THE EFFECTS OF PROFESSIONAL SUPPORT SYSTEMS

ON THE CAREERS OF IN-PLACE WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS

by

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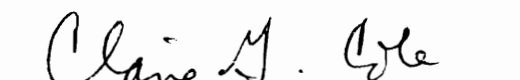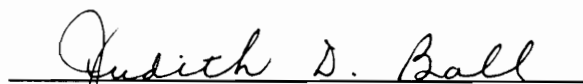
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(ABSTRACT)

The problem of this study is an investigation of the effects, if any, of the professional support systems for the careers of women educators. This research should contribute to an understanding of the interaction among women and the impact of such interaction, if any, on career achievement. Women who want to become administrators can utilize this new information concerning support systems. By understanding the role of mentors and the interaction of a network, women as mentors may gain some valuable information with which to prepare themselves for a career in administration. The researcher leaned upon the Glaser and Strauss book, The Discovery of Grounded Theory as a methodological basis of this study. Generating theory and making hypothesis provided the basis for generating new theory and constructing associated hypothesis. Glaser and Strauss put forth the idea that generating a theory from data means that hypothesis and concepts come from data and are systematically worked out in relation

to the data during the process of research. Theory is a process and generated during the course of a study. In grounded theory research, data interpretations are seldom conclusive and the research process is seldom finished. The respondents felt that alliances and networks had not really aided their career aspirations. However, the respondents did report having depended on male mentors in the pursuance and attainment of their positions. Because womens' networks and their impact on the careers of in-place administrators is such a new concept, a relatively unresearched topic, many questions are left unanswered and future studies could further examine the phenomena of womens' networks. Based on this study women would be advised to develop a mentor relationship or form an alliance with a male network.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The word 'networking' was first used in relation to computers. An effort to trace its etymology with reference to education is more difficult. According to Schmuck (1986), a "network" is a biological term related to the nervous system and the billions of cells which carry messages through the body (The New Book of Knowledge, 1974) and more recently a computer term. The word 'networking' as utilized in this study does not yet appear in any contemporary dictionary. Schmuck (1986) states that the term 'network' was extended by the women's movement, in this country, to include professional support systems. Women have come to recognize that in both the public and the private sectors there is a ladder of career advancement that has worked to the advantage of men and to the disadvantage of women.

The decade of the 1970's saw the emergence of networking as an answer to women who sought to further their careers. The concept of networking in the 1970's was seen by certain women's groups and organizations as a way to band women together in a concerted effort to encourage more women to apply for and to seek out administrative positions. The network was to be used as a source of information, support and counsel for women. Women reported that they received support from friends and through relationships cultivated from professional support bases according to Youngs (1988).

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In its infancy, networking in the educational setting became primarily a socio-psychological support system. This support system was broadened to include such methods and concepts as mentors, alliances, and sponsors. Kirschenbaum and Glaser (1978) defined the professional support group or system as the ongoing support of other people. This support could be found in the form of a one-to-one situation, or in a banding together to form alliances and networks. Proponents of professional support systems felt that this ongoing support whether in the form of mentors or alliances and networks, could facilitate open communication lines with people whose decisions affect work or career progress. This is the ultimate goal of the professional support system: to positively affect career progress. As stated by Green (1982), this networking or sharing of information, and the creation of personal linkages, has received considerable attention as a potential help to women in reaching leadership positions. In most organizations, women are not part of the organizational interaction, they are too few and too foreign. According to Ortiz (1982), it is much more difficult for women to develop relationships with organizational leaders and thereby gain access to line positions within the organization.

Researchers in the decade of the 1980's point out that women represent 40 percent of the entire labor force (Eccles and Hoffman, 1984). Differential participation of the sexes in employment and education has become hard to ignore. Although increasing numbers of women are

working, they are still concentrated in the lower levels of the professional hierarchy (Eccles and Hoffman, 1984). From 1900 to 1970, in every census year, most female workers were concentrated in occupations that were predominately female; in 1970 half of all women workers were employed in 17 occupations as contrasted with the 63 occupations in which half of the men were located. Between 1960 and 1969 there was disproportionately small growth in the numbers of women in the professional and technical group but a disproportionately large increase in women clerical workers. Women's rising labor force participation, then, has not resulted in women getting a chance at the higher paying and more powerful jobs (Kanter, 1977).

Sponsors are important for the successful men in organizations, they seem absolutely essential for women. Women need signs of influence and access to real power provided by sponsors (Kanter, 1977). Jardim and Henning's studies (1976) of the women in top management positions in U.S. corporations showed the importance of sponsorship.

A "glass ceiling" or " glass wall" are new concepts in the business world to describe the invisible, impenetrable barrier that women encounter as they attempt to move into top management positions or laterally into line positions that traditionally have been held by Caucasian males, the dominant work group. In spite of corporate America's insistence that women have the same opportunities as men, research reveals that women are prevented from reaching the top

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merely because they are women. Blumer, director of human resources for Corning Incorporated, states that there appears to be three reasons for the existence of glass barriers for women: the lack of career development provided to women, failure to provide women with appropriate experiences, a corollary of the first reason, and failure of managers to take risks in placing women in high positions.

Tradition, understandably so, plays a great role in perpetuating the invisible barriers. If women are not present to establish relationships in the work environment, then it is normal that traditions survive, and men tend to promote men. Women are not strategically placed in organizations where they are visible.

Researchers Heilman and Stitzel (1982), feel that women should use their numbers to build alliances, networks and professional support systems to aid one another in seeking and obtaining administrative jobs. Weber, et al. (1983), examined the research concerning the decreasing number of women administrators and concluded that the reasons for the decreasing numbers of women in leadership positions are complex. Researchers have pinpointed that psychological and sociological barriers, compounded by institutional barriers to women in education, have created an atmosphere in which few women aspire to or obtain administrative positions.

Studies conducted during the late 1950's and the 1960's found large differences in the aspirations of male and female teachers.

American public schools are run by administrators who are overwhelmingly male, white, well paid, and resistant to outside influence. More recent research found that, while the aspiration levels of women are still significantly lower than those of men, the gap appears to be narrowing. Much research has been conducted to unravel the noted differential in aspirations, but the results are often inconclusive and confusing (Williams & Baughman, 1978).

Studies of male and female teachers and administrators indicate that for a number of reasons (socialization, discrimination, that has kept capable women in teaching but allowed capable men to enter other professions), women teachers and administrators are more likely to exhibit behaviors conducive to good schooling. (Shakeshaft, 1986)

In spite of the fact that high achieving women test only slightly differently from men on psychological tests, stereotypes, attitudes, and perceptions prevail (Morrison, et al, 1987). Society has been conditioned to believe that people who are different from those at the top of organizations (white males) are deficient, deviant, or dysfunctional (Rosener, 1991). In a study of leadership styles of 456 male and female leaders in a variety of organizations throughout the country, Rosener discovered that there is a definite management style preference. Rosener concludes that the exclusionary factor against women is a gender-based differential.

A variety of programs were begun during the 1970's to enhance women's career opportunities. But the effects of such programs on women's advancements in school administration have not been

carefully documented (Metzger, 1985).

Women are poorly represented among school administrators according to Lambie (1987). Lambie states that women seeking promotion are usually better prepared and more intensely committed to their jobs than most male rivals.

Fagan and Walter (1983) researched mentoring in the school setting and in industry. Their research focused on correlations between having a mentor and job satisfaction, job burnout, and tendency to mentor. The statistics showed those persons with a mentor had higher job satisfaction, lower job burnout, and they tended to guide novices through becoming mentors themselves.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

At present, it is not known the role played or effects made by professional support systems on the careers of women educators. Conventional wisdom suggests that such systems are instrumental in the progress of women in gaining leadership roles.

STATEMENT OF THE PURPOSE

The decade of the 1970's saw the application of the term 'networking,' as extended by the women's movement, to the educational setting. Further, there was the term 'professional support system' as identified by Kirschenbaum and Glaser (1978). The term professional support system broadened the original term 'networking' and now includes any ongoing support system such as alliances and one-to-one

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support systems, including mentors and sponsors.

