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Identity

Marilyn L. Grady
Barbara Y. LaCost

Women's efforts to be recognized for their work have been seemingly endless. Often women are referred to as the 51% in the United States. Their work, however, is often invisible.

One of the built-in invisibility cloaks is the practice of women changing their last names throughout their adult years. This, alone, makes it difficult to establish an identity.

Consider the mobility of U.S. society. Because mobility is high, it is difficult to keep track of individuals.

The move to cell phones and the termination of land lines, means that until a cell phone directory is printed, we will have a difficult time finding individuals through telephone directories. I am reminded of being in Moscow, Russia in 1993. At that time in a city of 10 million people, the most populous city in Europe, there was no telephone directory. One needed to know someone who "knew" the number and had either memorized it or written it on a piece of paper.

I sent a congratulatory email to a colleague who I had been told had married recently. Of course the email was returned to me as undeliverable. Obviously a name change caused the email's undeliverable status, and the email was not "forwarded" to a new address.

Now I know I can find this person, but it sure does slow down communication.

The university takes great effort in upgrading our email system. The result of this practice is that I have an "old" email address and a "new" email address. For the more neurotic individuals I have contact with, this means they send all messages to both addresses because they have no way of knowing which is the correct or current address.

When I complained about these issues at work, a colleague pointed out that for \$27 there is a service that will find anyone you want found. That statement caused me to remember a friend from my undergraduate days who is a private investigator. I have an idea of the work he does. Do I want to subject my colleagues to his type of work? Is finding someone worth \$27?

Bernita Krumm commented that it was difficult to write about Susan LaFlesch Picotte because she needed to be identified as LaFlesch in her early years and Picotte in her married years. This makes for awkward writing.

For women who have been unrecognized for their work in education, being lost due to name changes, phone changes, and email changes does not seem to be very helpful to the cause of recognizing the work of the 51%. We have had enough invisibility and enough flying around like ivory-billed woodpeckers.

Proposals for presentations at the *20th Annual Women in Educational Leadership Conference* are being accepted! The conference will be October 8-9, 2006, in Lincoln, Nebraska. For information about the conference or proposal guidelines contact Marilyn Grady at mgrady1@unl.edu

Women in History

Dr. Susan LaFlesche Picotte: American Physician and Heroine

Bernita L. Krumm

Susan LaFlesche, youngest child in a family of one son and four daughters of Mary and Joseph LaFlesche, was born in 1865 on the Omaha reservation near Macy in northeastern Nebraska. LaFlesche was of mixed cultures, French and Native American. Her mother, Mary (One Woman), was a daughter of Dr. John Gale and Ni-co-mi of the Iowa tribe; Joseph, also known as Iron Eye (E-sta-mah-za), was a son of Joseph LaFlesche, a French trader and his wife, a woman of the Ponca tribe. Iron Eye was the last recognized chief of the Omaha and the last to become chief under the old Omaha rituals; he was the adopted son of Chief Big Elk, the First, of the Omahas.

Iron Eyes believed American culture would overwhelm Omaha culture; he encouraged education for all tribal members and peaceful cohabitation with the white peoples. LaFlesche learned from her father, gaining an eagerness to learn and a desire to help others. As a child, she rode her pony over the rolling prairie hills by the Missouri River and helped with family chores. Between 1870 and 1879 she attended the mission and government schools on the reservation; prior to attending school, LaFlesche did not speak English.

Several accounts record that at a very young age LaFlesche witnessed an incident involving a Caucasian doctor who refused to care for a dying Native American woman. She was inspired by that incident to become a physician, ultimately becoming the first Native American woman to earn a medical degree. LaFlesche recognized the difficulties of being part of both cultures and sought a way to help the Omaha people.

In 1879 LaFlesche and her sister, Marguerite, went to the Elizabeth Institute for Young Ladies in New Jersey where their older sister Susette had previously attended. Picotte attended the institute for three years, studying philosophy, physiology, and literature. She graduated in 1882 at age 17, and taught at the Quaker Mission School on the Omaha Reservation from 1882 to 1884.

About the Author

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While at the Quaker Mission School, LaFlesche attended to the health of Alice Fletcher, an anthropologist and Native American advocate who also worked at the school. Susan expressed her desire to learn the skills necessary to help people medically. Fletcher suggested she go to college at Hampton Institute (now Hampton University), known for its Native American outreach agenda. Along with two of her sisters, LaFlesche attended Hampton Normal and Agricultural Institute in Virginia from 1884 to 1886. She graduated as salutatorian of her class in May of 1886 and received a gold medal for high scholastic achievement.

With the help of Dr. Martha M. Waldron, the school doctor at Hampton Institute, LaFlesche entered the Women's Medical College in Philadelphia in 1886. The Women's National Indian Association, founded in 1880, had begun a program of financing professional training for talented Indians. This program provided financial aid for Susan to attend the Women's Medical College. She completed the three-year course in two years and graduated in 1889 at the top of her class of 36 students. Not quite 24 years of age, LaFlesche became the first formally educated Native American woman physician.

After interning for one year at Women's Hospital in Philadelphia, Dr. LaFlesche returned to the reservation to become a physician for the government school at the Omaha Agency. Later her medical services were extended to the rest of the tribe. This was a daunting task, for the Omaha population of over 1200 was scattered throughout the reservation lands and horseback was the principal means of transportation. Dr. LaFlesche often served as health teacher and nurse as well as physician, treating patients who suffered from cholera, dysentery, and influenza. She was committed and conscientious in her labors, but the work was difficult. In 1893, after four years she resigned her position as the government doctor.

In the summer of 1894, LaFlesche married Henry Picotte who was half Sioux and half French in ancestry, and added the Picotte name to her own.

They moved to Bancroft, Nebraska, where she started a private practice treating Native and non-Native patients and cared for her ailing mother. Although she suffered from a painful, degenerative bone disease, Dr. Picotte traveled to her patients by day and received them in her home at night, treating all who needed help, regardless of their race. She adopted Christianity, and became a missionary of the Omaha Blackbird Hills Presbyterian Church. The Picottes had two sons, Caryl and Pierre. In 1905 Henry died of complications related to alcoholism; Dr. Picotte, along with her sons and her mother, moved to the newly formed community of Walthill to live near her sister, Marguerite Diddock.

