that women face three primary barriers. Because women are usually assigned to staff roles they are unable to advance with the same ease as a person in a line position to top positions. Second, women are often restrained by the levels of expectations at every level and stereotypical views that become more noticeable as women advance farther. Third, whereas women once had male mentors helping them advance within the organization, these same mentors now become competitors for the same few high ranking positions. The authors also stress that women are often faced with exhaustion at continually balancing the demands of career and home.

A later study by Wentling (1992) found many of the same results. Women indicated that increased education was necessary to advance, with a bachelors degree considered to be a minimum. Long hours on

the job was also considered requisite with managers working an average of 53.6 hours per week and most often taking work home. An average of 41.4 days per year is spent on overnight business trips. One manager stressed that "working beyond the standard work week and producing high quality work is viewed favorably by my boss and also gives top management the assurance that they need to invest in my development" (pg.48).

Mentorship was also seen as important in women's career development, with most women relying on several mentors. These mentors provided women with job opportunities and challenges to demonstrate their skills and abilities, offered feedback on their performance, gave them useful advice, shared expertise with them, encouraged them to a high standard of performance, and acknowledged their skills and talents. A majority of the women felt that their mentors had a positive effect on their careers, without which their careers would have been hindered. This confirms an earlier study by Kanter (1977) which found that mentors act as a source of outward and upward influence within the organization (Wentling, 1992).

Wentling also identified several factors that hindered career development. Bosses that are inadequate or insecure are not likely to give critical feedback regarding job performance. Feedback from superiors is necessary so that women can improve their work and potential problems can be adequately addressed before they reach the crisis stage. Women indicated that men who were uncomfortable working with women, or who did not believe in the advancement of women were particularly prone to faulty informal performance

assessments. These managers will verbally assure women of their good performance, only to heavily criticize them in an annual performance review. This confirms a 1982 study by Weiss and Harlan where male supervisors were often unable to give female managers reliable feedback about their job performance.

Wentling suggests ten steps to maximize the human resource of women:

1. Ensure that women receive frequent and specific feedback on their job performance. Women need and want candid reviews of their work. Clearly articulated suggestions for improvement, standards for work performance, and plans for career advancement will make women feel more involved in their jobs and help make them better employees.
2. Accept women as valued members of the management team. Include them in every kind of communication. Listen to their needs and concerns, and encourage their contributions.
3. Give women the same opportunities given to talented men to grow, develop, and contribute to company profitability. Give them the responsibility to direct major projects and plan and implement systems and programs. Expect them to travel and relocate, and to make the same commitment to the company as men aspiring to leadership positions.
4. Give women the same level of counseling on professional career advancement opportunities as that given to men.
5. Identify women early in their careers as potential managers and assist them to advance through developmental activities.
6. Assist women in strengthening their assertion skills. Reinforce strategic career planning to encourage women's commitment to their careers and long-term career plans.
7. Accelerate the development of qualified women through "fast track" programs. Either formally or informally, this method will provide women with the exposure, knowledge, and positioning for career advancement.

8. Provide opportunities for women to develop mentoring or sponsoring relationships with employees. Women do not often have equal or easy access (compared with their male colleagues) to senior employees. The overall goal should be to provide advice, counsel, and support to promising female employees from knowledgeable, senior level men and women.
9. Encourage company co-ed management support systems and networks. Sharing experiences and information with other men and women who are managers provides invaluable support to peers. These activities provide the opportunity for women to meet and learn from men and women in more advance stages of their careers - a helpful way of identifying potential mentors or role models.
10. Examine the feasibility of increasing participation of women in company sponsored planning retreats, use of company facilities, social functions and so forth. With notable exceptions, men are still more comfortable with other men, and as a result, women miss many of the career and business opportunities that arise during social functions. In addition, women may not have access to information about the company's informal political and social systems. Encourage male managers to include women when socializing with other business associates (pg.53-4).

If the above practices can be put into place, perhaps some of the following views as surveyed by Fernandez (1988) can be eliminated. The survey asked 30,000 men and women to agree or disagree with a list of statements involving stereotypical attitudes about women in business. The responses showed that both men and women continue to hold sexist stereotypes about women and pointed out that many traditional attitudes are entrenched in the American work force.

Figure 9*
Stereotypical Statements Regarding Women in Business

<u>Sex Stereotype Statement</u>	<u>Respondents In Agreement</u>	
	<u>Women</u>	<u>Men</u>
Many women obtained their positions only because they are women.....	31%	58%
The increasing employment of women has led to the breakdown of the American family.....	29	49
Pluralism will force us to lower our hiring and promotion standards.....	25	46
Many women use their gender as an alibi for difficulties they have on the job.....	21	39
Many women are not really serious about professional careers.....	19	24
Many women are too emotional to be competent employees in the company.....	7	15

*Source: Fernandez, John P., *New Life for Old Stereotypes*, Across the Board, 25, pg.32-7.

In written statements that accompanied the survey, many participants acknowledged holding stereotyped views, but felt that they didn't allow them to affect their working relationships. However, those surveyed also perceived more discrimination in the work place than was noted in a similar 1978 survey. The three areas where the highest percentage of discrimination was noted by women was:

1. Women must be better performers than men (81%)
2. Women have a harder time finding sponsors (78%)
3. Women are often excluded from informal networks (71%)

The three areas in which the highest percentage of men saw discrimination were:

1. Women face sexual harassment (58%)
2. Women are excluded from informal groups (58%)
3. Women are often excluded from informal work networks (44%)

Later studies also concur that myths about women managers are slowly disappearing. A 1964 Harvard Business Review Poll found that 54% of the men sampled and 50% of women agreed with the statement that "women rarely expect or desire positions of authority." An exact duplicate of the study completed in 1984 found that only 9% of the males and 4% of the females still agreed with that statement. In the twenty year span between studies, women had acquired 33% of the managerial positions while in 1964 they had held only 14%. While this shows a substantial increase in the number of women in management, more than half of the respondents in the later study still felt that women will never be fully accepted in business. The study concluded that:

1. Men, in general, are more willing to accept females as colleagues and see them as competent.
2. People believe that the Equal Employment and Opportunity laws can help women advance in business.
3. Women feel that men are uncomfortable working with women, but men indicate that they are comfortable working with women.
4. Men's attitudes changed more over the twenty year span than did women's.
5. Men continue to earn more than women.
6. Both men and women agree that a female has to be exceptional in order to succeed in business.

Summary

This chapter examined a variety of leadership theories including aspects of the traits approach, the situational approach as well as the leadership styles approach. Its purpose was to provide a comprehensive survey of leadership theories.

The leadership material was followed by an overview of the research available on leadership styles as they pertain to both women in business and women in educational administration. It examines leadership styles that are exhibited by women in both groups as well as contrasts leadership styles used by men in the same fields.

An examination of the various career paths taken by women in educational administration and business administration followed. It revealed the necessity of women obtaining line positions as opposed to staff positions if they wish to advance to the top positions within their organizations.

The problems that women face in advancing their careers concludes the chapter. The hindrances to career advancement include sexual discrimination, failure to find an appropriate sponsor or mentor, as well as sex role stereotyping.

In summary, as more and more women strive toward top executive positions, the leadership styles and career paths of those women who have already achieved this success become a blueprint for others to follow. As women have come to account for more than half of the labor force and will constitute an ever growing part of the managerial pool, then factors inhibiting their full participation in the work place need to be identified and acknowledged. If this can be done, then companies and school districts will be able to broaden their

managerial base with quality candidates (Wentling, 1992). If the leadership styles and career paths can be identified in detail, with specific problems discussed, then we can begin to provide reasonable alternatives for young women to follow as they attempt to meet their career goals (McDade and Drake, 1982).

CHAPTER III DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

It was the purpose of this study to discover and report similarities and differences in leadership styles and career paths between women in educational administration and business administration.

Chapter III includes 1. a description of the population and sample, 2. the measurements used to gather data, 3. the procedures used, 4. the methods utilized to analyze the data, and 5. a summary.

Population and Sample

The population for this study consists of women in educational administration and women in business administration within the state of Michigan. In order to obtain a representative sample of this population the 1992 edition of the Michigan Educational Directory and the 1992 edition of the Harris Michigan Industrial Guide were used.

Women in education listed as Superintendent, Deputy Superintendent, or Assistant Superintendent were selected from the Michigan Educational Directory. As the total population of this group only numbered seventy one, the entire population was included in the study.

Women in business listed as owner, chief executive officer, chairman, assistant chairman, president, vice president, publisher, or editor were selected from the Harris Michigan Industrial Guide. The sample was selected from organizations whose population that was

larger than twenty five members. As well, those women who were a part of an obvious family business were excluded from the sample as it could not be determined that they would have followed the same type of career path as non-family members.

It was considered that these titles would provide for relative similarity in administrative situations in both occupational groups. A sample group numbering seventy one from each category, women in education and women in business, was deemed appropriate for this study.