Research in the decade of the 1980's explored the relationship between networking, alliances, and mentors relative to women's career advancement patterns. As of yet, no positive correlation has been established between networking, alliances and mentors, and the obtaining of administrative positions. There has been a shift from quantity to quality of women's networks during the past 20 years. In the '90s a more holistic approach may be utilized. A women's whole life may be explored not just the network. The network is alive and well in the '90s but not necessarily following the example of the old boys' network (Schmoller, 1991). Hypotheses were generated from interviews of in-place, professional women educators and their utilization of networks, professional alliances, and mentors. The purpose of this study is to identify how networking has affected the careers of in-place women administrators.

SIGNIFICANCE

This research should contribute to an understanding of the interaction among women and the impact of such interaction, if any, on career achievement. Women who want to become administrators may utilize this new information concerning support systems. By understanding the role of mentors and the interaction of a network, women as mentors may gain some valuable information with which to prepare themselves for a career in administration.

RESEARCH QUESTIONS

1. How important are alliances, mentors, and sponsors to the careers of women administrators?

2. Did in-place women administrators become successful by utilizing a network?

3. Did in-place women administrators use a formal or an informal network?

4. What are some of the barriers to advancement as recognized by in-place women administrators?

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

For purposes of this study the following definitions apply:

Professional Support Groups and Systems

Kirschenbaum and Glaser (1978) define a professional group as a small group of professionals with a common area of interest who meet periodically to learn together and to support one another in their ongoing professional development. The term professional support system will be used to encompass the term network and alliance. Mentors and sponsors are a part of a colleague network. Therefore, professional support systems can be in the form of groups or in the one-to-one form of mentor or sponsor.

Networking

Pilotta (1983) defines networking (in the educational setting) as a process of linking people to each other as career resources. The real

basis for networking is communication or the development of a supportive communication climate (1983).

Mentors

Moore (1982) describes mentoring as an informed, idiosyncratic way of nurturing leadership skills; mentors are usually highly placed and part of a colleague network which helps in arranging opportunities for proteges to make contacts and gain visibility.

Alliances

Alliances are similar to networks but may not develop in a patterned way. Alliances are not one-to-one progressions only. A woman can build alliances with several people simultaneously.

Proteges

The protege is the pupil of the mentor. The protege is prepared for entry into a high level position by virtue of the mentor's knowledge of that position or by the power of the mentor from his/her position.

Sponsor

A sponsor is very much like a mentor only the relationship may not be that of a pupil-teacher. It may simply be a situation whereby the sponsor provides an introduction, an opening, to the person in power.

Significant Other

Significant other is a term found in the fields of psychology, sociology, and business and applicable to all. In business and administration a significant other denotes a relationship that

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contributes to career advancement. Significant other, as used in business and school administration, can be related to the terms mentor and sponsor.

Theory

A formulation of apparent relationships or underlying principles of certain observed phenomena which has been verified to some degree by data.

Hypothesis

An unproved theory, tentatively accepted to explain certain facts or to provide a basis for further investigation.

METHODOLOGY

The Glaser and Strauss book, The Discovery of Grounded Theory, was the methodological basis of this study. Generating theory and making hypotheses provides the basis for generating new theory and constructing associated hypotheses. The four areas considered in the study are theoretical framework, instrumentation, population, collection and analysis of data. For a more detailed discussion, please refer to Chapter III.

LIMITATIONS

This research will be limited to selected women who have in-place positions as administrators in the educational setting in the Southeast Virginia cities of Norfolk, Virginia Beach, Chesapeake, Suffolk, Portsmouth, Newport News and Hampton, as well as the counties of Isle

of Wight and York. The City of Richmond was chosen because there was a woman superintendent and her interview added to my research which included two division superintendents, all that were present in the Tidewater area.

Chapter II

RELATED LITERATURE

INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this chapter is to give definition and focus to the previous research on networking, alliances, and sponsorships, and their relationships to in-place women administrators.

The concept of networking first began in relation to the business world but has come into vogue concerning education in recent years. According to Harder and Waldo (1983) the leadership studies of the 1950's and the 1960's support the image of women as capable and competent leaders. Based upon these studies and others (Barter, 1969: Smith, 1978) it would appear that both teachers and school administrators consider women to be capable educational leaders. However, according to Weber, Feldman, and Poling (1983) the representation of women in administration is on the decline . . . Weber, et al. maintain that to increase the number of qualified women, more women must obtain credentials in educational administration, apply for positions in education, and encourage other women to aspire to positions in educational leadership. Fleischman (1983) states that organizational theory has failed to adequately address why there are limited numbers of women in management positions in organizations.

Martin, Harrison and Dinitto (1983) postulate that women require

a network not only as a support base but also for purposes of sharing information. Shapiro, Haseltine and Rowe (1978) advise women to seek powerful male and, if available, female mentors who can create opportunities, teach them the organizational processes, provide information, and serve as advocates. They further recommend that women form networks within the organizational structure encompassing divisions, departments, and other organizational levels.

During the past 30 years, women have dramatically changed the American labor force. By 1986, nearly 52 million women were working, about 200 percent more than at the end of World War II. This rise in the number of working women is probably the single most important change that has ever taken place in the American labor market. Beginning in February, 1986, women workers became a majority of professional employees in the U.S. A fact about working women that deserves attention is their representation among executives and managers. While 45 percent of American workers are women, 36 percent of executive, administrative and managerial positions are held by women. Only 5 to 10 percent of top executive positions are held by women, and only one Fortune 500 company has a women chief executive officer (Bloom, 1986).

There are more women in the work force than ever before and there may be more running their own businesses, but board rooms and conference rooms are still masculine domains. Ninety-eight percent of

respondents surveyed for a 1986 executive profile conducted by Korn/Kerry International, an executive search firm, were men. The percentage of women in senior executive positions has increased from less than one percent in 1979, to 2 percent in 1986 (Jenning, 1987).

In a study of women in banking, law and architecture, personal interviews (30 interviews) were conducted and pictures emerged. The women interviewed said they were excluded from power struggles, denied access to networks, felt they had to perform better, make fewer mistakes, and be exceptional just to secure marginal acceptance (Bernikow, 1984). The fields of education and business are dissimilar in many ways; among the few parallels is male domination at administrative levels (Henning and Jardim, 1976).

Morrison, White and Velsor (1987) in their three year study of women executives in America's largest manufacturing and service companies, found that women differ from men in one fundamental way that is still gender based - they had to function with three levels of pressure - the job, their pioneer role in the job, and the added strain of family obligations.

By the year 2000, 47 percent of the work force will be women and 61 percent of women will be at work (Johnston, 1989). The glass ceiling will not become penetrable until human resource planning is done to create an environment where women can be successful in upper levels of management. Key components have been identified by companies who

have development programs for women in place.

Women must receive:

Broad range of experience	28%
Line experience	22%
Supervisory management position	20%
Advancement/promotion	15%
Challenging assignments	14%
Business unit head	9%
Visibility	5%
Development/training	5%
Other	5%

(Solomon, 1990).

Schwartz, president of Catalyst, a New York based organization of research and advocacy for women advanced the theory of women in the work place requiring flexible work schedules so that career and family can be managed. The organization's research reveals that while woman's role has changed over the past 30 years there still remain barriers to women's advancement. Stereotyping and preconceptions are barriers. Women are perceived as being less committed to careers, less likely to take risks, more likely to have jobs because of family conflicts, excluded from informal networks (Thornburg, 1991).

The literature on women in administration substantiates the widespread assumption that sex bias has been a major factor in the

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small number of women administrators (Frasher and Frasher, 1979).

A 1982 study by the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) found that women hold only 16 percent of all U.S. principalships. Twenty-three percent of elementary principalships and 7 percent of secondary principals are women. According to the same study, less than two percent (1.8) of all superintendents are women (Smith, et al.).

Indeed, according to the American Association of University Women, about two-thirds of all public school teachers are women. But women make up only about 5 percent of the nation's superintendents.

Several factors are cited to explain why women are under-represented in leadership positions: sex discrimination, low career aspirations, and a lack of sponsors from within the power structure (Metzger, 1985).