Picotte was active in the Walthill community, involved in community and church affairs and the women's club. She helped found the Thurston County Medical Association and became the county health officer and a member of the State Medical Association. She lobbied the state legislature for better public health laws, worked to fight alcoholism on the Omaha reservation, and lectured in favor of temperance. In 1906 Dr. Picotte headed a delegation to Washington, DC, to fight against the sale of liquor in Nebraska. The delegation succeeded in gaining the stipulation that every deed for property in towns established on the Omaha and Winnebago reservations should forever prohibit the sale of liquor.

In addition to her medical career, Dr. Picotte was a public health advocate and a civil rights activist. She became a spokesperson for her people, battling government bureaucracy and working for economic, social, and spiritual advancement of Native Americans. She lectured in the United States and Europe with her sister Suzette to provide information about the problems that confronted Indian people. Dr. Picotte campaigned against the trust system, which held tribal property in trust by the federal government; she believed the trust system was detrimental to Indian self determination.

Dr. Picotte was the only Indian ever appointed as a medical missionary by the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions. Under its sponsorship in January of 1913, Dr. Picotte used grants and donations to open a new hospital on the reservation in Walthill. However, her involvement with the hospital was cut short when she underwent surgery to alleviate pain from bone disease (an infection of her facial bones); she died due to complications on September 18, 1915, at 50 years of age. She was buried in Bancroft, Nebraska.

After Dr. Picotte's death, the hospital was renamed in her honor; it continued to serve patients until the late 1940s and for a time thereafter it served as a care center for the elderly. In 1989 the building was restored and in 1993 it was designated as a National Historic Landmark. The Susan

LaFlesche Picotte Center now houses a museum dedicated to Dr. Picotte's work and the history of the Omaha and Winnebago tribes.

Susan LaFlesche Picotte walked in two cultures and, by any measure, served as a model for both. She overcame incredible obstacles to become the first Native American woman doctor in the United States. Most estimates agree that in 25 years she treated every member of the Omaha tribe. She dedicated her life to the service of others; she is without a doubt the true American heroine.

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AFRICAN AMERICAN FEMALE COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY PRESIDENTS: CAREER PATHS TO THE PRESIDENCY

Sandra Jackson
Sandra Harris

The purpose of this study was to investigate the career paths and educational preparation of African American female college presidents. Forty-three of the 59 college presidents responded to a Likert-type survey. Findings indicated that African American female college presidents were more likely to hold a doctorate in education and came to the presidency from a variety of positions, often from other institutions or outside of education.

African American women are underrepresented in higher education leadership roles (Ross & Green, 2000; Ross, Green & Henderson, 1993; Rusher, 1996; Touchton & Davis, 1991; Walton, 1996). Although there are qualified, interested and capable African American females in the education field (Grogan, 1996; McFarlin, Crittenden, & Ebberts, 1999), few African American females hold the position of college president. Edwards-Wilson (1998) concluded that a disparity exists even in the lack of studies available regarding African American females in higher education leadership positions.

This void makes it difficult to obtain a clear picture outlining previous preparation, career paths, experiences and perceptions of barriers that African American female junior college and four-year institution presidents have experienced to ascend to the presidency. With a limited number of African American female college and university presidents, it is extremely difficult for aspiring African American female leaders to find African American role models who have been successful in breaking through the barriers of race and gender.

During the 1970s and 1980s, researchers noted that women who sought leadership positions in administration faced many barriers, but the bulk of these studies focused mainly on white women (Dorn, Rourke &

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Papalewis, 1999; Growe & Montgomery, 1999; Kochan, Spencer & Mathews, 2000; Mertz & McNeely, 1998; Shakeshaft, 1999). Barriers, such as stereotypic attitudes and racial discrimination, were found to limit access to top roles for female minorities in education. Often these barriers resulted in women giving up because they were overwhelmed in dealing with visible or invisible obstacles (Giscombe & Sims, 1998; Growe & Montgomery, 1999). Furthermore, Wilson (1989) found that African American women faced a double oppression as women and as people of color, and have only recently been recognized as a phenomena in need of study.

Similarly, a significant body of literature exists on the American college and university presidency. In 1993, the American Council on Education (ACE) conducted a study to provide comprehensive data profiling the chief executive officers of higher education institutions in the United States who were in office during 1986-1990. In 1990, African Americans constituted 12.1% of the U.S. population but only 5.5% African American males and females had served as presidents of these institutions. Caucasians and other minorities held 94.5% of the college and university president positions. Consequently, there are few quantitative studies that illuminate the backgrounds and career paths, as well as, perceptions of barriers of these African American female higher education leaders (Edwards-Wilson, 1998; Ross et al., 1993).

This paper is part of a larger study that focused on the experiences, preparation, career paths, and perceptions of barriers to the college or university presidency. This study addressed the following research questions:

1. What educational preparation and specific career paths lead to the college and university presidency for African American females?

2. Is there a sequential order for entering the presidency through academia?

Review of Literature

Rusher (1996) lamented that the number of African American women administrators in higher education is not impressive. Although several institutions have implemented aggressive recruitment programs to attract and retain minorities, their efforts have not resulted in significant increases in the number of African American women administrators. Regardless of the recruitment method used, White males remain the favored group in all areas of higher education (Lindsay, 1999). Although the actual count of African American women administrators is low, the number of qualified African American women in higher education is more than sufficient (Rusher, 1996).

We know more about the barriers, such as, glass ceiling, gender and race discrimination than we do about effective responses (Shakeshaft, 1999). The term “glass ceiling” was coined in the early 1980s referring to artificial barriers in the advancement of women and minorities that keep minorities and women from rising to administrative positions of higher academia (Cotter, Hermnsen, Ovadia & Vanneman, 2001). A 1984 survey by Quinta, Cotter and Romenesko (1998) suggested that the “glass ceiling” might be a primary culprit for the existence of such a small percentage of minority presidents since, often, it enforces inequality by creating a gender or racial difference, that is not explained by other job-relevant characteristics of the employee.

Although Congress enacted three laws in the 1960s and 1970s to promote equality for women and minorities and eliminate gender and race discrimination, equality has not been attained. The first law passed was the Equal Pay Act, that prohibited sex discrimination in employment. The second law enacted was Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, that declared it unlawful to discriminate in hiring, firing, compensating, promoting and other conditions of employment. The third law passed was Title IX of the Education Amendment, that prohibited sex discrimination in institutions receiving federal grants, loans, or contracts (Rai & Critzer, 2000). However, Brunner (1998) still identified race and ethnic discrimination as primary barriers in the selection process effecting African American females.