The Measurements

The data for this study were collected through questionnaires mailed to the selected sample group. Two questionnaires were sent. the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Questionnaire (LEAD) and a biographical questionnaire derived from the work of Northcutt and Benedetti.

The mail questionnaire method was chosen for several reasons. it was not feasible to personally interview the large number of administrators due to the large area of the state of Michigan that is represented by the sample. Also, by mailing a questionnaire the respondents have time to reflect upon the questions asked to give more complete and thoughtful answers.

Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description

The LEAD - Self is designed to measure self-perception in three areas of leader behavior: 1. style, 2. style range and, 3. style adaptability. The instrument contains twelve situations in which the

respondents are asked to select four alternative actions: High task/low relationship behavior, low task/high relationship behavior, high task/high relationship behavior, and low task/low relationship behavior (Hersey and Blanchard, 1982).

The instrument was selected because 1. it is self-administered, 2. responses are made by the administrator selected rather than by a superior or subordinate and, 3. the instrument has been tested used a variety of empirical and psychometric tools in order to establish the reliability and validity of the LEAD - Self.

The LEAD - Self was standardized using the responses of two hundred sixty four managers, ranging in age from twenty one to sixty four. They represented a variety of managerial levels: thirty percent were entry level; fifty five percent were middle management; and fourteen percent represented high levels of management. The twelve item validities for the adaptability score ranged from .11 to .52, and ten of the twelve coefficients (eighty three percent) were .25 or higher. Eleven coefficients were significant beyond the .01 level and one was significant at the .05 level. Each response option met the operationally defined criterion of less than eighty percent in respect to selection frequency. During the validity trials, seventy five percent of the managers maintained their dominant style and seventy one maintained their alternate style during a six week period. As well, the contingency C were both .71 and each was significant (Greene, 1975).

The LEAD recognizes two types of behavior, task and relationship. Task behavior is defined as the extent to which a leader is likely to organize and define the roles of the members of his group: to explain what activities each is to do as well as when where, and how

tasks are to be accomplished. It is also characterized by endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication and ways of getting jobs accomplished (Hersey and Blanchard, 1981).

Relationship behavior is defined as the extent to which a leader is likely to maintain personal relationships between himself and the members of his group by opening up the channels of communication, delegating responsibility and giving subordinates an opportunity to use their potential. It is characterized by socio-emotional support, friendship and mutual trust (Hersey and Blanchard, 1981).

The Northcutt/Benedetti Biographical Questionnaire

A revised version of the Northcutt/Benedetti Biographical Questionnaire were used in this study. It is designed to elicit information in three areas: 1. career paths of each administrator; 2. professional characteristics of each of the respondents; 3. personal characteristics and background information of each woman. The responses were treated statistically and were used to facilitate interpretation of the data.

The rationale for the questions included in this questionnaire is included below:

Group I: Personal Characteristics. Question two, three, four, five, six, seven, seventeen, twenty were designed to gather personal characteristics and background data for each woman and to establish a response pattern indicative for each groups of administrators.

Group II: Professional Characteristics. The professional characteristics for each group was assessed by questions one, eight nine, ten, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, and sixteen. These questions were

expected to contribute to the professional descriptions indicative of each group of administrators.

Group III: Opinions. Questions eighteen and nineteen were intended to allow the women administrators an opportunity to give their opinions about their careers as administrators.

The above questions were treated statistically and were used to facilitate the interpretation of the data.

Research Questions

1. What are the similarities or differences in leadership styles between women in educational administration and women in business administration?
 - a. Do women in educational administration have different leadership styles than their female colleagues in business administration?
 - b. Are the groups comparable in terms of educational and/or leadership training?
2. What are the similarities or differences in career paths between women in educational administration and those in business administration?
 - a. Do both groups have comparable career paths?
 - b. Did the groups take similar career paths as compared to men within their respective organizations?
3. How do women achieve the top positions within their organization?
4. What common behavioral descriptors can be attributed to each group?

- a. Are the groups similar in terms of age, number of siblings, marital and family status?
 - b. How do the groups compare in terms of salary, size of their organization, and feminist affiliation?
 - c. Is one group more mobile in terms of frequency of job moves?
5. What have been the most important influences in obtaining their current position?
 6. What common problems in administration do the two groups share?
 7. How does the information gathered in this study compare with earlier studies?

Procedures

Administrators selected for this study received a cover letter and copies of the surveys with a stamped, self-addressed envelope, enclosed. The cover letter explained that this research project was under the supervision of the Administration and Organization, College of Education, Wayne State University. (See Correspondence) It also explained the purpose of the study and asked them to complete the instruments, assuring them of the confidentiality of their responses. Upon return, names were deleted from the questionnaires and each respondent was assigned an identifying number and letter that was only used to distinguish between the two groups. Names were only used for those individuals who requested an abstract of the study. This was tabulated from question twenty one of the biographical questionnaire.

The survey packets were sent out on December 17, 1992 with the return of the documents requested by January 2, 1993. Follow-up letters to non-respondents were sent during the week of January 4, 1993, to insure a high response rate. As the instruments were returned, the researcher checked them for accuracy as well as to prepare them for coding and input into a data file.

Once all of the instruments had been returned and entered into a data file, a statistical analysis was made. The demographic, professional and personal characteristics were also tabulated.

Methods of Analyzing the Data

The methods of analyzing the data were chosen according to the research questions that was to be answered.

Analysis of the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description

The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description yields three scores, one for Primary Style, one for Style Adaptability, and one for Style Range. Each scale is tabulated for a composite score, therefore each administrator has three individual scores.

The scores for each group of women were then compiled to determine if a pattern emerged. These scores were analyzed according to means and standard deviations and are reported in Chapter IV.

Analysis of the Northcutt/Benedetti Questionnaire

Descriptive and analytical statistics were used to illustrate the data gathered by the biographical questionnaire. The data were compiled for each group of women to determine if a pattern was present. Each variable was analyzed to compare significant differences

between the two administrative groups. These are presented in Chapter IV.

Summary

Chapter III contains a discussion of the methods and procedures used in this study. It contains the definition of the population, the method for developing the sample, a description of the instruments used, the procedure used to obtain the data, and a review of the procedures used for analyzing the data.

CHAPTER IV

REPORT OF THE FINDINGS

Analysis of the Data

It is the purpose of Chapter IV to present and analyze the data gathered to answer the research questions posed in the study. The chapter is divided into the following sections: 1. Composition of the study, 2. Statistical procedures used, 3. Presentation of the biographical data, personal and professional characteristics, and 4. Presentation of the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description data.

Composition of the Study

Participants in this study were 71 women holding positions in educational leadership, who were selected from the Michigan Educational Directory, and 71 women holding leadership positions in business, who were selected from the Harris Michigan Industrial Guide. These 142 women were asked to respond, by mail to two questionnaires, a biographical questionnaire and the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description. These two instruments were used to gather data for this study. Table 1 summarizes the responses to the mail questionnaire.

Table 1

Responses to the Mail Questionnaire								
	EDUCATION				BUSINESS			
	Biographical		L		Biographical		L	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
Complete	43	60.6	43	60.6	28	39.4	28	39.4
Retirees	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Returned								
Unfilled or								
Unusable	1	1.4	1	1.4	1	1.4	1	1.4
Undelivered	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Not Returned	27	38.0	27	38.0	42	59.2	42	59.2
Total	71	100.0	71	100.0	71	100.0	71	100.0

Two questionnaires, one in each group, were returned by the respondent, or another employee, unfilled with explanation. The educational respondent was no longer employed by that school district and the business respondent declined to participate in the survey. No questionnaires were returned by the postal service and it can be assumed that all were delivered as addressed.

Statistical Procedures Used

The statistical procedure used in this study was the Chi-square X^2 analysis. This analysis is employed to determine whether two variables are related or independent.

Descriptive techniques were also used to determine answers for biographical research questions relating to: Question 18, which dealt with the respondents' perceptions as problems related to being a women administrator, and Question 19, which dealt with the most influential factors in their career advancement.

Presentation of the Biographical Data

A brief description of the women respondents in education and business used in the study is presented in Table 2. The average women respondent in this study is 45 years of age. She has some graduate school, has been in her field for 20 years and in her current position for four years. She is Anglo, married, and has two children. A mentor has been influential in her career which she considers to be successful. In terms of career advancement, she anticipates staying in the same position, but if offered the top position in her own or another organization would accept it without hesitation. Her annual salary range is between \$81,000 and \$100,000. The average number of employees in her organization is 408.

Table 2

**Profile of Selected Variables of Average
Women Administrators Respondents**

Selected Variable	Average Respondent
Age	45 Years
Education	B.A.+
Time in Field	20 Years
Time in Current Position	4 years
Ethnicity	Anglo
Marital Status	Married
Number of Children	2
Annual Salary Range	\$81,000- \$100,000
Average Size of Organization	408 Employees

There do not appear to be significant differences in the age

groups of the women administrators as shown in Table 3. In education, 46.5 percent of the women were recorded in the category of 46-55 years of age. However, women in business recorded 46.4 percent in the 36-45 years of age category. Although there appear to be age differences between the two groups of women, the chi square value of 8.96665 shows that there was no significant age difference.