From the Center for Women in Educational Leadership at the University of North Carolina, a study of 450 women administrators focused on the myths and realities faced in their daily lives (Woo, 1985). This study built on the previous work of social scientists who had focused on women's leadership potential. Two decades had been spent examining social and historical factors. These social scientists had suggested remedies to help women better use their capabilities. One of the remedies was to use support groups and networks. The 450 women who were queried said that mentors had not played a significant role in

their career progress. They did not feel that they needed additional social or political skills to advance their careers; these women said that a scarcity of opportunities for promotion had been their major obstacle; not male resistance, inability to gain access to information, social networks, or lack of mentors. A large majority, however, did say that their husband's support had been a crucial factor.

Since 1950, the number of women in educational administration has declined (Speizer, 1981).

Most studies have focused on men, which is understandable since the overwhelming majority of school administrators in the United States are men (Schmuck, et al., 1986). Women are poorly represented among school administrators, the literature suggests that these representative women are usually better prepared and more intensely committed to their jobs (Lambie, 1987).

Historically, American women were barred from positions of authority. Their gender disqualified them until the early twentieth century (Biklen and Brannigan, 1980). However, women have always been important participants in the education of our nation's youth. Since the latter part of the nineteenth century, women have predominated as elementary school teachers: 66 percent of the teaching force in 1870; 85 percent by the 1930's (Schmuck, Carlson, and Charters, 1981). Today, according to historians, the shifting sex composition of public school teachers male to female is at the level of the late nineteenth

century, 66 percent (Schmuck, et al., 1981).

The data about women's participation in administrative roles are not complete. In 1910 supervisory officers included 14,392 positions and 7,605 of them were filled by women (Biklen, and Brannigan, 1980). Most female administrators in 1910 were elementary principals.

Studies in the 1950's and 1960's were concerned with the aspiration of women to higher level positions primarily because there was a decline in the percentage of women in administrative positions. For example, Harder and Waldo (1983) report that in 1928, 55 percent of elementary principals were women; in the 1950's women constituted 38 percent of the elementary principals; in the 1960's the percent had dwindled to 22 percent and by 1973 only 18 percent of the elementary principals were women. The higher the hierarchical level, the smaller the percentages become. Frasher and Frasher (1979) reported that women held only 12.9 percent of all principal positions and of 13,037 local superintendents, only 65 were women.

In 1971, fewer than 1 percent of superintendents, 3 percent of high school principals, and 21 percent of elementary school principals were women. In 1981, these statistics had changed very little even though administrators come from the teaching ranks who are predominately women (Lyman and Speizer, 1980).

The ranks of women superintendents have been rising gradually from one-tenth of 1 percent in 1973 to 1 percent in 1980, to 2.7 percent in

1985 to the current 5 percent, according to Marx, senior executive director of the American Association of School Administrators (1991).

A 1982 study of colleges and universities found that most top level administrative positions are held by men. A survey of 106 states and land grant universities revealed that 21.3 percent of the administrative positions were held by women. Of these, 14.6 percent were line positions. There were only three female presidents or chancellors (NASULGC, 1978). In 1992, women hold fewer than 350 of the nations approximately 3,000 college and university presidencies.

The decade of the 1970's saw the emergence of networking as one solution to women who sought to further their careers. The concept of networking in the 1970's was seen by certain women's groups and organizations as a way to band women together. These organizations were then to be used as catalysts for aspiring women. The network was developed to be a source of information, support, and counsel for women.

Networking is seen as a cooperative vehicle for women who aspire to administrative positions according to Green (1982).

> "Networks serve to combat isolation and to provide women with access to needed information . . . In addition, a network can create a vital support system among women who can help each other not only with information, but also with advice, mentorship, sponsorship, and moral support."

To some the network must be a conscious commitment and this, according to Fisher, (1983)

> "Entails new forms of organization among women-networks that support mutual striving, sympathetic sponsorship to facilitate

mobility, and the support and awareness of successful women as models . . ."

Networking can be seen as a form of organizational reform. In Women's Networks by Kleiman (1980), the male network is contrasted with the women's network.

Kleiman (1980) describes the Old Boy's Network as unconscious, informal and private. She suggests that the women's network has none of these elements. Women have consciously duplicated an unconscious process, formally constructed an informal association, and publicly operated a private system.

Bernard (1976) says that networking is an alliance to affirm and legitimize female identity. Networking not only assists in career advancement, it can be a boon to the female psyche.

A formal network has as its basis and purpose organizational development which furthers the career aspirations of those involved, men or women. A network can be formal or informal. The informal network can be compared to the "Good Old Boy's Network." Kleiman describes the male network in Women's Networks (1980).

It is secret and it is informal, but it is such an inbred, automatic response that men often do not think twice about it. Men grow up knowing all about how to network. They play team sports. They are taught to collaborate and work with each other; they realize that they need each other.

For men the locker room and golf course have traditionally been

places to do business; networking in these settings is a way of doing business. Social and organizational structures provide opportunities for crucial but unself-conscious networking (Green, 1982).

According to Yeager, one of the key factors for career advancement is participating in informal networks. Yeager says the extent to which women have access to key players in an organization will determine career success.

For women to effectively network, they must accept the knowledge that they need to connect to other women. Within the organization, the network, can be found other forms, such as the mentor form.

Klopf and Harrison (1982) remind that "mentoring has a long and rich history in education. Studies show the crucial influence of mentors in shaping the personal lives and professional careers of teachers and school administrators . . . although there is great variety in patterns of mentoring relationships, support, counseling, accessibility, and belief in the associate's talents are invariably present."

Women, through societal prodding, have learned to compete against one another in subtle ways preventing them from becoming team players. (Gabler, 1987)

Until recently the "old girls" did not know how the "old boys" network operated. Women, according to Gabler, thought that to capture a top level position all that was needed was hard work and skill. Women now know that a supportive network is also necessary (1987).

There has been a shift from quality to quantity of women's networking during the past 20 years. Networking in the '90s has changed from its beginnings in the '70s. In the '70s women took their cues from men in business and the success of the old boys' network. In the '80s there were women's groups with hundreds of members. In the '80s networking became a cliche. In the '90s, networking is alive and well and is still used for support. Today, women value mixed gender networks because they expose the individual to the men's management styles (Schmoller, 1991).

According to Shapiro et al., (1978) mentoring is important not only on the personal level but also on the institutional level. This colleague network allows mentors to expand their influence and to create longstanding relationships with "peer pals" who can then be turned to as members of an inner circle possessing knowledge of an informal history of the network. This colleague network becomes a problem for women because persons without shared similarities have difficulty being selected as a protege.

A study by Villani (1983) concluded that women mentors see a correlation between their success in overcoming internal and external barriers and their mentoring relationships.

Mentors typify the support system needed by women. The mentor is the experienced adult in an organization, one who leads, supports, and advises his protege. Women as proteges are often the 'only' and

according to Moore (1982) these women often cite their 'only' status as the reason they are not willing to function as mentors themselves. Another flaw of the protege, as explained by Moore, is that proteges are so focused in their careers as to be unaware of the mentor's game plan or even how they might be a part of a larger organizational plan. This narrowness of focus can lead to serious difficulties. However, when the mentor and protege system works well, the two become a team.

Valverde (1980) and Kanter (1977) suggest that the mentoring process largely excludes women. They state that men, not women, are usually selected as proteges because men most closely resemble those who will mentor them, other men.

Mulder (1983) suggests in her study using a human science approach, that while men administrators are in leadership roles, and where because of this setting they have access to information, women still experience the feeling of being outsiders in most educational settings. Specific sections of the study focus on women in varying administrative positions: elementary principal, assistant high school principal, central office administrator, district superintendent, and public and private college administrators. Sponsorships and role models for aspiring women administrators are few in the educational setting. In fact, some research indicates a lack of role models as a reason for women not advancing to administrative positions.

The study provides a perspective on the value of mentors and

networks as experienced by the women; the significance of personal and professional reinforcement and recognition is explored. The study suggests that while women administrators flourish in settings where more are in leadership positions they still experience the dilemma of being outsiders in organizations dominated by males.