African American women exist in the pipeline of education but are not present throughout the ranks of higher education administration. Only a few of the 117 historically Black colleges and universities in existence in 1998 had female chief academic officers or presidents (Ross & Green, 2000). There is an awareness of the prominent African American women educators

of the 19th and 20th centuries who were teachers, principals and school founders, little is known of the role of African-American women educators in higher education (Rusher, 1996). History revealed that few Black females have pioneered the frontier in education as leaders (Gill & Showell, 1991).

African American Female President – The Wave Descriptor

From the beginning of higher education in America with Harvard in 1636, until far into the late 20th century, females were absent from the chief executive leadership positions of president, principal, chancellor, as well as absent from the policy leadership positions as chairs of Boards of Directors, Overseers and/or Trustees. According to Gloria Randle Scott, former president of Bennett College for Women, there were no African American females in the chief executive position of baccalaureate or higher degree granting institutions, until 1903 when Dr. Mary McLeod Bethune became the founding president of Bethune-Cookman College (Scott, personal communication, April 7, 2003).

It is therefore possible to chronicle the presence of African American females in such positions with highly reliable documentation. As one views this chronology, five time frames or “waves” appear to anchor the appointments of African American females as chief executive officers of baccalaureate and masters/doctorate degree granting institutions. These five “waves” are: (a) 1903-1905; (b) 1955-1970; (c) 1970-1987; (d) 1987-1992; and, (e) 1992-2002. The first waves were of mostly single individuals, ascending one at a time. It was only in 1987 that there were multiple appointments of African American female presidents (Scott, personal communication, April 5, 2003).

The first wave. This time period of African American female presidents occurred from 1903 to 1905. Dr. Mary McLeod Bethune was appointed President of Bethune Institute, later to become Bethune-Cookman College in 1904. She was the only African American female president until the 1950s (Bethune-Cookman College, 2002).

The second wave. The years from 1955 to 1970 are considered the second wave of African American female presidents. Dr. Willa Beatrice Player was appointed President of Bennett College for Women, initiating the second wave of appointments; the other appointment was Dr. Yvonne Taylor at Wilberforce College in 1984. She was appointed following the death of her father, Bishop D. Ormonde Walker, who had served as president (Wilberforce University, 2002).

The third wave. This wave of African American female presidents occurred from 1970 to 1987. Dr. Mable McLean was appointed President of Barber-Scotia College in 1974 (Barber-Scotia College, 2003). She was the

only African American president of a baccalaureate or higher institution in 1974. Five women were appointed as presidents in two-year community and junior colleges during this period. In 1978, Dr. Jewel Plummer Cobb, a highly productive and capable academician led the spotlight to Spelman College as the first female to reach the final two/three in the candidacy for the president (personal communication, April 5, 2003).

Unfortunately, Dr. Cobb was not appointed to Spelman as president at this time. This caused a widespread controversy including a student sit in and “lock in” of the Board of Trustees with the expressed desires of students, alumnae, faculty and supporters to have an African American female appointed at the all female institution that was founded in 1881. The national publicity within the higher education community raised the level and exposure of the dialogue and debate about the ability of African American women to serve in the Presidency. Though the appointment went to an African American male, the process had indeed opened the door for the next wave of appointments, nine years later, when the selected president for Spelman was an African American female (personal communication, April 5, 2003).

The fourth wave. The fourth wave of African American female presidents was from 1987 to 1992. In 1987, for the first time in history, there were three or more African American presidents of four-year colleges and universities serving simultaneously. They were all appointed to Historically Black College presidencies, Dr. Johnetta Besch Cole to Spelman; Dr. Gloria Dean Randle Scott to Bennett College for Women; and Dr. Niara Sudarkasa to Lincoln University in Pennsylvania. During this half-decade, several African American females were appointed president of two-year colleges, thus providing a “true wave” of multiples and opening the door for many other appointments, as Board of Trustees, became “comfortable” with the successes of these women leaders (Bennett College, 2002; Scott personal communication, April 5, 2003; Spelman College, 2003).

The total number of African American female presidents in 1990 numbered 18 out of 133 African American presidents representing a very small percentage of the total African American college and university presidents. African American female college and university presidents increased from 7.4% in 1986 to 13.5% in 1990; the latter represented 18 presidents. African American males decreased from 92.6% in 1986 to 86.5% in 1990, the latter represented 115 presidents. Of the 18 African American women in office in 1990, 14 presided at public institutions of which nearly half were public two-year colleges while only 2 of the African American women were presidents of independent baccalaureate colleges (Ross et al., 1993).

After 1992, though still far below parity, the considerable increases in African female presidencies made the fourth wave substantial. This wave included women at all levels of institutions from two-year community colleges to research universities.

The fifth wave. The fifth wave of African American female presidents occurred from 1992 to 2002. The total number of African American female college and university presidents who participated in the 2000 ACE study was 38, while the total number of African-American male presidents who participated numbered 110. Approximately, one in four (26%) of African American college and university presidents were women. In 1995, minority presidents continued to be under-represented relative to the higher education workforce where minorities accounted for 14% of faculty and senior staff (Ross & Green, 2000). In 2001, 36 African American women and 113 African American men participated in the 2002 ACE Study of American College presidents (Corrigan, 2002).

The National Presidents' 2000 Study included information from 2,380 college and university presidents. The study profiled women and minority presidents during 1998. The minority president section reported information on minority men and women by African American and Hispanic combined and did not allow extraction of data just for African American females (Ross & Green, 2000). Thus, very little information was available on African American females in the women president profile.

The Selection Process in Career Path

College oversight boards and review committees make the final decision when it comes to hiring a president. Jamilah (1998b) reported, "While trustee boards themselves are beginning to diversify as well, the predominance of White males who sit on the boards has been a major barrier that many cite for lack of African American presidents" (p. 30). Dr. Liz Rocklin, the Director of Board Services for the Association of Community College Trustees in Washington, DC, found through her presidential search firm at times disturbing comments from trustees, such as, "We want diversity but we want quality" (Jamilah, 1998a, p. 6). She found in 120 presidential searches that the board had more problems with women and minorities with imperfect records than with Whites who had similar, slightly tarnished work records.