Table 3

Ages	Ages of Women Administrators				Chi Square Value
	Education		Business		
	F	%	F	%	
25-35	0	0	4	14.3	
36-45	15	34.9	13	46.4	
46-55	20	46.5	7	25.0	
56-65	6	14.0	3	10.7	
Over 65	2	4.7	1.	3.6	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	8.96665*

* not significant at $p_1 (df4) = .06194$

The number of years in their individual professions is described in Table 4. In education, 27.9 percent of the women administrators had been in their field in a range of 16 to 20 years. Twenty one to twenty five years of service was recorded by 25.6 percent of the educational respondents. An equal percentage, 25.6, was indicated by the educational leaders for 26 to 30 years in their profession. Seven percent of the respondents had practiced their career between 31 and 35 years. Only 4.7 percent had over 36 years in their field. In business, 32.1 percent of the women indicated they had been in their field between 16 and 20 years. This was followed by 28.6 percent of the business women who reported 11 to 15 years of service. Twenty one to twenty five years in their profession was reported by 17.9

percent of the women business leaders. This was followed by 10.7 percent of the business women who had worked in their field between 6 to 10 years. Zero percent of the business women had between 26 to 30 years in their field or between 31 to 35 years. Only 3.6 percent had over 36 years of experience in their field. The chi square value 22.28185 was considered significant to a p value of .00227

Table 4

Number of Years	Number of Years in Profession of Women Administrators				Chi Square Value
	Education		Business		
	F	%	F	%	
1 to 5 years	0	0	2	7.1	
6 to 10 years	3	7.0	3	10.7	
11 to 15 years	1	2.3	8	28.6	
16 to 20 years	12	27.9	9	32.1	
21 to 25 years	11	25.6	5	17.9	
26 to 30 years	11	25.6	0	0.0	
31 to 35 years	3	7.0	0	0.0	
over 36 years	2	4.7	1	3.6	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	22.28185*

*significant at pl (df7) = .00227

Table 5 reports the number of years women educational and business leaders have held their current positions. Educational women, 69.8 percent, have been in their current position between 1 and 5 years. This was followed by 23.3 percent of the women educators who had been in position from 6 to 10 years. Only 6.9 percent of the women educators had held their current position 11 or more years. Business women, 39.3 percent, have been in their current position between 6 and 10 years. This was followed by 35.7 percent of the women business leaders who have been place between 1 and 5 years. A smaller percentage, 14.3, have held their positions between

11 and 15 years. Only 10.7 percent of the business leaders have held their current position 16 or more years. The chi square value of 9.43297 was not considered significant.

Table 5

**Number of Years in Current Position for
Women Administrators**

Number of Years in Positions	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
1 to 5 years	30	69.8	10	30.7	
6 to 10 years	10	23.3	11	39.3	
11 to 15 years	1	2.3	4	14.3	
16 to 20 years	1	2.3	2	7.1	
over 20 years	1	2.3	1	3.6	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	9.43297*

*not significant at p (df4) = .05114

The educational levels of the respondents in education and business are considered in Table 6. A Doctorate was held by 54.8 percent of the educational women, with 35.7 percent holding a Masters degree. A Bachelor degree was held 4.8 percent and an Educational Specialist degree by 2.4 percent. Only one educational respondent, 2.4 percent, had only a high school diploma. Women in business, 46.4 percent held a Bachelor degree, with 25.0 percent having a Masters degree. In business, 17.9 percent of the business leaders terminated their formal education with a high school diploma. An Educational Specialist degree was held by 7.1 percent of the business women, with 3.6 percent completing an Associates degree. None of the business respondents held a Doctorate. The chi square value of 36.64141 was considered significant to a p value of .00000.

Table 6

Highest Educational Degree Attained by Women Administrators					
Highest Educational Degree	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
High School	1	2.4	5	17.9	
Associate	0	0	1	9.6	
Bachelor	2	4.8	13	46.4	
Master	15	36.7	7	25.0	
Ed. Specialist	1	2.4	2	7.1	
Doctorate	23	54.8	0	0.0	
Total	42	100.0	28	100.0	36.64141*

*significant at $p_1 (df_4) = .00000$

The largest percentage of women administrators in education, 46.5 percent, were married as shown on Table 7. Sixteen percent indicated that they were divorced, while 7 percent recorded that they were widowed. Those who were re-married were 9.3 percent of the sample group as were those who had never married. In business, 50 percent of the women administrators indicated they were married. Twenty five percent of this sample group indicated they had divorced, while 0 percent indicated they were widowed. Those who had never married comprised 10.7 percent of this group. When the data were statistically analyzed, the chi square value of 3.77386 was not found to be statistically significant to the p value of .58241.

Table 7**Marital Status of Women Administrators**

Marital Status	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Married	24	55.8	14	50.0	
Divorced	7	16.3	7	25.0	
Separated	1	2.3	0	0.0	
Widowed	3	7.0	0	0.0	
Re-married	4	9.3	4	14.3	
Never Married	4	9.3	3	10.7	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	3.77386*

*not significant at $p_1 (df_5) = .58241$

Table 8 summarizes the data in regard to the number of children had by each group of women administrators. It is apparent that in both groups of women over eighty percent have two or less children; 25.6 percent of the women in education have no children, while 42.9 percent of the business group have none; 21 percent of the education group have one child, while the women in business reporting an almost equal number at 21.4 percent. Those reported having three or four children are as follows: women in education, 2.3 percent and 11.6 percent respectively; women in business, 7.1 percent had three children and 0 percent had four children. Only 2.3 percent of the women in education indicated they had five or more children. In contrast, 10.8 percent of the women in the business group indicated they had five or more children. The chi square value of 9.40 is not significant.

Table 8

Number of Children of Women Administrators					
Number of Children	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
None	11	25.6	12	42.9	
1	9	21.0	6	21.4	
2	16	37.2	5	17.9	
3	1	2.3	2	7.1	
4	5	11.6	0	0.0	
5	1	2.3	1	3.6	
6	0	0.0	1	3.6	
7	0	0.0	1	3.6	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	9.40*

*not significant at $p(1) (df6) = .15194$

Table 9 contains a description of the number of siblings for each group. The majority of women in education, 84.3 percent, indicated that they had three or fewer siblings; women in business reported that 53.8 percent had three or fewer siblings. In education, 5.3 percent women administrators responded that they had four siblings, contrasting 23.1 percent of women in business. Only 8.4 percent of the women in education had five or more siblings in their family, while 22.9 percent of women in business reported coming from a family with five or more siblings. The differences in the number of siblings between both groups was not found to be significant with a chi square value of 12.55019 to the p value of .12829.

Table 9**Total Number of Siblings of Women Administrators**

Number of Siblings	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
0	5	11.6	2	7.1	
1	6	13.9	5	17.9	
2	18	41.9	4	14.2	
3	8	18.6	5	17.9	
4	2	4.7	6	21.4	
5	1	2.3	2	7.1	
6	2	9.7	1	3.6	
7	0	0	1	3.6	
8	0	0	1	3.6	
9	1	2.3	1	3.6	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	12.55019*

*not significant at p (df) = .12829

In terms of sibling order within the family, Table 10 shows that 54.2 percent of the women in education noted that they had one sibling older than themselves. Women in business also indicated, 55.0 percent, that they had one older sibling. Two older siblings were found in 37.5 percent of educational administrators, and in 20.0 percent of the business administrators families. Only 8.4 percent of the women in educational administration reported having three or more older siblings, while 25.0 percent of the women in business administration noted that they had three or more older siblings. These differences were not found to be statistically significant with a chi square value of 3.42105.

Table 10**Number of Siblings Older Than Women Administrators**

Number of Older Siblings	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
1	13	54.2	11	55.0	
2	9	37.5	4	20.0	
3	1	4.2	2	10.0	
4	1	4.2	2	10.0	
5	0	0	1	5.0	
Total	24	100.0	20	100.0	3.42105*

*not significant at $p1 (df4) = .48998$

Table 11 indicates the number of siblings younger than each of the respondents. Women in educational administration responded that 41.4 percent had one sibling younger than themselves. Women in business administration reported that 23.5 had a single younger sibling. Two younger siblings were recorded by 34.5 percent of women educators and 23.5 percent of the women business leaders. Three younger siblings were had by 13.8 percent of the educational leaders and 17.6 percent of the business women. In contrast, only 10.3 percent of the women in education indicated having three or more younger siblings compared with 35.3 percent of women in business who noted having three or more younger siblings. This difference in the number of younger siblings was not found to be significant having a chi square value of 6.20620.