Greenfield (1977) states that women are much less frequently sponsored and have less opportunity to be groomed for administration. However, for those women who were sponsored, there were benefits reported. Ayora (1981) stated that those sponsored were helped to maintain their emotional stability, acquire administrative skills, and develop communication networks. This exploratory study examines the career sponsorship of women school administrators. Those sponsored reported that their mentors helped them to acquire administrative skills and to develop communication networks. However, those sponsored tended to react negatively to the concept of sponsorship yet realized the importance of such an arrangement to their careers. In addition, those who were sponsored by men experienced, as a side effect, a connection to this power image (Henning and Jardim, 1976). On the other hand, if a female mentor can be found, aspiring women will find other benefits, among them: a model for a more appropriate administrative style, more personal support, how to balance the personal and the professional life, and an understanding of the problems women face.

"Female subordinates must be willing to support and take a

chance on female superiors and encourage their male peers to do likewise" (Martin, Harrison and Dinitto, 1983). Women who accede to important positions can inspire other women by mastering the techniques of leadership and group dynamics.

Dopp conducted a study in 1984-85 to investigate women superintendents regarding career paths. Mentorships were discussed from two points of view: mentors were either from within an educational setting or were influential persons outside of education. The majority of superintendents felt that mentors were helpful but not essential in reaching their goals. The mentors provided opportunities for personal and professional growth and ranged from fellow administrators to college professors. However, most important to these women was the support network of their families and spouses.

This study indicated that 50 percent of the superintendents felt gender was only a barrier to their first administrative position and not successive positions (Dopp, 1985). This response is in opposition to overwhelming evidence in the research literature that women do not become school administrators because of gender. The primary reason, according to Shakeshaft (1986) that women are not hired or permitted into administrative positions is solely the fact that they are female. Literally hundreds of studies have documented direct discrimination against women according to Shakeshaft. Studies of the role of women in school administration are fairly recent and few in number. However,

females who choose an administrative career path will face obstacles; one of these is social. The sheer paucity of numbers of female administrators presents a social obstacle.

Female role models in training institutions are scarce. Approximately 98 percent of the faculty in departments of education are men. Females also find little support in administrative classes because approximately 92 percent of all students in these classes are male (Cirincione-Coles, 1975).

Porat (1985) interviewed women administrators for her study and concluded that these women had no mentors or support groups until they had become administrators. The interviewees agreed that they lacked female role models. If mentors and sponsors were not important to their professional advancement, Porat asked how they achieved their administrative status. The interviewees replied that they simply blundered along, were in the right place at the right time and simply were not afraid of work. All the interviewees wished that women were more supportive of one another, would get into networking and support, and would become team players discarding jealousies.

Bowker, Hinkle and Worner (1983) studied administrative aspirations of male and female faculty members in land grant universities. Preferences for beginning level positions and those positions ultimately aspired to were explored. Some myths regarding women's administrative aspirations were refuted by the researchers'

analyses.

In colleges and universities, top-level administrative positions are held primarily by men. Of the women who become administrators, most tend to be in staff positions.

According to Smith, there is also the lack of support from women who have become successful administrators because they often see no problem and tend to disassociate themselves from women's support groups and women's interests. However, if they can be found, female mentors can be helpful to other women in some of the following ways:

1) Model a more appropriate administrative style

2) Provide more personal support; and

3) Understand the problems of women as a group (Smith, et al., 1982).

Nearly all research on women's aspiration levels has demonstrated a strong correlation between the level of aspiration and the expectation of support for the pursuit of the goal. Dias' (1976) study found that the best predictors of aspiration level for women were "expectancy of support."

The representation of women in administration is on the decline, the exception may be higher education where there is a slight increase (Bowker, Hinkle, Worner, 1983). A survey by the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges Report (1978) revealed that of 13,638 administrative positions, 21.3 percent were held by women. In

the same survey there was found to be a 30.5 percent increase in females in higher education. Despite the increases women are still under-represented. For women who are successful, there may be a support group or person who was significant to their success. What remains is to identify that group or person and the method of assistance.

Chapter III

METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methodology that was utilized in this study. There were four areas considered in this study: the theoretical framework, the instrumentation, the population, and the collection and analysis of the data.

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

The Glaser and Strauss book, The Discovery of Grounded Theory, 1967, served as the basis of this study. Glaser and Strauss put forth the idea that generating a theory from data means that most hypotheses and concepts not only come from data, but are systematically worked out in relation to the data during the process of research. Further, generating theory is a process. Theory is generated during the course of a study, according to the authors.

POPULATION

This research involved women high level administrators from selected public schools and central office settings. Twenty-one women were selected to be interviewed; only one declined to be interviewed. She was a high school principal in the Virginia Beach area; she stated that she declined to be interviewed because she did not use or need a network.

THE RESEARCH INSTRUMENT

Using structured interviews beginning with demographic questions, interviewees responded to queries about job attainment, bias, networks, and

alliances. The researcher studied respondents chosen in accordance to the emergent analytic framework. By interviewing one group, (in-place women administrators) the discovery of some basic categories and a few of their properties were revealed. This allows for the beginning of a theory. The generation of the theory was achieved through conformation analysis generated from the interviews. The researcher used a substantive theory and certain portions of formal theory for the concept and area of inquiry. The process of data analysis was controlled by the emerging theory.

THE COLLECTION OF DATA

Interviews were conducted with twenty in-place women administrators using questions developed by the researcher, suggested by college professors through consultations, and gleaned from previous research. The questions served to generate hypotheses from which theory was developed. The researcher began with demographic questions, proceeded to the interviewees' personal perceptions, and concluded with personal comments. While the researcher was looking for data regarding professional support groups and persons, the interviewees were not asked any specific questions concerning professional support groups or persons, namely; networks, mentors, alliances.

TREATMENT OF THE DATA

In grounded theory research, data interpretations are seldom conclusive and the research process is seldom finished according to Glaser and Strauss (1967). Research founded in grounded theory can continue for

a number of years; yet, there can also be drawn certain tentative conclusions or hypotheses upon which to base further research. The researcher can elect to gather data and from the data, develop one or more theories. This research consisted of a comparative analysis: women administrators and the development of a substantive theory based on interviews.

There are four approaches to the analysis of qualitative data:

1) The analysis of the data generated theoretical ideas by producing new categories, their properties, hypotheses and interrelated hypotheses. Grounded research cannot be confined to the practice of coding and analyzing the data, since in generating theory redesigning and reintegrating are constants. As a result, this researcher inspected the data for new properties and analyzed these properties.

2) To convert qualitative data into quantifiable form, the researcher coded first and then analyzed the data to test proof of a given proposition.

3) A combination of approach and style is the constant comparative method using the interview and open-ended questions. This style does not allow for discovery of the hypotheses, merely for provisional testing. Two analysts working with the same data are not guaranteed the same results in the constant comparative method.

4) A fourth approach is analytic induction which combines the first and second approaches. Analytic induction is concerned with generating and proving an integrated, limited, precise, universally applicable theory of causes accounting for a specific behavior, in this research the networking behavior of career women. This method tests a limited number of hypotheses with available data, consisting of clearly defined and carefully selected cases of the phenomena. Then, theory is generated, hypotheses reformulated, and redefinition occurs. Redefinition may occur as the researcher is confronted with cases that do not conform to the current formation.

The constant comparative method of qualitative analysis has four stages:

1) comparing applicable incidents

2) delimiting theory

3) integrating theories

4) writing theory

SUMMARY

Discussed within this chapter are theories of a grounded study, the approaches to be used, and the constant comparative method of analysis. Included in this chapter is the population to be studied, the collection and treatment of the data, and the possibility of generating new theory with the generated data. Participants were selected by the researcher for individual interviews, according to their success as defined by current research (positions held). The constant comparative method, with its approaches to be explained as the data were collected and coded, was used in the generation of theory. The main thrust of this study was the generation of new theory; the findings of the study are discussed in the next chapter.

Chapter IV

ANALYSIS AND RESULTS

This chapter contains an analysis of data from 20 interviews of in-place women administrators from the Southeastern Virginia area encompassing the cities of Virginia Beach, Chesapeake, Portsmouth, Suffolk, and Norfolk, and the counties of Isle of Wight and York; also included were two women division superintendents from the state of Virginia.