Vaughan (1986) reported that women and minorities find job interviews slightly different than White male candidates. For example, women and minorities are often asked questions about family relocation, or their ability to adjust to a predominantly White environment. Female college presidents face challenges that men in those jobs do not, including boards unaccustomed to dealing with women in power (Basinger, 2001).

The Leadership Institute for a New Century (LINC) Program is a combination of national and state community college leaders, community leaders, trustees and university faculty members, to offer personal and professional development activities for participants. In 1996, 113 of the LINC members responded to a satisfaction and perception survey. The majority of women surveyed believed their biggest hurdle to advancement was the mind-set of community college boards of trustees (Ebberts, Gallisath, Rockel & Coyan, 2000). This was attributed to the selection process in which boards appeared to favor candidates by their fit in a male-dominated environment, their tendency to favor candidates most like themselves and the stereotypical male images that persist about leaders and effective leadership (Pfeffer, 1977; Taylor, 1989, Twombly & Amey, 1991).

The America Council on Education (ACE, 2001), from 1998 until 1999, conducted 13 roundtable discussions with 130 female college presidents across the country, and interviewed search firm executives. Participants in all of these sessions said that boards continue to be uncomfortable with women presidents. The problem began as early as the presidential search. Boards were usually male dominated and uncomfortable working with women leaders. Having women on the board does not always help a female president; in fact, women on boards may be considered lesser players and not able to control the board as chairperson.

The Struggle Continues

It is crucial for the future of the Black liberation struggle that women remain ever mindful that they are in a shared struggle for which they are each other's fate (hooks, 1992). Clearly, the literature supports that women in leadership roles face barriers to advancement as the glass ceiling is still intact. However, African American females are now visible after 30 years of affirmative action efforts. African American women have made significant strides in educational leadership positions but must continue to break barriers in the area of higher education administration. In 2002, African American females comprised only 59 of the 3,848 presidents and CEOs of university/college systems (personal communication April 5, 2003). Although efforts have been made, there is still a long journey before all women (including African American females) are recognized in an equitable position to men.

Methodology

A descriptive research inquiry design was utilized for this study of African American female college and university presidents. Appropriate to

descriptive research, we used a Likert-type survey with open-ended questions to gather data (Neuman, 2000).

Sample

The study population was purposeful and consisted of African American female college and university presidents from the year 2002. Subjects consisted of 100% of the population of presidents at two-year and four-year colleges and universities in the United States who were African American females. The subjects were drawn from historically Black institutions and traditionally White two-year and four-year colleges and universities (both private and public). We used the list of 59 Black female college and university presidents identified in the *Black Issues in Higher Education* (2002). Forty-three of the 59 presidents participated in the study.

Data Collection

The survey instrument was developed from preliminary discussion with Black women administrators, examination of existing survey instruments, and a review of the literature. To test for content validity, the instrument was submitted to a panel of experts. Among the persons reviewing the instrument for content validity were educational leaders, including doctoral faculty, staff and students. The Educational Leadership Chief Executive Officer/President's Study I (ELCEOPS) contained 24 questions describing educational preparation, career paths, experiences, and strategies for breaking perceived career barriers. The ELCEOPS II consisted of 10 open-ended questions related to experiences and barriers. This study focused on educational preparation and career paths.

To increase the reliability of the survey instrument, ten presidents were selected, at random, from the 1998 *Black Issues in Higher Education* list of African American female college and university presidents to complete the survey. Data were collected and the survey instrument was then refined based on this input. The population queried in this study included all African American female college and university presidents in office in March 2002.

In November 2002, 59 letters of introduction were sent, with questionnaires to all African American females who were college and university presidents in March 2002. Because the 2001 ACE survey responses were shared with us, the presidents who participated in the 2001 ACE survey received a three-page survey. Those presidents who had not participated in the 2001 ACE survey received a five-page survey. Thus, busy participants were not asked to duplicate information.

Eighteen questionnaires were returned within three weeks. Due to the low response rate from the initial mailing, we conducted a second mailing.

An additional 12 questionnaires were returned after a follow-up letter to bring the total to 30. Phone calls were made and a letter was faxed to the non-responding presidents, an additional 13 surveys were returned bringing the total to 43 written responses. Fifteen of the original letters generated no response even after repeated attempts to contact the presidents. Three of the presidents declined to participate in the study. Three of the respondents indicated that they were interested in the study and wished to receive the study results.

Data Analysis

Statistical analysis included descriptive statistics. Raw data were systematically organized for analysis using Statistical Product and Service Solutions formerly Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) (George & Mallery, 2001). A detailed codebook was created and an identification code assigned for each case. A second person double checked numbers entered to avoid errors in transferring information to the computer. Various data were applied to the appropriate research questions in order to identify education, preparation and career paths to the presidency.

Findings

Research Question One

The first research question was: What educational preparation and specific career paths led to the college and university presidency for African American females? Respondents' previous education was examined in terms of their doctoral and master's program and degree experiences. In regard to doctoral work, 93% of the presidents reported having a doctoral degree (see Table 1).

Table 1
Highest Degree Held (n = 43)

Degree	Frequency	Percent
Ph.D	25	58.1
Ed.D	15	34.9
MS	2	4.7
MA	1	2.3
Total	43	100.0

The presidents were asked to indicate their major field of study for their highest earned degree. Table 2 presents the field of study of their highest earned degree and indicates that an overwhelming 69.8% of the presidents held their highest degree in education, followed by humanities and social sciences.

Table 2
Field of Study (Highest Degree) (n = 43)

Field	Frequency	Percent
Education	30	69.8
Humanities	4	9.3
Social Science	3	7.0
Business	2	4.7
Health	2	4.7
Agriculture	1	2.3
No Response	1	2.3
Total	43	100.1*

*Exceeds 100% due to rounding

The career paths for African American college and university presidents are reported in Table 3. Nearly 60% were first-time presidents, 20.9 % held a previous CEO position, and 18.8% of the presidents held two to six previous CEO positions. This finding anchors the foundation for the question of a sequential order for entering the presidency.

Presidents were asked to indicate the date when they were appointed to their current CEO positions. Table 4 lists the year each responding president was appointed to her current presidency in order from 1969 to the present. Only one of the presidents was appointed to the presidency prior to 1990 while 95% of the presidents were appointed after 1990.