Table 11**Number of Siblings Younger Than Women Administrators**

Number of Siblings	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
1	12	41.4	4	23.5	
2	10	34.5	4	23.5	
3	4	13.8	3	17.6	
4	2	6.9	3	17.6	
5	0	0.0	2	11.8	
6	1	3.4	1	5.9	
Total	29	100.0	17	100.0	6.20620*

*not significant at $p(5) = .28667$

Moving to the data on ethnicity, Table 12 shows that the majority of respondents in both groups were Anglo, as indicated by 76.2 percent of the educational women and 78.6 percent of the business women. Native Americans were found in 7.1 percent of the educational leaders and 16.7 percent of the business leaders. Black Americans were represented by 9.5 percent of the women in educational administration and 3.6 percent of the women in business administration. Only 2.4 percent of the educational women were Asian; no business women, 0 percent, indicated Asian as their ethnic group. Other ethnic groups were found in 4.8 percent of the educational respondents and 7.1 of the business respondents. The ethnic groups were not found to be statistically different as shown by the chi square value of 1.92901.

Table 12

Ethnicity of Women Administrators					
Ethnic Group	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Native American	3	7.1	3	16.7	
Asian	1	2.4	0	0	
Black	4	9.5	1	3.6	
Anglo	32	76.2	22	78.6	
Other	2	4.8	2	7.1	
Total	42	100.0	28	100.0	1.92901*

*not significant at p (df4) = .74881

The statistics for the use of a mentor by women administrators are presented in Table 13. Educational administrators were assisted by mentors as indicated by 97.6 percent of the respondents. In contrast, only 63.0 percent of the business administrators reported that they had been aided by a mentor. This was found to be statistically significant with a chi square value of 14.72992 to the p value of .00012.

Table 13

Use of Mentor in Career by Women Administrators					
Response	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Yes	41	97.6	17	63.0	
No	1	2.4	10	37.0	
Total	41	100.0	27	100	14.72992*

*significant at p (df1) = .00012

Table 14 reports the responses of each group of women as to the sex of the mentor that assisted them in career advancement. Women in education indicated that 59.5 percent of the mentor assistance was

provided by men. Female assistance was given to 16.7 percent of the educational women. Both male and female mentors aided 23.8 percent of the women in this same group. In terms of business, male mentors helped 83.3 percent of the women in this group. Business women reported that 16.7 percent of this same help came from females. No one in business, 0 percent, indicated that they received assistance from both males and females as mentors. Although women in education had more assistance by both male and female mentors, this was not found to be statistically significant with a chi square value of 5.35714 compared to the p value of .066866.

Table 14

Women Administrators Assisted by Mentors

Type of Mentor	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Male	25	51.5	15	83.3	
Female	1	6.7	3	16.7	
Both Male and Female	16	23.8	0	0	
Total	42	100.0	18	100.0	5.35714*

*not significant at $p(1, df2) = .066866$

The ranking of career success by women administrators is presented in Table 15. Women in education ranked themselves, 65.1 percent, as extremely successful. The ranking of successful was given by 27.9 percent of the women educators. Only 8.0 percent of the educational leaders saw themselves as moderately successful or unsuccessful. In contrast, 32.1 percent of the women in business ranked themselves as extremely successful, while 67.9 percent saw themselves as successful. None of the business leaders, 0 percent, indicated they were moderately successful or unsuccessful. The chi

square value of 11.69016 is significant at a p value of .00852.

Table 15

Ranking of Career Success by Women Administrators

Type of Success	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Extremely Successful	28	65.1	9	32.1	11.69016*
Successful	12	27.9	17	61.1	
Moderately Successful	2	4.7	0	0	11.69016*
Unsuccessful	1	2.3	0	0	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	11.69016*

*significant at $p_1 (df_5) = .00852$

Table 16 depicts the number of women leaders in education and business who felt their family commitments kept them from being exemplary in their field. Only 2.4 percent of the women educators strongly agreed that family commitments kept them from outstanding success in their field. Some, 9.8 percent, agreed that they had been hampered by their families. Thirty four percent disagreed with the idea that their families had hindered their success, while a majority of the women educators, 53.7 percent strongly disagreed that their family commitments had hindered their career advancement. None of the business women, 0 percent, strongly agreed with the idea that family commitments had prevented their career advancement. Some, 14.8 percent, agreed that family had prevented some career success. The majority, 59.3 percent, disagreed that family had prevented their success, while 25.9 percent strongly disagreed with this idea. The chi square value of 6.27560 was not significant.

Table 16

Family Commitment Prevents Success of Women Administrators					
Degree of Agreement	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Strongly Agree	1	2.4	0	0	
Agree	4	4.8	4	14.8	
Disagree	14	34.1	16	54.3	
Strongly Disagree	22	53.7	7	25.9	
Total	41	100.0	27	100.0	6.27560*

*not significant at $p(df3) = .09894$

Table 17 describes the various career paths that the women in education and business have taken to obtain their current leadership positions. It is easily seen that they have followed dissimilar paths, as influenced by their entry level positions into their respective organizations. While the majority of women in education, 88.3 percent, entered their organizations as certified professionals, only 39.3 percent of the women in business entered their organizations as professionals.

The individual career paths of the respondents in education shows that many, 44.2 percent, obtained their current positions by following a career path that began as a secondary certified teacher, proceeded to a staff administrative position before advancing into a line administrative position. Those that began their careers with elementary certification, advanced through staff positions, to line administrative positions, represented 16.3 percent of the educational respondents. Only 11.6 percent of the educational leaders advanced from an elementary certified position directly into a line administrative role. The same percentage, 11.6, held true for those with secondary certification. Those entering the educational

profession as non-certified personnel, represented only 11.7 percent of the educational respondents. Of those, 7.0 percent went from a non-certified position directly to a line administrative position. Non-certified personnel who advanced from a staff position to a line position represented 4.7 percent of the educational sample group.

In contrast to education, the majority of the successful business leaders, 46.4 percent, entered their organizations as non-professionals and advanced to staff administrative responsibilities followed by line administration. Twenty five percent of the women business leaders began in professional positions and advanced into line administrative positions. Professional positions, followed by staff responsibilities and then line leadership represents 14.3 percent of the business women respondents. Similarly, 10.7 percent of the business women followed a career path that began in a non-professional position and advanced directly into a line administrative position. The career paths of women in educational administrative positions and women in business administrative positions was found to statistically significant with a chi square value of 2.47998 compared to the p value of .00000.

Table 17**Career Paths of Women Administrators**

Type of Career Path	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Elementary Certified Staff Position	7	16.3	0	0	
Elementary Certified Line Position	5	11.6	0	0	
Secondary Certified Staff Position	19	44.2	0	0	
Secondary Certified Line Position	5	11.6	0	0	
Non-Certified Line Position	3	7.0	0	0	
Non-Certified Staff Position	2	4.7	1	3.6	
Non-Professional Staff Position			13	46.4	
Non-Professional Line Position			3	10.7	
Professional Staff Position			4	14.3	
Professional Line Position			7	25.0	
No Response	1	2.3			
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	68.20814*

*significant at pl .05 (df) = .00000

Table 18 depicts the career advancement plans of women in education and business administrative positions. In education, 58.1 percent of the respondents indicated they anticipated staying in the same position, while 34.9 percent indicated they would seek a higher

or more responsible position. Only 2.3 percent said they would accept a less responsible position. In business, 75.0 percent indicated they would look to remain in their same position, with 21.4 percent looking to obtain a higher position. The chi square value of 2.47998 was not significant.

Table 18

Anticipated Job Change by Women Administrators

Anticipated Change	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Obtaining High Position	15	34.9	6	21.4	
Obtaining Lesser Position	1	2.3	0	0	
Staying in Same Position	25	53.1	21	75.0	
No Response	2	4.7	1	3.6	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	2.47998*

*not significant at $p_1 (df3) = .47892$

The tabulation of Table 19 represents the willingness of the respondents to accept the top position within their or another organization. In education, 34.1 percent of the women reported that they would accept a top position without hesitation. This was followed by 26.8 percent of educational respondents who said they would decline the offer. Women who would hesitate, but probably accept are represented by 19.5 percent of the educational respondents, while 14.6 percent of the educational women would accept the position with reservations. In business, 32.1 percent of the women would accept the positions without hesitation. Others, 21.4 percent, would hesitate

but probably accept an advancement opportunity. Women who would accept the position with reservation are represented by 17.9 percent of the sample group as are those who would decline the offer. The chi square value of 1.51860 was not significant.

Table 19

**Willingness to Accept Top Position
Within an Organization by Women Administrators**

Degree of Willingness	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Accept with no hesitation	14	34.2	4	32.1	
Accept with hesitation	6	14.6	5	17.4	
Hesitate but accept	8	19.5	6	21.4	
Decline offer	11	26.8	5	17.4	
No response	2	4.9	8	16.7	
Total	41	100.0	28	100.0	1.51860*

*not significant at $p_1 (df4) = .82341$

Women in education and business were asked to respond as to their satisfaction in terms of their financial compensation in Table 20. Women in education, 44.2 percent, felt they were well compensated for their work, with 25.6 percent of the women responding that they were extremely well compensated for their efforts. Those that felt they were satisfactorily compensated made up 23.3 percent of the educational group. Only 7.0 percent felt that they were unsatisfactorily compensated for their work. Business women, 59.3 percent, felt that they were well compensated for their efforts, with 25.9 percent responding that they were extremely well compensated. Eleven percent felt their compensation was satisfactory, with only 3.7 percent

feeling their compensation was unsatisfactory. The chi square value of 2.3260 was not significant.