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS PARTICIPATING IN THE STUDY

The twenty interviewees were division superintendents, assistant superintendents, directors of instruction, coordinators, administrative assistants, and principals of junior high and senior high schools. Initial contact was made by telephone during which a brief explanation of the nature of the research was explained, and an appointment time and date was set. There was only one refusal. (Table 1)

DESCRIPTION OF PARTICIPATING EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATORS

This study examined a group of in-place, women administrators to determine what impact, if any, a network, professional support system, or alliance had on their careers and what perceptions they held regarding professional support systems. The data were gathered through an interview process.

The interviewees were typically married and had obtained a master's

degree. At least two of the interviewees had an advanced certificate and six held a doctorate. The years of experience ranged from thirty-three to seven. The majority of interviewees had been offered their present job; they did not make application. The demographic data convey images of the in-place woman administrator as married, possessing at least one advanced degree, and as having not applied for the current position. (Table 2)

The interview questions provided the basic data for analyzing the responses of the participants in this study. Components of the interview questions, which were discussed in Chapter II, measured certain demographic information, perceptions regarding current job placement, and bias regarding networks, alliances, and mentors.

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING JOB ATTAINMENT

When responding to the interview, the majority of interviewees did not rank their perceptions singly but instead clustered them as being least important or most important. Those job perceptions ranked most important were named by all respondents as being most important while those deemed least important were likewise named as least important by all respondents. All interviewees felt that communication skills, motivation to manage, knowledge and understanding of people, and knowledge of the job were the most important aspects of job attainment. Definition of goals, strategy planning, and priorities were viewed as the next most important cluster. Personal and career development, supportive environment and conferences and professional growth were viewed at least important by a

majority of the interviewees. (Table 4)

Table 1

The Number & Percentage of In-place Women Administrators Contacted and Participating in the Study

	Number	Percent
Administrators Participating	20	95.2
Administrators Refused	1	4.8
Administrators Contacted	21	100.0

Table 2

Description of Participating In-place
Women Administrators

Demographic Variables	Number	Percent
Total interviewees	20	100.0
Married	18	90.0
Formal Educational Level:		
Master's Degree	20	100.0
Advanced Certificate Degrees	2	10.0
Doctorate	6	30.0
Years Experience		
Over 25 years:	8	40.0
Under 25 years:	12	60.0

Table 3

Analyzing the Perceptions of In-place Women
Administrators Regarding Job Attainment

Perceptions Regarding Job Attainment	Number	Percent
Application was made	3	15
Offer was made prior to formal Application	17	85

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING BIAS

Most interviewees were offered their present jobs prior to making formal application. Two interviewees expressed that they showed interest in the job and were subsequently offered the job. Two interviewees expressed that their prior jobs simply evolved into their present jobs but overwhelmingly the interviewees felt that their present jobs were offered without benefit of formal application. (Table 3)

There was no overwhelming majority of interviewees (55%) who felt that they had been discouraged from aspiring to or acquiring positions.

However, some interviewees (45%) felt that there was discouragement from aspiring to and acquiring certain positions. They further elaborated that this discouragement could be covert, subtle, and not always deliberate in nature, perhaps the result of conservatism in certain geographical areas.

According to the interviewees, by an overwhelming majority, women do not aspire to all administrative positions in numbers equal to their representation in education. Eighty percent felt that women do not aspire to all positions, and they elaborated on their response sensing that the question was left open-ended to extract opinions concerning responses. The interviewees felt that women have few role models, are judged by their physical appearance, especially attractiveness, must deal with women who oppose other women as leaders, and must circumvent the 'super-woman syndrome.'

Since the interviewer was basing the perception questions on

research, an aside question was asked regarding bias. One such question was: Which positions are more readily available to women? The interviewees named those positions which research has held are traditionally filled by women: elementary principals, (coordinators of the gifted and special programs, and curriculum specialists) are positions readily available to aspiring women. According to the interviewees those positions most difficult to aspire to and to attain are secondary principal, assistant superintendent and division superintendent. (Table 7)

Eighty-five percent felt there is a lack of encouragement in some districts concerning advancement. A question asked in conjunction with the question concerning advancement was: What are some internal and external barriers to advancement?

Even though the interviewees maintained there was lack of encouragement in some districts they felt that women also imposed limitations on themselves and they identified these limitations. Such information when assessed by the grounded field theorist reveals speculative assumptions: the interviewees felt their barriers were internal, self-imposed limitations, these barriers were attitudes imposed by society, i.e., women as caretakers of the family and home. The external barriers were similar in nature: women were viewed as caregivers, lacking in decision making prowess, and certain myths were associated with their abilities to administrate. Therefore, a field theorist might speculate that certain assumptions are present in the minds of the interviewees: women

are responsible for their own administrative rise, yet barriers imposed externally negate personal aspirations and barriers imposed internally,

Table 4

Perceptions Regarding Job Attainment
Ranked From Most Important to Least Important

Ranked as Most Important

1)   Motivation to Manage

2)   Knowledge and Understanding of People

3)   Communication Skills

4)   Definition of Goals

5)   Strategy Planning

6)   Priorities

Ranked as Least Important

1)   Personal and Career Related Development

2)   Supportive Environment

3)   Conferences and Professional Growth

Table 5

Perceptions Regarding Bias

	Yes	No
Have you ever felt that you were discouraged/prevented from aspiring to and/or acquiring a position?	45%	55%
Do you feel that women aspire to all administrative positions equal to their representation in education?	20%	80%
Do you feel that there is a lack of encouragement in some districts concerning advancement?	85%	15%

also limit advancement. The conclusion, while yet to be drawn, certainly suggests profound limitations even on in-place women administrators. (Table 5)

PERCEPTIONS REGARDING NETWORKS, ALLIANCES, MENTORS

The interviewees stated that they most definitely had a person helpful to them in obtaining their present positions and more often than not that person, their mentor, was a man. In no instance did an interviewee mention a women who was instrumental in obtaining positions.

Interviewees were almost evenly divided on being part of a formal organization. Those organizations named were strictly women's organizations or combination organizations. Women's organizations named were as follows: professional women's networks, professional sororities, junior leagues and the Coalition of Black Women. Organizations which have both women and men as members were also named: National Educational Association, NASSP (National Association of Secondary School Principals) and the ASCD (Association of Supervision and Curriculum Development). When asked if an informal supportive organization existed in their divisions 75 percent felt such an organization existed but only 50 percent felt that it was effective. This attitude is echoed by corporate women as late as 1987 and reflected in research which stated that in the South, almost three out of four women said that networking or joining professional women's groups had not helped advance their careers.

It was felt by the interviewees that promotions were mostly internal,

a fact they found to be fair in practice.

In-state universities, it was felt, exerted little influence over promotions in most districts. Business professionals were felt to exert a little more power concerning promotions, 60 percent.

According to the women interviewed, other professional women did support them but not through formal organizations. Sixty-five percent of the respondents felt the support of other women but they added that the support was through phone calls, lunches, and personal visits, not through organized meetings.

Interviewees felt that formal and informal organizations were of little if any value in job attainment. However, they had definite perceptions about attributes that did aid them in job attainment: hard work, academic credentials, initiative, demonstrated ability, image projected, persistence, stubbornness, the gaining of respect by other educators, recognition in the community, the abilities to communicate effectively and to make decisions were mentioned by respondents.

When asked how they felt about professional support systems 70 percent said they never utilized them while 30 percent said that professional support systems were of little to moderate value. Support systems, according to the interviewees were seen as sources of information and of personal support but not as helpful in actual job attainment.

The in-place women administrators all began as teachers and most were either department chairpersons or assistant principals - from the

position of assistant principal they became coordinators, supervisors, principals and directors. While only three interviewees were assistant superintendents, one of which was the first woman assistant superintendent in the Hampton Roads area; at the time of the interview, there were only three women assistant superintendents in the Hampton Roads area. Two of the interviewees were superintendents, at the time of the interview, one in the Hampton Roads area and one slightly beyond the Hampton Roads area. The interviewer went beyond the immediate Hampton Roads area to broaden the research base since to interview only one woman superintendent would have been too narrow a sample. (Table 7)

SUMMARY OF INTERVIEW ANALYSES

This chapter contains the findings of the interviewer based on personal interviews with 20 in-place women administrators. The interview questions were based on questions previously researched regarding demographics, job attainment, bias, networks, alliances and mentors. The interviewer tabulated responses and used percentages to gather information about perceptions held by in-place women administrators. Since grounded field theory was to be the method used to draw conclusions, and make recommendations, further manipulation of the percentages was not required. Grounded field theory uses perceptions to generate theoretical ideas - new ideas and their properties, hypotheses and interrelated hypotheses; thus it cannot be confined to the coding and analyzing of data.