The African American female presidents were tracked according to their position at a two-year college or university. More than 72% of the African American female presidents held this position at a two-year college, while 27.9% were at a four-year college or university. The presidents also noted that their average year of birth was 1944, although the earliest year of birth was 1924, and the latest year of birth was 1954.

Table 3
Number of Prior CEO Positions Held (n = 43)

Prior CEO Positions	Frequency	Percent
0	25	58.1
1	9	20.9
2	2	4.7
3	2	4.7
4	2	4.7
6	2	4.7
No Response	1	2.3
Total	43	100.1*

*Exceeds 100% due to rounding

Table 4
Year Appointed to Current President/CEO/Chancellor Position (n = 43)

Date Appointed	Frequency	Percent
1969	1	2.3
1990	1	2.3
1991	1	2.3
1992	6	14.0
1993	1	2.3
1994	1	2.3
1995	1	2.3
1996	3	7.0
1997	3	7.0
1998	6	14.0
1999	3	7.0
2000	4	9.3
2001	9	20.9
2002	2	4.7
No Response	1	2.3
Total	43	100.0

The presidents were asked to indicate in how many presidential searches they were invited for an interview prior to obtaining their first presidency. Data in Table 5 indicated that 41.9% of the presidents had not been in a presidential search prior to their first presidency. Sixteen percent had been in one presidential search.

Table 5

Number of Presidential Searches Prior to First Presidency (n = 43)

Searches	Frequency	Percent
0	18	41.9
1	7	16.3
2	5	11.6
3	5	11.6
4	5	11.6
No Response	3	7.0
Total	43	100.0

The presidents were asked if a search consultant was used in the search that resulted in their selection for their current presidency. Data reported indicated that 51.2% (22) had not used a search consultant in their present job, while 44.2% (19) indicated that a search consultant had been used.

Research Question Two

The second research question was: Is there a sequential order for entering the presidency through academia? To answer this question, data were collected from each participant completing the Educational Leadership Chief Executive Officer/Presidents' Survey (ELCEOPS). Data (as shown in Table 6) indicated that the immediate prior position of the president was most likely to have been chief academic officer and/or provost or president/CEO/chancellor. Respondents reported an almost equal balance between direct ascension from the chief academic office or provost. The category of "other" positions, such as dean, and the category of senior executive in development were both reported by 14% of the respondents.

Table 7 illustrates the prior positions held by the presidents. Twenty percent of respondents listed senior executive academic as the first position held as a prior position. The next most likely position held as a prior position was the category of "Other" with 18.6%. This category consisted of

Table 6
Immediate Prior Position (n = 43)

Position Title	Frequency	Percent
Chief acad. off/provost	12	27.9
President/CEO/chancellor	11	25.6
Senior executive in development	6	14.0
Other	6	14.0
Other senior exec in academic	2	4.7
Senior executive finance/admin	2	4.7
Senior executive student affairs	1	2.3
K-12 administrator	1	2.0
Local/state/fed govt	1	2.3
No Response	1	2.3
Total	43	99.8*

*Does not equal 100% due to rounding

Table 7
Prior Prior Position (n = 43)

Position Title	Frequency	Percent
Senior exec. academic	9	20.9
Other	8	18.6
Senior exec. student affairs	6	14.0
President/CEO/Chancellor	5	11.6
Chief acad. off./provost	4	9.3
Senior exec. in development	4	9.3
K-12 admin	2	4.7
Senior. Exec. finance/admin	1	2.3
Chair/faculty	1	2.3
Private business	1	2.3
No Response	2	4.7
Total	43	100.0

positions/titles, such as dean, vice president, assistant superintendent of educational programs and services. Senior executive student affairs was listed next with 14%, while 11.6% listed the job title of president/CEO/chancellor as a prior position.

Discussion

Research Question One

The first research question addressed was: What educational preparation and career paths led to the college and university presidency for African American females? Results indicated that African American college and university presidents were more likely to hold a doctorate in education than other presidents and that African American males were more likely than women to attain this position.

African American female college and university presidents were more likely to hold a doctorate than other presidents. A composite of characteristics of African American female college and university presidents emerged from the data. The majority of African American female presidents reported being an average of 58 years of age or older, married, held a doctorate in education, and 72% served in this position at a Junior College. The results of this composite were not surprising based upon prior assumptions about these women and were supported by the literature. This was consistent with prior findings, such as Howard-Vital (1989) who suggested in a study of women in higher education that African American females should pursue the doctoral degree to advance their careers.

African American female college and university presidents were most likely to hold their highest degree in education. Our study findings were consistent with other findings, such as Rusher (1996) who noted that the majority of the African American females who earned doctorate degrees did so primarily in the field of education. Jamilah (1998a) noted that the majority (89%) of the two-year college presidents in 1996 held a doctorate, Corrigan (2002) found in the American College President's Study that all women presidents were more likely than their male counterparts to have earned a doctorate. Additionally, minority presidents (male and female) were also more likely than their White counterparts to hold a doctorate.

The female presidents identified education, humanities and social science as their most likely degrees. These same results were found by the American College President's Study for all women (Corrigan, 2002). Although education was the most common field in which minorities and non-minorities earned their highest degrees, African American (male and female) presidents

were more likely to have earned their degrees in education with social science and humanities as the next most likely fields of study.

More African American females were being hired into the presidency, but were still underrepresented in the presidential population. Our findings indicated that women presidents were employed an average of 6.35 years outside of higher education and 8.32 years as full-time faculty. Also, findings reported that 58% of the presidents had not held a prior presidency and were appointed after 1990. Corrigan (2002) posited in the American College President's 2001 Study that women presidents were less likely than men to have been presidents in their prior positions. Data in this study supported this observation. Together with the increasing number of women presidents, this finding suggested that more African American females were being hired into the presidency; however, the percentage was much lower when compared to White women and numbers of presidencies. Additionally, African American men were more likely than African American women to become presidents.

When hiring a president, the Board of Trustees makes the ultimate decision, yet African American women faced some obstacles on this pathway (Jamilah, 1998b). Through a community college survey, Vaughan (1989) noted that women and minorities reported an interview process that was different from their White counterparts. Our findings indicated that 51% of the African American presidents were invited for an interview as a part of a presidential search. However, 52% of the African American presidents had not used a search consultant that resulted in their selection for the current presidency.