Table 20

Financial Compensation of Women Administrators					
Amount of Compensation	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Extremely well Compensated	11	25.6	7	25.9	
Well Compensated	19	44.2	16	59.3	
Satisfactorily Compensated	10	23.3	3	11.1	
Unsatisfactorily Compensated	3	7.0	1	3.7	
Total	43	100.0	27	100.0	2.38260*

*not significant at p ($df=3$) = .49688

Table 20 depicts the amount of emotional compensation women in educational administration and business administration receive from their jobs. In education, 30.2 percent of the women were well compensated emotionally by their positions, while 27.9 percent were extremely well compensated. Satisfactory compensation was felt 27.9 percent of the educational respondents, with 11.6 percent feeling unsatisfactorily compensated. In business, 42.9 percent of the respondents felt they received a satisfactory amount of emotional compensation from their job, while 26.9 percent were well compensated. Extreme emotional compensation was felt by 23.1 percent of the business respondents, with 7.7 percent indicating they were unsatisfactorily compensated emotionally by their positions. The chi square value of 2.06621 was not significant compared to a p value of .72358.

Table 21**Emotional Compensation of Women Administrators**

Amount of Compensation	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Extremely Well Compensated	12	27.9	6	23.1	
Well Compensated	13	30.2	7	26.9	
Satisfactorily Compensated	12	27.9	11	42.3	
Unsatisfactorily Compensated	5	11.6	2	7.7	
Total	43	100.0	26	100.0	2.06621*

*not significant at p (df4) = .72358

Table 22 reveals the annual income range for the educational and business leaders. In education, 39.5 percent of the women were paid in a salary range of \$61,000 - \$80,000 per year. An equal amount of the educational women, 39.5 percent, were compensated in a range of \$81,000 - \$100,000. Only 2.3 percent of the women fell into the \$101,000 - \$120,000 range as well as in the \$120,000 + range. As well, only 2.3 percent of these women were paid \$40,000 or less. More women in business than education were found at the top end of the salary scale, with 26.9 percent making \$120,000 annually. The \$81,000 - \$100,000 range was represented by 23.1 percent of the business respondents as was the \$41,000 - \$60,000 range. The \$101,000 - \$120,000 range found 7.7 percent of the business women reporting, while only 3.8 percent of the business women responded in the \$20,000 - \$40,000 range. The chi square value was considered to be significant at a p value of .01100.

Table 22**Annual Income Range of Women Administrators**

Income Range	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
\$20,000-\$40,000	1	2.3	1	3.8	
\$41,000-\$60,000	6	14.0	6	23.1	
\$61,000-\$80,000	17	39.5	4	15.4	
\$81,000-\$100,000	4	39.5	6	23.1	
\$101,000-					
\$120,000	1	2.3	2	7.7	
\$120,000+	1	2.3	7	26.9	
Total	43	100.0	26	100.0	14.855515*

*significant at pl .05 (df5) = .01100

The number of women in educational administration and business administration supplying the primary financial support is displayed in Table 23. In education, 54.8 percent of the respondents indicated they were the primary financial support for their families, with 35.7 percent reporting that the financial support for their family was equally shared. Only 9.5 percent of the educational women were not the primary financial support. In business, 59.3 percent of the leaders replied that they provided the primary financial support, with 25.9 percent indicating that this responsibility was equally shared. The business women indicated that 14.8 percent were not the primary financial support for their families. The chi square value of .94950 was not found to be significant.

Table 23**Women Administrators Supplying Primary Financial Support**

Supplying Primary Support	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Yes	23	54.8	16	59.3	
No	4	9.5	4	14.8	
Equally Shared	15	35.7	7	25.9	
Total	42	100.0	27	100.0	.94950*

*not significant at $p < .05$ (df_2) = .62204

Tables 24 and 25 present the results of the question that asked the respondents to indicate what they perceived to be the top problems they experienced as an administrator. In education, the feeling of being alone ranked as number one, while in business having the sufficient energy for family and professional roles was of chief concern. Ranked second among educators was the difficulty in maintaining a private life, as well as having sufficient energy for family and professional roles. Business women ranked second the problem of equal salary for equal work, as well as the difficulty in gaining acceptance into informal clubs, meetings and luncheons. The women in education next ranked the lack of advancement opportunities, while business women reported difficulty in maintaining a private life. Ranked fifth by educators was the problem of being the only female at their level, while maintaining a private life was a concern for business women. Ranked sixth for educators was being perceived as a woman first and an administrator second as well as being accepted as an equal. In contrast, women in business ranked several concerns equally including being accepted as an equal by male co-workers, lacking the essential background and experience for the position, and not being

taken seriously as an administrator. Educators next ranked equal salary for equal work and, Other, the column where they could indicate any concerns that were not listed on the survey form. These responses are listed in the Appendices. Ranked ninth among business women were four responses including the feeling of being alone, being the only female at that level, as well as Other. Women educators ranked your sex, providing leadership to male subordinates, being assigned tasks that restrict the scope of their responsibility, lacking essential background and experience for position and not being taken seriously as their least concerns. Women in business indicated that advancement opportunities, being assigned tasks that restrict the scope of their responsibility, and providing leadership to male subordinates as being of least concern to them.

Table 24**Most Significant Problems of Women In Education**

Problems of Women	Number of Responses	Rank
Feeling of being alone	16	1
Maintaining private life	14	2
Sufficient energy for dual roles	14	2
Advancement opportunities	11	4
Being only female at this level	10	5
Perceived as woman first, administrator second	9	6
Accepted as equal	9	6
Equal salary for equal work	8	8
Other	8	8
Acceptance into informal clubs	7	10
Your sex	4	11
Providing leadership direction to male subordinates	3	12
Tasks assigned have limited responsibility	1	13
Lacked experience and background for position	0	14
Not being taken seriously as administrator	0	15

Table 25**Most Significant Problems of Women in Business**

Problems of Women	Number of Responses	Rank
Sufficient energy for dual roles	13	1
Equal salary for equal work	7	2
Acceptance into informal clubs	7	2
Perceived as woman first, administrator second	6	4
Maintaining private life	5	5
Accepted as an equal by male co-workers.	4	6
Lacked experience and background for position	4	6
Not being taken seriously as administrator	4	6
Being only female at this level	3	9
Feeling of being alone	3	9
Other	3	9
Your sex	3	9
Advancement opportunities	2	13
Tasks assigned have limited responsibility	2	13
Providing leadership direction to male subordinates	0	15

Tables 26 and 27 display the results of the rankings of the most influential factors for individuals being in their present position. The responses of the two groups are much more similar than the problems faced by each group. Women educators rank demonstrated professional expertise as being the most influential factor in obtaining their present leadership role. Business women list demonstrated leadership ability as most influential. Ranked second for educators was leadership ability, while business women listed professional expertise Third among educators was expertise in the field while business women listed being at the right place at the right time. Both groups

ranked working up through the organization as fourth. Having an appropriate college degree was ranked fifth by both groups. Women in education listed being in the right place at the right time in sixth place, while business women cited experience. Ranking seventh by both groups was knowing someone of influence within the organization. Educators and business women both listed Other, the column where additional concerns could be listed, no other candidate available, and being a woman as being the least influential factors in obtaining their current leadership position. Comments from the Other section can be found in the Appendices.

Table 26

**Influential Factors for Placement in Current
Position of Women in Education**

Factors of Influence	Number of Responses	Rank
Demonstrated professional expertise	37	1
Demonstrated leadership ability	36	2
Experience	25	3
Worked up through the organization	14	4
Degree	11	5
Being in the right place at the right time	9	6
Knowing someone of influence in the organization	6	7
Other	1	8
No other candidate available	0	9
Being a woman	0	9

Table 27

**Influential Factors for Placement in Current Position
of Women Administrators**

Problems of Women	Number of Responses	Rank
Demonstrated leadership ability	16	1
Demonstrated professional expertise	15	2
Being in the right place at the right time	12	3
Worked up through the organization	11	4
Degree	8	5
Experience	7	6
Knowing someone of influence in the organization	5	7
Being a woman	1	8
No other candidate available	1	8
Other	1	8

The number of memberships held in professional organizations is reported in Table 28. It is readily apparent that women educators hold a significant amount of professional memberships in contrast to business women. In education, 23.3 percent of the women hold memberships in four organizations, while 20.9 percent are members in five organizations. In contrast, the largest group of business respondents, 28.6 percent, holds membership in only one organization and 21.4 percent does not belong to any professional organization. The chi square value of 40.69498 is significant at a p value of .00001.