Table 6

Perceptions Regarding Networks, Alliances, Mentors

	Yes	No
Did you have a person who was helpful to you in obtaining your present position?	100%	0
Are you part of a formal, supportive organization?	35%	45%
Do you believe an informal supportive organization exists in your district?	75%	25%
Do you feel that this supportive structure is effective?	50%	50%

	External	Internal
Are promotions in your district mostly external or internal?	30%	70%

	Yes	No
Does an in-state university exert any power concerning promotions?	15%	75%
Do business professionals exert power in your district?	40%	60%
Do the women of your district utilize the support of other women?	65%	35%

Table 7

Positions Held by In-Place Women Administrators

at Some Point in Their Careers

Teachers	20	100%
Department Chairperson	15	75%
Assistant Principal	16	80%
Principal	6	30%
Director	5	25%
Supervisor	6	30%
Coordinator	4	20%
Assistant Superintendent	3	15%
Superintendent	2	10%

Chapter V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, HYPOTHESES, IMPLICATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS AND COMMENTS

Chapter V includes a summary of the study, hypotheses which have been generated, theories, conclusions, implications, and recommendations.

SUMMARY OF DEMOGRAPHIC ANALYSIS

The demographic sampling of the interviewees revealed that most in-place women administrators were married, had varying years of experience, and at least one graduate degree. The analytic induction approach to grounded theory yields the following data: in-place women administrators are alike in marital status and degrees earned but not in years of experience.

The respondents did not apply for their jobs but were encouraged to apply or offered their jobs prior to making application. A provisional hypotheses might be generated from this data: most women administrators are asked to apply for positions; therefore, those who are not asked to apply or offered a position must reevaluate their status as an applicant.

A list of perceptions regarding job attainment were used by the interviewer to assess which skills and factors were deemed important by the interviewees. The interviewer preferred not to rank each item but instead clustered the items as value was designated. From the

designations assigned the researcher could hypothesize several theories: 1) knowledge of the job and communication skills are more important than a supportive environment; 2) planning goals and establishing priorities are of medium importance; and 3) attending conferences and experiencing professional growth through conferences are of least importance to professional women educators.

The interviewees were asked their perceptions regarding bias and according to their responses certain biases did emerge. The respondents felt they had been discouraged from applying or aspiring to certain positions; particularly those positions seen as male dominated, for example, the principalship at a secondary school, the assistant superintendency and the superintendency. Further, the respondents stated that women limit themselves by not simply forging ahead and becoming more aggressive, earning more academic credentials, making their aspirations known, and fostering support in the community. According to the interviewees, whose statements echo research on the matter, certain positions are more readily available to women: elementary school principal, coordinators of gifted and talented and other coordinator positions such as federal programs.

Interviewees further stated that there was lack of encouragement in some districts relative to advancements but that men, who served as mentors, a word not mentioned to the respondents nor used by them, encouraged and even recommended them to fill positions. As research

has indicated, it is men who recommend, train, and aid women in job aspiration and acquisition, a fact borne out by research on mentors and reiterated by the interviewees.

Mentioned by the respondents were certain barriers to advancement both internal and external, self-imposed and imposed by societal stereotypes. The interviewees saw themselves and other women as limiting and limited by bias. Society, historically , has placed women in the category of family caregiver, keeper of the home, and guardian of social values and morals. The professional women finds herself trying to maintain the traditional lifestyle while forging ahead with the non-traditional lifestyle of day care for children, double incomes, mechanized house care or housekeeper, fast food or microwaved meals, and a career sometimes coupled with graduate school. Research has chronicled the lives of these super women and their stress in trying to "have it all." Women, particularly professional women, create barriers to their own advancement by trying to be everything to everyone, the "super woman syndrome."

Women, according to the interviewees, also met barriers imposed upon them by other women. Again, research has suggested that women do not like to work for other women preferring instead to work for men. This bias may be stereotypical in nature as the professional women is often seen as too aggressive, too demanding - the same traits which serve a man well. Yet, much has been written about the fair, effective,

leadership of a woman administrator.

External barriers to advancement were pinpointed as school divisions, led by male superintendents, with male board members, who could not envision women in leadership roles particularly at the secondary level, the assistant superintendency and in particular at the level of division superintendent. The respondents felt that without the help or guidance of other males, advancement was more difficult. The majority of interviewees stated they had been aided in their career advancement by men. A hypothesis would be stated thusly: Men who serve as mentors to women are more effective than women's networks, alliances, or support systems.

The interviewees mentioned men as being helpful in obtaining their current positions and their perceptions about networks indicated that such alliances were largely ineffective in career placement or advancement.

Formal organizations, while named by the respondents, were not seen as a career plus but instead were viewed as vehicles for "moral support" and did not actually facilitate job advancement. However, the names of several organizations were given which serve as networks for women: a women's coalition and a professional women's network. Other organizations were named but they are national, state, and regional educational organizations and they are not exclusive to women. The respondents felt that these organizations, while meaningful, in

terms of information learned and exchanged, were not necessary in terms of advancement.

The respondents did believe that an informal supportive organization existed and some gave it a title, "the good old boy's network." Some respondents indicated that they were supported by the network and some felt that they had yet to obtain support. The respondents felt that the structure, the women's network, was supportive but not particularly effective. The interviewees felt that inclusion in or association with the "good old boy's network" was more effective than participation in a woman's network. The women's networks and alliances were seen as support systems and information centers not as facilitators to job advancement. Research indicates that women's networks and alliances serve primarily as support systems. The respondents felt that a supportive structure was certainly effective in sharing information and job experience but not in job attainment or advancement.

Respondents' perceptions concerning promotions indicate that internal promotions are standard in most divisions with no divisions promoting externally to a greater degree than they promoted internally. However, promotion policies give no advantage to professional women be they external or internal in nature. The respondents did not feel that they received any advantage relative to promotion policies.

Interviewees did not feel that an in-state university exerted any

power concerning promotions on a large scale. However, some did feel that certain universities exerted power in their school divisions. For the most part, these were small rural divisions where perhaps applicants were not as numerous and personal recommendations carried more impact. Respondents from larger divisions said there was no pressure exerted from universities and if there was any pressure the results were negligible.

Interviewees were asked if business professionals exerted any pressure concerning promotions in their divisions. According to the respondents, business exerts some pressure in some divisions but, again, the results are negligible. The smaller the division the more likely such a circumstance would occur, according to the respondents.

Business and business professionals seem to leave the running of a school division to those who represent the division.

The respondents felt that hard work, knowledge, and ability contributed to the attainment of their present positions. However, they mentioned other important factors: the ability to communicate effectively, the ability to rise above the competition by accomplishing large amounts of work, sponsorship by a mentor, usually male, determination, and persistence. The respondents felt that they had to work harder, exhibit more intellectual capacity and demonstrate their decision making skills before they were taken seriously as candidates for administrative positions. These are factors that are reiterated in

current research.

Professional support systems such as networks and alliances were not deemed important to job attainment or promotion but were important in terms of sharing information. Perhaps women have learned to see their own organizations primarily as social clubs, luncheon groups, and information lenders rather than as true networks to advancement. Mentors are deemed more important by the respondents than are their own networks or professional support groups.

SUMMARY OF NETWORK ANALYSIS

The primary purpose of this study was to ascertain whether or not in-place professional, women educators used a network, a system of alliances, or a mentor to aid them in professional advancement.

The Discovery of Grounded Theory by Glaser and Strauss was the basis for this study which maintains that theories are generated from data and are systematically worked out in relation to the data during the process of research. Theory is to be generated during the course of a study, new theory, which may or may not be currently recorded. Theory which is a part of current research may also emerge but be viewed in a different context. Therefore, this study was essentially to expand knowledge concerning professional, women educators.