Research Question Two

The second research question was: Is there a sequential order for entering the presidency through academia?

African American females came to the presidency from a variety of positions such as provost, chief academic officer or another senior office. Our findings reflected that the immediate prior position was chief academic officer/provost with president/CEO/chancellor second. Only two presidents had held the position of president/CEO/chancellor before assuming their current presidency. Corrigan (2002) also found that women were less likely than men to have been presidents in their prior positions. They were more likely to have served as provost/chief academic officer or another senior executive in higher education prior to assuming the presidency. However, Corrigan found that African American male and female presidents were more likely than White presidents to be serving in their second or third presidency.

African American females were more likely to come from outside education or a different institution. Our findings reflected that the majority of African American female presidents (67.9%) also had a prior job from another/different institution or outside of education. The findings for African American females were not consistent with minority males and females for tenure. Only 22.6% of the African American female presidents currently held a tenured position; however, these findings were consistent for all women presidents regardless of the level of service of a community college or a university.

Findings from the College Presidents 2001 Survey reported that African American male and female presidents were more likely to have come from outside education or from another institution. Minority male and female presidents were more likely than non-minorities to hold a tenured position as a faculty member which may be related to the fact that minority presidents were more likely to serve at public institutions where tenure for administrators is more common (Corrigan, 2002).

Implications

Commonalities emerged from studying these African American female college and university presidents. They entered the career track to the presidency with the assumption that they would have to exceed job expectations, hold jobs that had high visibility, obtain a doctorate and develop leadership skills outside of education. They also had a mentor or became part of a network to improve their career opportunities.

There has been a gradual rise in the number of African American female presidents as indicated by the five waves of presidents. These findings suggest that although African American females can become university presidents, they must follow the career paths and acquire the appropriate education.

The results of this study have several implications for females aspiring to the presidency.

- Universities and search committees need to recruit from the African American female population.
- University preparation programs need to provide ways to encourage and prepare African American females for higher education leadership.
- Search committees and universities need to seek African American females in a variety of positions by expanding recruitment alternatives, such as K-12 superintendents and state agencies (Ross et al., 1993; Vaughan, 1986).
- African American females need role models.

- University preparation programs, as well as staff development opportunities need to provide training in leadership programs that educates regarding stereotyping, male, female and racial.
- African American females should participate in seminars, internships and workshops designed to improve management and leadership skills.
- African American females who aspire to positions in higher education should recognize the perceived importance of educational preparation to career achievement.

As this is the first study of African American female presidents, additional research is needed on future presidents. However, despite career difficulties, the African American female presidents in this study were unique women who pioneered in positions generally held by males.

From the days of the leadership of Dr. Mary McLeod Bethune in the early 1900s, more than 100 years have passed. Still African American women leaders have continued to make a place for themselves in the world. As Reagan (1982) wrote, "We must be everywhere our people are or might be." The African American women college presidents in this study are making a place for themselves, and in the process they are enlarging the space for others to follow.

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Shining Lonely Stars? Career Patterns of Rural Texas Female Administrators

Dawn C. Wallin

This paper stems from research that examined the impact of the rural context upon the career patterns of women educational administrators in rural public school districts in the state of Texas. The study examined two pertinent issues for women in rural education: (a) the nature of rural communities and its relationship to female career paths in educational administration, and (b) barriers and supports faced by female administrators in the rural context. The purpose of this paper will be to outline the findings of the study in relation to the emergent issues for rural female administrators.

This paper stems from research that examined the impact of the rural context upon the career patterns of women educational administrators in rural public school districts in the state of Texas. The first strand of the conceptualization of the work struggled with the ambiguity of the nature of the “rural” context, since its meaning tends to vary with the perspective of the defining individual. Rural areas differ greatly from each other (DeYoung & Lawrence, 1995; Jolly & Deloney, 1993; Stabler & Olfert, 1996), especially in terms of economic resources, community priorities and purpose, demographics, and political efficacy. In fact, rural communities exhibit characteristics ranging on a continuum of economic, social, and demographic growth or decline. However, despite variability among communities, research does address characteristics that are common in rural areas, such as higher unemployment, higher poverty, isolation, lack of job opportunities, lower education levels and depopulation (DeYoung & Lawrence, 1995; Herzog, 1996; Hobbs, 1994; Maynard & Howley, 1997). Rural communities have differing capacities to address the diversity of issues they face, which makes generalizations about what is “typically rural” very difficult.

Rural schools “vary not only to the extent that they are small, but also according to the type of community in which they are located. It has often been observed that rural schools are more tightly connected to their local communities than urban schools are” (Gjelton, 1982, p. 2). In most cases, a

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sense of community ownership of the rural school is reinforced by the fact that very often, the rural school is the largest employer, claims the largest share of the local tax dollars, and is the location of most community events (Hobbs, 1994). In essence, the rural school becomes a symbol of community unity, community survival and community values. It is because of this recognition that much of the American literature on rural education has focused on the federal *No Child Left Behind Act*, and its inequitable consequences for rural school divisions (Hodges, 2002; Reeves, 2003; Rural Community Trust, 2003).

Because of the strong attachment between the school and community, the administrator of a rural school must be “constantly aware of the community, its leaders, and its pressure points . . . The quality of leadership . . . must reflect a sensitivity to the community, tempered with sound educational decision-making” (Tagg, 1983, p. 4). The administrator must work to understand community attitudes and expectations, and to create a school program that meets the needs of the community (Tift, 1990). Prospective administrators must “understand their roles and the expectations placed on them which may be unique to the rural community. Rural communities, the challenges and issues facing them and the educational programs which exist are no more or less significant than their urban counterparts, but they are different” (Pickle & Parmley, 1986, p. 1).

Perhaps one of the greatest barriers to women in leadership roles in the rural context has been the view that “things have always been done this way and so they shall always be done this way,” especially when practices are patriarchal and promote stereotypical attitudes and androcentric ways of thinking (Reinhartz & King, 1993; Shakeshaft, 1989). Because economic and demographic forces have caused extensive changes to rural communities, this belief may no longer have as much force as it may once have had. The change may be evidenced by the fact that more rural women have entered the workforce in order to supplement or in fact supply the family income (Ghelfi, Comartie, Lahr, & Parker, 1993), so “traditional rural” ways of working have

begun to change. Centralization of institutions and services such as education and health care now force rural residents to travel to larger centers where they experience alternate ways of working. Additionally, the incorporation of technology and the Internet into rural areas means that rural areas are no longer isolated from experiencing a diversity of social attitudes.