Table 28

**Membership in Professional Organization
by Women Administrators**

Number of Memberships	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
0	0	0	6	21.4	
1	2	4.7	8	28.6	
2	1	2.3	6	21.4	
3	6	14.0	2	7.1	
4	10	23.3	0	0	
5	9	20.9	1	3.6	
6	5	11.6	0	0	
7	1	2.3	0	0	
8	2	4.7	1	3.6	
9	4	9.3	0	0	
Blank	3	7.0	4	14.3	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	40.69498*

*significant at $p(10) = .00001$

Table 29 reveals the number of feminist affiliations that are held by members in each group. The majority of women in both groups, 79.1 percent in education, and 71.4 percent in business, did not belong to any feminist organization. In education, 14.0 percent belonged to one organization, and 7.0 percent to two organizations. In business, 21.4 percent of the women belonged to one organization and 7.1 percent to two organizations. The chi square value was not significant.

Table 29

Membership in Feminist Organizations by Women Administrators					
Number of Memberships	Education		Business		Chi Sq Value
	F	%	F	%	
0	34	79.1	20	71.4	
1	6	14.0	6	21.4	
2	3	7.0	2	7.1	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	.69148*

*not significant at pl .05 (df2) = .70770

Membership in civic, church, or other organizations is reported in Table 30. Again, women in education held more memberships within their community organizations than did their counterparts in business. In education, 25.6 percent of the women held one civic membership as compared to 35.7 percent in business. Holding two memberships were 14.0 percent of the women in education and 0 percent of the women in business. Having three memberships were 25.6 percent of the educators and 10.7 percent of the business women. Four memberships were held by 2.3 percent of the women educators and 7.1 percent of the women in business. Having five or more memberships were 16.7 percent of the educators as compared to only 3.6 percent of the business leaders. No memberships were held by 16.3 percent of the educational leaders and 42.9 percent of the women in business. The chi square value of 17.89801 was significant at a p value of .03638.

Table 30**Memberships in Civic Organizations by Women Administrators**

Number of Memberships	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
0	7	16.3	12	42.9	
1	11	25.6	10	35.7	
2	6	14.0	0	0	
3	11	25.6	3	10.7	
4	1	2.3	2	7.1	
5	2	4.7	0	0	
6	2	4.7	0	0	
7	1	2.3	0	0	
8	2	4.7	0	0	
9	0	0	1	3.6	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	17.89801*

*significant at pl .05 (df9) = .03638

Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description

The data from the Leadership Effectiveness and Adaptability Description is presented in Tables 31, 32, and 33. Table 31 reports the leadership styles of women administrators in education and business defined as Telling, Selling, Participating, and Delegating. In education 53.5 percent of the women indicated they use a Selling leadership style with 46.5 percent indicating they use a Participating leadership style. Zero percent of the educational leaders reported they used either a Telling or Delegating leadership style. Women in business were found to use a Selling leadership style, 67.9 percent, as compared to a Participating style, 25.0 percent. A Telling leadership style was used by 7.1 percent of the business women. The chi square value of 5.72681 was not considered significant compared to the p

value of .05707.

Table 32 presents the style range of women administrators in education and business. Style range is defined as the degree of flexibility a leader demonstrates in using various leadership styles. In education, 51.2 percent of the administrators indicated a high degree of flexibility, 41.9 percent a moderate degree of flexibility and 7.0 percent low flexibility. Fifty percent of the business leaders reported a moderate degree of flexibility, with 39.3 percent indicated a high degree of flexibility. Low flexibility was reported by 10.7 percent of the business leaders. The chi square value of 1.04426 was not significant as compared to the p value of .59325.

Leadership style adaptability is represented by Table 33. Style adaptability is defined as the degree to which one is able to vary one's leadership style appropriately to the readiness level of a follower in a specific situation. Educational women, 74.5 percent, indicated a moderate amount of adaptability, with 16.3 percent reporting high adaptability. Only 9.2 percent of the educators revealed low adaptability. In business, 67.7 percent of the business women reported moderate adaptability, 17.9 percent reported low adaptability, while 14.4 percent indicated high adaptability. The chi square value of 6.57270 was not significant.

Table 31**Leadership Styles of Women Administrators**

Leadership Styles	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
Telling	0	0	2	7.1	
Selling	23	53.5	19	67.9	
Participating	20	46.5	7	25.0	
Delegating	0	0	0	0	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	5.72681*

*not significant at pl (df2) = .05707

Table 32**Style Range of Women Administrators**

Degree of Flexibility	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
High Flexibility	22	51.2	11	39.3	
Moderate Flex	18	41.9	14	50.0	
Low Flexibility	3	7.0	3	10.7	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	1.04426*

*not significant at pl (df2) = .59325

Table 33**Leadership Style Adaptability of Women Administrators**

Degree of Adapatability	Education		Business		Chi Square Value
	F	%	F	%	
High Adaptability	7	16.3	4	14.4	
Moderate Adapt	32	74.5	19	67.7	
Low Adaptability	4	9.2	5	100.0	
Total	43	100.0	28	100.0	6.57270*

*not significant at pl (df12) = .88451

CHAPTER V
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is the purpose of Chapter V to summarize the study, draw conclusions and make recommendations.

Summary

It was the purpose of this study to research and report similarities and differences in career paths and leadership style of women in educational administration and business administration. A sample of seventy one women in educational administration was selected from the 1992 edition of the Michigan Education Directory, and a sample of seventy one women in business who were selected from the 1992 edition of the Harris Michigan Industrial Guide. Pertinent career path and leadership style information was gathered through a mail questionnaire. A literature search was conducted to explore the leadership behaviors of the women in educational administration and business administration to determine the major trends in these areas. The data gathered were then analyzed to determine if similarities and differences exist between these two groups of women.

The literature search produced a comprehensive summary of leadership behavior studies. Over time leadership theories have developed from the citing of simple observable leader behavior to an acknowledgement of the detailed and complex relationships that exist in contemporary leadership theories. Early leadership theories depended on the naming of specific traits that would differentiate the

leader from the worker. Unfortunately, this simple explanation of leader behavior could not be substantiated with research, and theorists looked to other approaches of leadership theory.

Situational leadership was next developed to define what constitutes an effective leader. This theory concluded that a leader's effectiveness depends on the situation in which the leader is operating as well as the abilities, aptitudes and background of the leader. These factors, coupled with the goals of the group member, ultimately determine the success of the leader. Situational leadership depends that a correct determination of the situation be made before the appropriate leader could be named.

Further research lead theorists to examine how leaders operate in a given situation. Leadership style, how leaders relate to members of the group as well as to the tasks to be accomplished, was examined by several studies (Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973; Blake and Mouton, 1964; Reddin, 1972).

The review of the literature found that there has been considerable research concerning the emergence of women in educational leadership positions. The literature search briefly reviewed the history of women in educational leadership positions, the gains that women have made administratively as well as the barriers these women have faced in obtaining their current leadership positions (Warner, 1987; Reif, Newstrom and Monczka, 1975; Pavan and D'Angelo, 1990; Kanter, 1975; Mertz and McNeely, 1990; and Jones and Montenegro, 1982). Suggestions were also made by several authors as to ways women could achieve success within their organizations (Wentling, 1992; Morrison et al., 1988; Fernandez,

1988; Edson, 1988).

Research on women in business found was comparatively meager when compared to the work completed on women in educational administration. Studies done by Nelton, 1991; Moldt, 1991; Loden, 1985; Muldrow and Boyton, 1979 were used to cite the progress that women business administrators have made in the last ten years. Reasons for their success was found in studies by Haskell, 1985; Stechert, 1986; Rizzo and Mendez, 1990; and Eagly and Karau, 1991.

Data were gathered for this study using a standardized instrument, the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description, developed by Hersey and Blanchard and a biographical questionnaire derived from the work of Northcutt and Benedetti. The questionnaire was used to solicit information on career paths as well as other personal information. These two instruments were used to gather data to answer seven research questions. Discussion of the comparative findings has been organized around these seven questions. These questions can only be answered in terms of the participants of this study. However, the results may provide information about leadership styles and career paths of women in the general population in these two areas.

1. What are the similarities or differences in leadership styles between women in educational administration and women in business administration?
 - a. Do women in educational administration have different leadership styles than their female colleagues in business administration?

- b. Are the groups comparable in terms of educational and/or leadership training?

The LEAD data indicate there is no significant difference in leadership style between the two groups. Both groups indicated that the Selling style of leadership was most prevalent for each group; selling being defined as high task/ high relationship. In education, 53.5 percent of the women indicated they used a Selling leadership style. In business, 67.9 percent of the women indicated they used a Selling style of leadership.

This result differs from a similar study by Dickson (1988) using the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire who found that the leadership styles varied with the occupational field and the managerial level of the women surveyed. This also differs from research by Benedetti (1975), using the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire that found that women in education put emphasis on human relations while women in business were oriented toward task relations.

Hennig (1970) reports that women experience a change in leadership style at about age 40 from a closed task oriented style to a more open, human relations oriented style. Both groups in this study appear to have made that transition. This is not conclusive, however, as there is no data to indicate what their style was at an earlier age.