Interview questions were developed from available research, suggestions by certain college professors, and the researcher,

interviewer's input. Through interviews with in-place, women administrators the discovery of some basic categories and their properties were revealed through comparative analysis, substantive and formal theory for the conceptual area of inquiry. Data analysis was maintained through tabling of percentages. The percentages resulted from the interviewees' responses to questions.

Analysis of the data included the tabulating responses and presentation in table form. Also included in the analyses were hypotheses generated from the responses.

CONCLUSIONS AND HYPOTHESES

This study generated theory in the form of hypotheses from interviews of in-place, professional, women educators and their utilization of networks, professional alliances, and mentors. From the data seven hypotheses have emerged; a statement of each hypothesis generated from the data and conclusions follow:

A. Knowledge of the job and communication skills are more important than a supportive environment in job attainment. The data did support knowledge and communication as more important than a supportive environment. Each respondent felt that the ability to communicate, assume large work loads and broaden their knowledge base was important to being recognized as a potential leader. As indicated by previous research, the respondents also acknowledged that families

and spouses supported their job aspirations. This support was viewed as important to the professional woman's personal well-being more than to actual job attainment. (Table 1)

B. Planning goals and establishing priorities are of median importance when ranked with most important and least important attributes to obtaining a job. The data supported goals and priorities as being of (median) importance. Research supports the hypotheses that professional women establish priorities and establish goals but the definition and pursuit of goals is not a top priority. Women who were interviewed, as well as women who were reported in research, indicated that their jobs were not attained as a result of goal setting but rather being in the right place, or being offered the position. (Table 2)

C. Attending conferences and experiencing professional growth through conferences are of least importance in job attainment. The data supported the rank of least importance to attending conferences and professional growth. Although an administrator could utilize conferences to network and form alliances, this professional experience was ranked least important by women educators in job attainment.

D. There is lack of encouragement by school divisions for

women who aspire to jobs held primarily by men. The perceptions held by professional women educators supports this theory. Research supports the hypotheses that school divisions do not encourage women; in fact, neither do school board members, male or female, division superintendents, or other hiring personnel.

E. Barriers to advancement are internal and external, self-imposed and those imposed historically and traditionally by society. The responses of the interviewees indicate that barriers do exist. Barriers do exist for women as indicated by the hypotheses. It remains for additional barriers to be defined; some already have been defined: societal expectations, sex equality, traditional mores, resistance from the community, lack of experience (central office, secondary), lack of geographical mobility, and lack of role models.

F. Women do not utilize networks or alliances in their professional careers, but they do have mentors. The respondents, without exception, had male mentors. Women administrators do not utilize networks, organizations, or alliances to aid in job attainment. However, the respondents do report having depended on male mentors in the pursuance and attainment of their positions. Research supports the hypotheses that mentors are usually male. This

supposition has proven to be accurate for several reasons: in the educational hierarchy, males dominate, female mentors are reluctant to mentor other females, females who reach supervisory positions did not feel that a network had been important in job attainment. The hypotheses tend to substantiate other research which indicates that women do not utilize networks or alliances but do have mentors.

G. Promotion policies and university and business pressure to promote represent negligible results on a professional woman's career. The hypotheses concerning promotion policy is substantiated by research involving interviewees. Most women administrators felt that being in the right place at the right time, "working up through the ranks," encouragement or persuasion from others and simply completing large amounts of work were the reasons they were promoted. The women who were interviewed did not feel that outside influences such as businesses, universities, and division policies exerted much pressure even though they were aware of internal and external power structures.

The responses of the participants concerning perceptions regarding bias are important even though a certain amount of subjectivity is involved, and this bias may need to be investigated in the future. Respondents felt they had been discouraged from applying for

and from receiving jobs based on bias. They perceived a definite bias against women holding certain positions in a school division, from aspiring to positions and from receiving equal encouragement concerning certain positions.

The perceptions of the respondents regarding networks, alliances and mentors support, for the most part, research already established; mentors are male; few professional educators belong to womens' networks; womens' networks are viewed as supportive alliances rather than career facilitators. The effects of universities, businesses, and communities on the careers of women are minimal and perhaps should be studied in further research.

The main difficulty with examining perceptions may be their qualitative versus their quantitative nature; measurement presents an illusive task. Measuring perceptions requires the use of subjective judgments. Though the interviewees responded, almost in kind, to questions regarding their perceptions, the conclusions to be derived are complex, situational and subjective.

IMPLICATIONS

The conclusions presented previously have implications concerning the theory used as the basis of the study, other literature cited, and the utilization of networks, alliances, and mentors by in-place, women educators.

Glaser and Strauss' book, <u>The Discovery of Grounded Field</u>

Theory, contains the basic theory behind the study, which maintains that generating a theory from data means that most hypotheses and concepts come from the research process. Theory is generated during the course of a study.

The data revealed that the women educators in the study were offered their jobs or encouraged to apply for their jobs prior to making application. The implication for those seeking an administrative appointment is that these jobs are offered and the actual application procedure is a formality.

The work load, knowledge of the job, communicating and relating to people were perceived as the most important aspects of job attainment. A theory surfaces at this juncture which maintains that certain aspects of job performance lead to sponsorship, usually within a division. Therefore, if a woman exhibits certain performance behaviors, she will be sponsored by someone, offered a position or suggested for an applicant. Personal and career related development, attending conferences and a supportive environment were given the least status as a vehicle to job attainment. The implication for those who seek administrative positions is that work load, knowledge and communication are important but so is support by someone. Though the word, mentor, wasn't used in the questions, the responses clearly indicate each respondent had someone who was helpful in obtaining her present position. The data further revealed that this helpful person was

a male. Since males usually operate from the male network the implication is that a male, not a female network, was an enabling factor in job attainment. Clearly, according to the data, aspiring women require a male mentor or mentors to circumvent bias to their job aspirations. The perceptions of the interviewees regarding bias were that they were discouraged from aspiring to certain positions, namely higher level central office positions and secondary positions, that there were internal and external barriers to advancement. These barriers, according to the data, are self-imposed, but are also societal developments. Implications concerning societal developments are so complex that a study will have little if any impact on change; however, continued study may create awareness.

Womens' alliances or networks, while supportive in nature, are not career facilitators. A concerted effort by women on behalf of women would serve to further the bargaining power of professional networks.

Womens' networks are supportive in nature according to the data in this study. In-state universities and business professionals are not exerting pressure to promote; however, if womens' networks were more energetic in their desire to serve as career facilitators perhaps the academic and business communities would buy in to the concept of networks for women. Sublety of approach is also to be considered since the respondents in the study felt that professional support systems (networks) had been of little use. Implications are that perhaps

networks need to reconsider options, re-evaluate current procedures, and alter ineffective practices.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The conclusions and implications of the results of this study lead to recommendations for professional, women educators, their utilization of networks and for further research involving the phenomena of women, their professional networks, alliances, mentors and career aspirations.

The relationship between networks, other professional alliances and women educators' career aspirations indicates that women educators do not utilize networks to further their careers. According to this study, women educators use networks for emotional support but in fact do have male mentors not female mentors. Women should examine their professional networks to reevaluate their effectiveness and begin to develop methods to increase their role in the careers of the professional women who belong to the network. Perhaps an underlying bias exists on the part of women which concerns their colleagues, other women. For women, professional networks cannot copy the "good old boy's network" which is a social situation leading to career enhancement. The womens' network must in some way make career enhancement a goal since the social aspect is already a major portion of womens' networks.

Responses by interviewees indicated they were offered their

present positions before seeking to make application. It is recommended that prospective candidates for positions make their aspirations known, begin to build alliances, and make contacts with those persons who may make decisions about promotions.

In addition, a prospective job candidate must make herself knowledgeable about the job she aspires to or excel in her current job, develop an understanding of people, and be able to communicate effectively since those skills are perceived as most important in job attainment. Planning and developing goals and strategies are viewed as next in importance. It is recommended that women have a goal in mind, a plan, and a strategy for reaching that goal. While personal and career related development and professional conferences are necessary to the professional educator, it is recommended that these skills not be given as much consideration as those previously mentioned. A supportive environment is not deemed important according to the responses; therefore, it is recommended that women learn to manipulate their alliances and networks and to become more career oriented in terms of professional alliances.