The second strand of the conceptualization for the study examined the research that centers on the career development of women in educational administration. Much of the research on women in educational leadership focuses on six themes: (a) aspirations (McLeod & Young, 2001); (b) barriers/stressors (Funk, 1987; Schmuck, 1986); (c) selection, recruitment, retainment (Howley & Pendarvis, 2002; Wallin & Sackney, 2003); (d) socialization (Hudson & Williamson, 2001; Marshall, 1992; Mertz, 2000); (e) mentorship (Enomoto, Gardiner, & Grogan, 2000; Funk, Pankake, & Schroth, 2000), and; (f) succession (Ortiz, 2000; Wallin, 2001). Research suggests that women are receiving administrative positions in rural school divisions (McFadden & Smith, 2004; Wallin & Sackney, 2003), even though, as national and international trends suggest, their representation in school administration remains disproportionately low (Mertz, 2002; Skrla, Reyes & Sheurich, 2000). Of those women who do enter administrative positions, "many times the positions being filled by women are those that have a minimal power base because they are in smaller more rural school districts" (Gupton & Slick, 1996, p. xxvii).

Because the rural context in education is unique, and because research does point to the fact that women are receiving administrative positions in rural school districts, it was the intent of this study to examine the impact of the rural context upon the career patterns of women administrators in rural public school divisions in Texas, USA. This paper includes descriptions of the career paths of women educational administrators and elaborates upon the barriers and supports for women in rural school districts in Texas. The paper concludes with illustrations of the emerging issues facing female administrators in rural areas.

Methodology

In Texas, school districts are classified on a scale ranging from major urban to rural. Factors such as size, growth rates, student economic status, and proximity to urban areas are used to determine the classification. Rural school districts in Texas are defined as those districts that either have a growth rate of less than 20% and the number of students in membership is between 300 and the state median, or the number of students in membership is less than 300. Of the 1220 public school districts in Texas in the 2002-

2003 school year, 422 (34%) were designated as rural school districts (Texas Education Agency, 2003). Rural schools comprised 9.3% of the total schools in the state (833/7733). The Texas Education Agency (TEA), which oversees education in the state, maintains an online database of all school districts and administrative personnel. This data base was used to identify the sample for the study. In total, the sample included 247 female administrators (195 principals; 4 assistant superintendents; 42 superintendents; 6 area superintendents). All of these female administrators were sent questionnaires that included questions related to community profiles, career paths, and barriers and supports. A total of 35% of the sample responded to the survey.

Gjelton's (1982) rural typology (based upon demographic, economic and social profiles) was used as a basis upon which a rural typology was adapted to suit contextual needs. Gjelton's typology was not used in its entirety, because it did not adequately address the diversity of the Texas rural context. In fact, communities in Texas could be found that could not be sorted into any of Gjelton's original five community types (Stable, Depressed, High Growth, Reborn or Isolated) because of the restrictions placed on community characteristics. Instead, communities were first sorted into three over-arching community nature types (Booming, Stable, and Depressed) in order to simplify the typology, yet allow for similarities and differences between communities. Interestingly, no Booming rural communities surfaced in the results of the study. From these types, community profiles were generated through a description of demographic, economic, and social variables that had been found in the literature to influence the characteristics of rural communities (DeYoung & Lawrence, 1995; Gjelton, 1982; Herzog, 1996; Hobbs, 1994; Maynard & Howley, 1997).

Survey responses related to career were analyzed with chi-square procedures and independent t-tests. Nonparametric chi-square measures were utilized for the nominal categories of personal and district characteristics to test the hypothesis that row and column variables in crosstabulations were independent. A low significance value (typically below 0.05) indicated that there may be some relationship between the two variables. The nominal symmetrical measures of Cramer's V and Contingency Coefficient were used to indicate both the strength and significance of the relationship between the row and column variables of crosstabulations. Independent t-tests were conducted to determine whether or not significance differences occurred for variables related to career development/career patterns, barriers, and supports based on community nature (Stable or Depressed) and position (inschool administration or central office administration). The Levene's test was to test for equality of variances. Participants rated their levels of agreement with the

variables on a continuum from strongly disagree, disagree, agree, and strongly agree.

After the surveys were returned, 20 female administrators who expressed an interest were interviewed to obtain qualitative data. The data from the open-ended portion of the questionnaire, and that of the interviews, were analyzed through the use of the computer software program entitled, "Atlas-ti," according to qualitative research guidelines (Moustakas, 1988; Strauss & Cortin, 1990; Tageson, 1982). Reductive analysis (the identifying, coding and categorizing of data into meaningful units) was used to identify themes and patterns from the data. These themes and quotations were then used to elaborate and contextualize the survey findings.

Findings

Career Development/Career Patterns

Position

Significant differences between women in inschool administration and central office positions were found for three career variables: (a) number of years in an administrative position ($p = 0.01$); (b) future career goals ($p = 0.02$), and; (c) number of students in the district ($p = 0.016$). The Cramer's V (0.450) and Contingency Coefficient (0.410) for the number of years in an administrative position indicated that there was a moderate relationship between that variable and career position. Not surprisingly, central office administrators were more likely to possess more years of administrative experience than inschool administrators. The majority of central office administrators (64.7%) in this study had between 6-15 years of administrative experience. In comparison, 75.7% of the inschool administrators had between 1 and 10 years of administrative experience.

For the second variable, a Cramer's V of 0.344 and a Contingency Coefficient of 0.325 suggested that there was only a moderate relationship between position and future goals. In fact, the greatest proportion of central office administrators (70.6%) wished to remain in their current positions, or were split equally (11.8%) into wanting to move further into upper administration or being unsure about their future career prospects. Inschool administrators were almost equal in proportion between those who wished to remain in their current position (41.5%) and those who wished to move into upper administration (40.0%). It is interesting to note that almost one-fifth (18.5%) of inschool administrators were unsure about their future career goals.