In terms of style range, no significant difference was found between the women in educational administration and those in business administration. Style range being defined as the degree of flexibility a leader demonstrates in using various leadership styles. In education, 51.2 percent of the women indicated a high degree of leadership flexibility, with 39.3 percent of the business women

indicating a similar degree. Moderate flexibility was reported by 50.0 percent of the business women and 41.9 percent of the educational leaders.

Leadership style adaptability is also addressed by the LEAD. Leadership style adaptability is defined as the degree to which one is able to vary one's leadership style appropriately to the readiness level of a follower in a specific situation. In both groups the majority of women indicated a moderate amount of adaptability, 74.5 percent in education and 67.7 percent in business. This usually indicates a leader with a pronounced primary leadership style with less flexibility into the secondary styles.

It can be concluded that women in educational administration and business administration do not have different leadership styles, leadership flexibility or leadership adaptability as measured by the Leader Adaptability and Effectiveness Description.

The data indicate a significant difference in the level of education of these two groups of women. A Doctorate was held by 54.8 percent of the women in education, while none of the business respondents had completed that level of education. A Masters degree was held by 35.7 percent of the women administrators in education and 25.0 percent of the business women. In education, 4.8 percent held only a Bachelor degree, while 46.4 percent of the business women held that degree. It is possible to conclude from these findings that a higher level of education is necessary for women to advance in the educational ranks as opposed to business.

A study by Benedetti (1975) found that 75% of the successful women administrators held doctoral degrees while only 21 percent of

the business leaders were college graduates at that time. In making this comparison, it may be concluded that a doctoral degree may not be as necessary as it once was for advancement to the top educational administrative posts, but is still important. More business women are now furthering their education and, as a result, more highly educated than were their counterparts in the mid-1970's.

2. What are the similarities or differences in career paths between women in educational administration and those in business administration?
 - a. Do both groups have comparable career paths?
 - b. Did the groups take similar career paths as compared to men within their respective organizations?

The career paths of the women in educational administration and those in business administration are dissimilar, as influenced by their entry level positions into their respective organizations. While the majority of women in education, 88.3 percent, entered their professions as certified professionals, only 39.3 percent of the women in business entered their organizations as professionals.

The individual career paths of the respondents in education shows that the highest percentage, 44.2 percent, obtained their current position by following a career path that began as a secondary certified teacher, proceeded to a staff administrative position before advancing into a line administrative position. This corresponds with earlier research by Pavan and D'Angelo, (1990); Mertz and McNeely, (1988); Shakeshaft,(1986); Pavan, (1985); and Kanter, (1975).

In contrast to education, the majority of the successful business leaders, 46.4 percent entered their organizations as non-professionals and advanced to staff administrative responsibilities followed by line administration. This corresponds to studies by Dickson, (1988); Newcombe, (1985); Anderson, (1983); Kanter, (1977), that show that while all superintendents came from the professional ranks as teachers, in business, secretary to the chief executive officer was the most common level of entry for women.

The career paths of the women in educational administration and business administration vary from those of their male colleagues. The majority career path for women educators in this study: secondary teacher to staff administration to line administrator is not the same as that followed by male administrators who followed a path as a secondary teacher to line administrator (Pavan and D'Angelo, 1990; Mertz and McNeely, 1988; Pavan, 1985; Shakeshaft 1986; Laidler, 1982; Kanter, 1975). In business, the career path followed by women in this study, non-professional to staff administration to line administration was not the same as the same as those followed by their male colleagues: professional to line administrator (Dickson, 1988; Newcombe, 1985; Anderson, 1983).

3. How do women achieve the top positions within their organizations?

The top positions within the educational and business arenas was achieved through a variety of sources, some of which will be discussed in Question 5. A primary source of assistance for the successful women in both groups was the use of a mentor. A mentor

assisted the women administrators in their career advancement, with 97.6 percent of the women administrators in education receiving such assistance and 63.0 percent of the business women. This corresponds with other studies that found that sponsorship was very important to career advancement (Wentling,1992; Edson,1988; Morrison et al.,1988; Newcombe,1985; Jones and Montenegro,1982). These studies found that the mentors provided women with job opportunities and challenges to demonstrate their skills and abilities, offered feedback on their performance, gave useful advice, shared expertise with them, encouraged them to a high standard of performance and acknowledged their skills and talents.

It can be concluded that mentors have had a direct impact of the careers of the women in this study as evidenced by the high number of positive respondents.

4. What common behavioral descriptors can be attributed to each group?
 - a. Are the groups the same in terms of age, number of siblings, marital and family status?
 - b. How do the groups compare in terms of salary, size of their organization and feminist affiliation?
 - c. Is one group more mobile in terms of frequency of job moves?

The age differences that exist between the women in educational and business administration were not significant, although the women in business were somewhat younger than their counterparts in education, with 46.4 percent of the business

respondents in the 36-45 years of age category.

In terms of number of siblings, the majority of the women in education, 84.3 percent, had three or fewer siblings, while women in business, 53.8 percent, had three or fewer siblings. Again, this was not found to be of statistical significance. In terms of sibling order within the family, 54.2 percent of the women in education noted that they had one sibling older than themselves, with 55.0 percent of the women in business indicating they had one older sibling. This was not a significant difference.

The marital status of the women in this study was also not statistically different. Women administrators in education, 46.5 percent were married, as compared to 50 percent of the business women. Only 16 percent of the women educators indicated they were divorced, as opposed to 25 percent of the women in business. A 1975 study by Benedetti shows that 75 percent of the women educators were unmarried as opposed to 25 percent of the business women. The increase in the number of married women educators cannot be attributed to a single source, but may reflect a trend in general of women more readily combining family and careers.

In regard to the number of children had by each group of women, in both groups over 80 percent have two or less children. This corresponds to previous studies by Edson, 1988; and Anderson, 1983; who found that successful administrators had few or no children.

In conclusion, there appears to be little difference in the family background to these two groups of women.

The annual income range for both groups showed some

significant differences. In terms of the top of the salary range, 26.9 percent of the business women made \$120,000+ per year as opposed to only 2.3 percent of the women in education. At the bottom of the salary range, 2.3 percent of the educational women made \$40,000 or less a year as opposed to 3.8 percent of the business women. The difference in salary can perhaps be attributed to the fact that school administrators are paid from public tax funds as opposed to the private sector.

In terms of the size of their respective organizations, women in education belong to larger organizations averaging 530 employees. In business the average size of the organization was 302. This corresponds to an earlier study by Benedetti (1975) that indicates that women in business have more of an opportunity to reach administrative positions with a small firm, while in education the size of the institution is not a determining factor.

The respondents did not indicate a large participation in feminist organizations, with only 14 percent of the educational women and only 21 percent of the business women acknowledging any affiliation. More memberships were held in civic or church organizations with 25.6 percent of the women in education and 35.7 percent of the women in business having one membership within their community. Professional affiliations were held by more educational women than business women, with 20.9 percent of the educational women having membership in five organizations. The largest group of business respondents, 28.6 percent hold membership in only one organization and 21.4 percent does not belong to any professional organization. The difference in the number of

professional affiliations was considered significant and may indicate that educational women more readily seek networking opportunities than their business colleagues or that more organizations are available for membership.

In conclusion, more business women are at the top of the salary range than their counterparts in education. However, the women in education are employed by larger organizations and are more active in civic and professional organizations than are women business leaders.

The mobility of the women administrators in terms of the number of times they changed positions prior to their current position was closely related. The educational administrators averaged 4.32 moves to their current position, while the business administrators averaged 3.89 moves. This corresponds to the number of women in educational administration who had been in their positions 1 to 5 years, 69.8 percent, as opposed to women in business administration, 35.7 percent, who had held their positions for the same length of time. While not statistically significant, it shows that women in business administration do tend to stay in their positions slightly longer than do women in educational administration.

5. What have been the most important influences in obtaining their current positions?

The most influential factors, reported by both groups of women are the following:

- Demonstrated leadership ability**
- Demonstrated professional expertise**
- Experience**

Being at the right place at the right time

Worked up through the organization

Degree

The influential factors listed by the respondents in this study agree exactly with those generated in a similar study by Benedetti (1975). The only change was in the inclusion of degree by business women as an influential factor; previously it had been listed only by educational women. This corresponds to the increased number of business women who have completed educational degrees since the 1975 study.

6. **What common problems in administration do the two groups share?**

The women administrators did not agree as to the common problems that they face. The educational women ranked their problems as follows:

Feeling of being alone

Maintaining a private life

Having sufficient energy for dual roles

Advancement opportunities

The business women ranked their problems as follows:

Having sufficient energy for dual roles

Equal salary for equal work

Acceptance into informal clubs

Perceived as a women first, administrator second

When comparing these results with the Benedetti study (1975), the educational women ranked three of the four problems the same:

Maintaining a private life; Feeling of being alone; and Sufficient energy for dual roles. The business women only listed one problem consistent with the Benedetti study: Equal salary for equal work.