Respondents felt that they were discouraged from aspiring to certain positions, primarily secondary and central office positions. It is recommended that women let their aspirations be known and then set about to prepare themselves, academically and professionally including seeking the sponsorship of decision makers.

Also, because the responses indicated that women did not aspire to all positions, did not receive encouragement, and faced both internal and external barriers, it is recommended that women prepare themselves for leadership by aligning with sponsors, or mentors, by preparing themselves academically and by making their aspirations known. Women should also recognize internal and external barriers and strive to overcome internal barriers which are self-limiting and external barriers imposed by society and tradition.

Recognizing that informal, supportive organizations exist lends credence to the idea of alliances and networks. It is recommended that women expand the utility of such organizations so that their effectiveness is improved.

According to the respondents, businesses and universities exert little power concerning promotions but aspiring women should utilize resources available at businesses and in universities to aid them in their career aspirations. These resources may be alliances with people, information exchanges, or further academic preparation.

The respondents felt that alliances and networks had not really aided their career aspirations. The interviewees felt that their own hard work had enabled them to attain certain positions, yet the majority of the respondents stated that someone had in fact helped them; the person who helped them was male, thus the mentor factor is a reality. It is recommended that professional women understand that while hard

work, knowledge of job, and communication are important factors an equally important factor is sponsorship by a mentor or mentors. If a mentor or sponsor can aid in career aspirations, then a network of sponsors or alliances could be effective also since the same principles apply: sponsorship, initiation to the ranks, and personal networks.

RECOMMENDATIONS

One recommendation for further research on the topic of networks, alliances, and mentors is to interview persons who were sponsors and mentors, also members of networking organizations, to ascertain their perceptions regarding professional women educators, bias, and career development. Sponsors and mentors may also be able to critique women's organizations and their effectiveness. Since mens' networks have proven to be effective, such a study may improve womens' networks.

Another recommendation for further research is to explore networks and alliances in greater depth. Since the sample of interviewees in this study was Virginians, the findings may be skewed. If in-place women administrators from other states were interviewed or queried about their perceptions regarding networks, perhaps other factors would be revealed concerning the effectiveness of networks. Additionally, questions need to be asked and answered concerning how to make a network effective.

The demographic data of the study also suggest the need for

further research to expand the picture of the in-place woman administrator. Included in the data could be the following: Do you have children? What are their ages? Please state your ethnic background. Do you reside in the division for which you work? Further research concerning the demographics of in-place women administrators may help to identify the profile of the successful woman administrator.

In addition, further research may generate even more hypotheses concerning networks and possibly reveal answers to bias. Why aren't more women encouraged to apply for jobs? How can self-imposed limitations and societal developments be rendered obsolete or at least represent a negligible effect on womens' careers? Why aren't more school divisions open to women at the central office and secondary levels? Why aren't womens' networks as effective as mens' networks? Why do women devalue the support of other women relative to career advancement?

Because womens' networks, and their impact on the careers of in-place women administrators is such a new concept, a relatively unresearched topic, many questions are left unanswered and all future studies could further examine the phenomena of womens' networks. Such research could be used for the benefit of all professional women and may generate answers to career related questions.

COMMENTS

There has been a rise in the number of women superintendents from one percent in 1973 to five percent in 1991. In comparing secondary positions, Frasher and Frasher (1979) reported that women held only 12.9 percent of all principal positions. Lyman and Speizer (1980) reported women were three percent of high school principals. Yet, administrators come from the teacher ranks who are predominantly women.

The percentage of women in school administration is less than the percentage of women in 1905. Women have seldom attained the most powerful and prestigious administrative positions in schools, and the gender structure of males as managers and females as workers has remained relatively stable for the past 100 years. (Shakeshaft, 1987)

Moran (1992) asks in the American School Board Journal if female employees are bumping against a glass ceiling. She further states that even though over the past three decades school boards have been prompted in part by federal law to make changes in policies governing maternity leave, job qualifications, affirmative action, and pay equity, discrimination still exists. In the 1990s with the passage of the Civil Rights Act, perhaps boards need to practice equal opportunity employment. Numbers would suggest according to Moran (1992) that although many school systems have made strides, complaints of sex discrimination have risen. Job patterns suggest discrimination exists. Although women account for more than half of the students working toward doctorates in education administration, fewer than five percent of the nations superintendents are women. And although more than

two-thirds of teachers are women, nearly 80 percent of principals are men. School boards are going to have to address some serious issues: how executive positions are filled, how employees are encouraged, trained, and possibly mentored.

In higher education from 1978 to 1987 the number of women filling administrative posts at state and land grant institutions increased by one percent, from 21.3 percent to 22.3 (NASULGC, 1992).

Unfortunately, more women with doctorates are turning away from teaching as their primary vocation after graduation. (Association of American Colleges, 1990)

According to a survey jointly conducted by the American School Board Journal and Virginia Tech, school administration, like school board service, remains the preserve of white males. Men seem to have a corner on the superintendency (92.5 percent) and the high school principalship (92.4 percent) but women are better represented among junior high (23.0 percent) and elementary school principals (37.2 percent). The percentage of women on school boards has decreased to 34.7 percent in 1991. (1991)

In the decade of the 1990s much remains to be seen regarding equal access to positions of power for women. Clearly there is a glass ceiling according to Moran and it begins in the school building, blocks the way to central office, and impacts on school boards. (1992)

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APPENDIX A

INTERVIEW-QUESTIONS

Demographic sampling

a) married

b) degrees

c) years experience

d) applications and offers (concerning the current position). Did you make application for the position or was it offered?

Perceptions-regarding attainment   (rank from most to least important)

a) knowledge of job

b) motivation to manage

c) communication skills

d) knowledge and understanding of people

e) definition of goals

f) strategy planning

g) personal and career related development

h) conferences/professional growth

i) priorities

j) supportive environment

Perceptions regarding bias

a) Have you ever felt that you were discouraged/prevented from aspiring to and/or acquiring a position?

b) Do you feel women aspire to all administrative positions in equal numbers? Which positions are more readily available to women?

c)   Do you feel there is a lack of encouragement in some districts concerning advancement?

d)   What are some barriers to advancement?

Perceptions regarding networks, alliances, mentors

a)   Did you have a person who was helpful to you in obtaining your present position?

b)   Are you a part of a formal, supportive organization? Name the organization.

c)   Do you believe an informal supportive organization exists in your district?

d)   Do you feel that this supportive structure is effective?

e)   In your opinion, are promotions in your district mostly external or internal?

f)   Does an in-state university near you exert any power concerning promotions?

g)   Do business professionals exert any power in your district?

h)   Do the women in your district utilize the support of other women?

i)   In what manner has an organization formal or informal helped you?

j)   What do you feel has contributed to the attainment of your present position?

k)   How do you feel about professional support systems?

l)   Please list the positions you have held and the number of years you served in each position.

VITA

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SUMMARY:

Life-long investment in learning and in teaching others to learn. Special competencies include outstanding human relations abilities complemented by effective leadership qualities view excellence and a job well done as top priorities when leading or teaching others. Personal qualities include honesty, fairness, responsibility, loyalty and integrity.

EXPERIENCE/VARIED ACTIVITIES:

1986-present	Assistant Principal Virginia Beach City Public Schools, Virginia Beach, Virginia
1983-1985	Teacher of English Smithfield High School, Isle of Wight County, Virginia
1977-1983	Teacher of English John Yeates High School, Suffolk, Virginia
1979-1980	Reading Specialist Driver Middle School, Suffolk, Virginia

EDUCATION:

1983-1992	Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University

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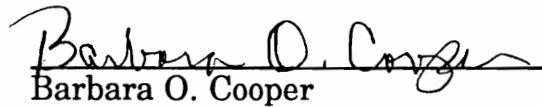|	
	* Varied courses for professional endorsements
1977-1980	Old Dominion University
	* M.S., Education (Reading Specialist)
1973-1977	Old Dominion University
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CERTIFICATION:

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PERSONAL DATA:

Married; one child

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