As the primary focus of this study was to find similarities or differences between women administrators in education and business in terms of leadership style, career paths and other personal characteristics, the following summary of statistical significance is offered.

- 1. Women in education had been in their professions longer than had women in business.**
- 2. The women in education held higher educational degrees than the women in business.**
- 3. Women educators ranked themselves more often as extremely successful than did their counterparts in business.**
- 4. The career paths were different between the two groups of women.**
- 5. More business women are found making \$120,000+ per year than women in education.**
- 6. Women in education hold more memberships in professional organizations than do women in business.**
- 7. Civic and church memberships are more commonly held by women educators than business women.**

Concluding Remarks

The focus of this study was to determine the similarities or differences between women administrators in education and business.

There appears to be some basic similarities between the two groups. First, the leadership style used by both groups of women as measured by the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description was the same. This is in contrast to earlier studies that found differences in leadership styles between these two groups.

Secondly, the basic backgrounds of the two groups are similar in terms of age, marital status, number of siblings, number of children, number of years in their current positions and frequency of job changes.

Third, the women in both groups responded similarly in terms of satisfactory financial and emotional compensation, financial support of their families, as well as the important influences in obtaining their current positions.

Several significant differences were found between the two groups. The career paths of the educational leaders differed from that of the business leader primarily in terms of the entry level position. Both groups tended to advance from the entry level position to a staff administrative position to line administrative responsibilities.

There were also differences in the educational levels of the two groups with the educational leaders having more education. However, the business group surveyed showed higher educational levels than previous studies.

In terms of success, women in education regarded themselves as more successful than women in business, with the women in

education more often making use of a mentor to advance their career. Women in business, however, were more likely to be found at the top end of the salary range than their educational counterparts.

Major differences exist in what the women leaders perceive as their most common problems. While women in education ranked the Feeling of being alone as their top problem, women in business indicated that having Sufficient energy for dual roles as their top concern. Other rankings of common problems also differed.

Suggestions for Further Study

There are several suggestions that can be made for further study. Among these are:

1. A continued examination of leadership styles among women leaders to determine if the results of this study can be confirmed.
2. In depth interviews with women in leadership positions to examine how they are dealing with the common problems identified in this study.
3. Additional research is needed to determine if women leaders in business really are not being paid equally in comparison with their male counterparts.
4. A continued examination of the career paths of business women in terms of their entry level positions to determine if their increased educational levels, as noted in this study, are having any direct impact.
5. A continued monitoring of the overall number of women in leadership positions to determine if women will continue to

maintain the gains they have made, as well as to note the lose or increase in the total number of positions available to women.

APPENDICES

RESPONSES TO QUESTIONS

**Responses to Question 18
Marked "Other"
By Women Educational Administrators**

Lack of female networking

Other females

Accepted by vendors

I don't believe being a women has presented any.

Delegation

Misconceptions about women leaders -held by women and men

The limitations I place on me

Male believing over female

"Token" female candidate for promotion

None of the above has been problematic

No really serious problems

I have not really experienced difficulties because I am a woman.

**Responses to Question 19
Marked "Other"
By Women Educational Administrators**

Courage to speak up

**Responses to Question 18
Marked "Other"
By Women Business Administrators**

The challenges I face as an administrator have relatively little relationship to my sex. Being a women has not inhibited me in any significant way - I believe sexism is an obstacle only if you allow it to be. Also the choices listed below seem outdated to me and, I would guess, [sic] unusual problems at the executive level (significantly anyway). The problems I've faced as a senior executive woman in my organization are much more complex:

1. Exclusion from social activirtes with CEO and executives, due to sexual charges
2. Not being taken seriously by male members outside the organization
3. Sexual attention from men outside of my organization (especially customers - although not a problem for vendors - companies I manage)

Assumption that the President/Owner of a manufacturing company must be a man

I have had no such problems

I tend to look youger than my age, and this along with being a woman, has lessened by credibility at times, much more so than it would for a young male.

**Responses to Question 19
Marked "Other"
By Women Business Administrators**

As Owner - felt it necessary to take over

I created the business and am sole owner

LEAD-SELF

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CORRESPONDENCES



WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY
COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DETROIT, MICHIGAN 48202

January 5, 1993

Dear Administrator,

Recently you were sent two brief surveys regarding women in leadership for a dissertation research project sponsored by Wayne State University. Unfortunately, as of this date I have not yet received yours.

I know that this is an extremely busy time of the year, but I hope that you will take a few moments to complete the surveys. Each one that is returned insures the statistical validity of the project.

Please know that I appreciate your time and effort on my behalf.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Karen S. Sage".

Karen S. Sage



WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DETROIT, MICHIGAN 48202

December 15, 1992

Dear Educational Leader:

I have selected your name as an educational administrator from the 1992 edition of Michigan Educational Directory. As part of a research project under the supervision of the Department of Organization and Administration, Wayne State University, I am completing a study on the leadership styles and career paths of women in educational administration and women in business administration.

I think you will agree, that there are very few women in top level positions in either education or business administration. There are even fewer in-depth studies that deal with the leadership styles or career paths of these present leaders. I am attempting to add to these studies with this research. With your cooperation, I believe this is possible.

There are two questionnaires to be completed: The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description, which elicits your opinion. With this instrument I hope to establish a pattern of responses of successful women administrators. The second instrument is a basic biographical questionnaire. This will be used to gather basic data and provide information to determine the career paths of successful career women. I believe both instruments should take a minimum of twenty minutes to complete. It is most important that you make a response to all of the questions on both questionnaires.

I am aware that you are very busy at this time of the year, but I am confident that the time spent will be well worth the results; with your cooperation I believe I can insure a study that will provide an impact in this area. All information will remain confidential and unidentifiable.

Enclosed is a return, stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience. If you are interested in the results of this study, please indicate on the Biographical Questionnaire.

Please return this information by January 2, 1993. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Karen S. Sage".

Karen S. Sage



WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY

COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

DETROIT, MICHIGAN 48202

December 15, 1992

Dear Business Leader:

I have selected your name as a business leader from the 1992 edition of Michigan Harris Industrial Guide. As part of a research project under the supervision of the Department of Organization and Administration, Wayne State University, I am completing a study on the leadership styles and career paths of women in educational administration and women in business administration:

I think you will agree, that there are very few women in top level positions in either education or business administration. There are even fewer in-depth studies that deal with the leadership styles or career paths of these present leaders. I am attempting to add to these studies with this research. With your cooperation, I believe this is possible.

There are two questionnaires to be completed: The Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Description, which elicits your opinion. With this instrument I hope to establish a pattern of responses of successful women administrators. The second instrument is a basic biographical questionnaire. This will be used to gather basic data and provide information to determine the career paths of successful career women. I believe both instruments should take a minimum of twenty minutes to complete. It is most important that you make a response to all of the questions on both questionnaires.

I am aware that you are very busy at this time of the year, but I am confident that the time spent will be well worth the results; with your cooperation I believe I can insure a study that will provide an impact in this area. All information will remain confidential and unidentifiable.

Enclosed is a return, stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience. If you are interested in the results of this study, please indicate on the Biographical Questionnaire.

Please return this information by January 3, 1993. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Karen S. Sage

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**SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND
CAREER PATHS BETWEEN WOMEN IN K-12 EDUCATION AND WOMEN
IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION WITHIN THE STATE OF MICHIGAN**

by

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This research was conducted to determine the similarities or differences in leadership styles and career paths of executive women in K-12 education and business administration for small business to major corporations within the state of Michigan. Its purpose was to identify specific leadership styles and career paths of those women already in top administrative positions to serve as guides to those who wish to duplicate their efforts.

The data for this study were gathered through questionnaires mailed to seventy one women in each sample group. Two questionnaires were sent, the Leader Effectiveness and Adaptability Questionnaire (LEAD) by Hersey and Blanchard and a biographical questionnaire derived from the work of Northcutt and Benedetti.

The results of the study indicate some basic similarities between the two groups. First the leadership style used by both groups as measured by the LEAD was the same. This is in contrast to other studies that found differences between the two groups.

Secondly, the basic backgrounds of the two groups are similar in terms of age, marital status, number of siblings, number of children, number of years in their current position and frequency of job changes.

Third, the women in both groups responded similarly in terms of satisfactory financial and emotional compensation, financial support of their families, as well as the important influences in obtaining their current positions.

Several significant differences were found between the two groups. The career paths of the educational leaders differed from that of the business group primarily in terms of entry level position. Both groups tended to advance from the entry level position to a staff administrative position to line administrative responsibilities.

There were also differences in the educational levels of the two groups with the educational leaders having more education. However, the business group showed higher educational levels than previous studies.

In terms of success, women in education regarded themselves as more successful than women in business, with the women in education more often making use of a mentor to advance their career. Women in business, however, were more likely to be found at the top end of the salary range than their educational counterparts.

Major differences exist in what the women leaders perceive as their most common problems. While women in education ranked the Feeling of being alone as their top problem, women in business indicated that having sufficient energy for dual roles as their top concern. Other rankings of common problems also differed.

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