The third variable that was found to be significantly related to position was the number of students in the district. However, the Cramer's V value (0.383) and Contingency Coefficient value (0.357) suggested that the relationship was relatively weak. The greatest proportions of women in central office positions occurred in districts in which the number of students in a district was equal to or less than 300. This situation was reversed for women in inschool administration where the greatest proportion of female inschool administrators worked in districts with 300 or more students.

Community Nature

Three of the variables related to career development were found to be significantly related to community nature. Women in stable communities had significantly higher mean scores (2.33) for the variable, "women consider a wide variety of career options" ($p = 0.003$) than women in depressed communities (1.95).

The second variable of significance was found for the statement, "Gender plays a role in differences in administrative leadership" (0.017). The mean score of women in stable communities (2.51) was significantly lower than that of women in depressed communities (2.88). However, although the results suggested that women in stable communities had significantly lower levels of agreement for this variable than those in depressed communities, it should be noted that the mean of both groups ranged only moderately between disagreement and agreement.

The final variable that was related to community nature was whether or not a female educational administrator would recommend her district to other women interested in educational administration ($p = .04$). However, a Cramer's V value of 0.226 and the Contingency Coefficient value of 0.220 suggested that the relationship between community nature and recommendation was fairly weak. In fact, although the majority of women in both stable and depressed communities recommended their communities to other women interested in educational administration, women in depressed communities were somewhat less likely to make that recommendation.

Career Path

One of the most intriguing comments made by 9 of the 20 administrators interviewed was that they were either the first ever (or the first of about 3) females hired in the district, or they were currently the only female working in administration in their districts. This same phenomena was mentioned by four of the superintendents. Many of the interviewees suggested that although the numbers of women in educational administration was still not representative, they had seen an increase in the number of women

administrators overall, although this increase was found more often in elementary principalships. Comments indicated that the representation of women in educational administration varied highly across educational regions. Overall, however, women indicated that there were still few women in superintendencies, and even fewer minority women in superintendencies.

The majority of administrators in this study had traditional career paths. Most of these women began their careers as teachers, and moved into the principalship after working in a variety of positions in which they were able to showcase leadership talent: (a) head/coordinator of Special Education; (b) programs and assessment coordinator; (c) instructional strategist; (d) technology coordinator, and; (e) consultants. Respondents seemed to have a great variety of positions open to them prior to becoming a principal. One of the less traditional avenues opened for a woman who combined being a grant writer for a school district with being a stay at home mom. Another administrator began her career as a coordinator of advanced placement for a county before acquiring the principalship. Only three interviewees had moved into assistant principalships, for the simple reason that most schools did not have an assistant principal's position.

The path to the superintendency was similar in most respects to that of the principalship, with the addition of a number of central office positions or positions of responsibility outside of the school district at either the regional service center or university. Such positions included: (a) director of curriculum/instruction; (b) counselor/diagnostician; (c) special education director; (d) educational service center trainer; (e) university instructor; (f) English as a Second Language director, and; (g) executive director of elementary operations and special programs. Only one interviewee indicated that she had never been a campus principal. Curiously, none of the interviewees had been secondary principals. Additionally, one of the interviewees was currently the campus principal and the superintendent, and therefore assumed the legal responsibilities of both positions.

Most of the respondents, including superintendents, indicated that obtaining a high school principalship was difficult because the expectations of the position remained biased against women, especially in terms of physical stature, and notions regarding discipline and athletics:

If I had a dollar for every time someone told me, "You don't look like a principal" I think I could probably at least buy a new car, maybe more. And being in the high school there were many raised eyebrows and thoughts of, "Can she handle the discipline of the high school kids? Can she deal with the parents of the athletes, and how will she look at athletics different than a male counterpart would look at athletics?" Would she see the same values that we see in athletics? I think it was much more at the high school level.

At the elementary level, I think still the majority of time people look to an elementary principal, especially in a smaller community, as still being somewhat of a nurturer for the younger children. So they accept a female in that role a lot easier than at the high school level.

It was also mentioned by participants that the inequitable practice of not hiring females for secondary principalships in Texas hindered women's ability to garner higher salaries and achieve positions in larger districts. This practice further detracted from equitable gender representation in the superintendency.

Almost all of the administrators indicated that they had assumed more than their share of responsibilities during their career progression as rural administrators. Many women mentioned that because most rural schools did not have assistant positions, the principals/superintendents were required to assume all of the professional responsibilities themselves—special education consultant, Education as a Second Language consultant, behavioral consultant, and Title I responsibilities. One principal had to assume the secretarial duties of the school. Another group stated that they had at times taken on the responsibilities of caretaker, plumber, concrete mixer, and carpenter. Even more extreme was the comment made by one of the superintendents that “once it was mentioned that [the community] wanted to have a volunteer fire department and maybe I could get that going . . . that's a little more than I can do.” Needless to say, this superintendent decided to opt out of that responsibility.

Mobility

A number of respondents worked in or very near to rural communities in which they grew up. These individuals had vested interests both personally and professionally in the rural communities in which they worked. Not surprisingly, the most common cited reasons for these decisions were investments in property, homes, children's education, proximity to family, and/or a husband who was tied to the land. Some of the principals mentioned that they were willing to drive some distance from their home if a position were to open, but residency requirements that stipulated that administrators had to live within the geographical confines of the district stopped them from applying.

Many principals stated that their upward career mobility had been fostered more quickly than it would have been if they had been in a large district, because, “in a small district you get to know people in a very short time. Everybody knows everyone and they see what you're capable of, and I have had absolutely no problem achieving my professional goals in the

district.” However, the lack of diversity and/or number of administrative positions in rural areas could become a hindrance. As one woman mentioned somewhat ironically, she would have liked to become the superintendent of the district, but that would not happen since the superintendent was her husband. Another woman indicated that unless the superintendent in the district “dropped dead of a heart attack,” there was not likely to be much administrative movement in her district, since his position was the only central office position available.

Superintendents were more conscious of the fact that movement depended on the board’s willingness to have them remain in the district. These women had thought through the impact that such a reality might have on their personal relationships, even though they were committed to their positions. Although many of the superintendents had husbands and children which tied them to place, they recognized that a willingness to move and an open mind were assets to their career progression.

Career Aspirations

As far as career aspirations were concerned, the majority of principals in the study indicated that even if they did move into upper administration, they were not interested in the superintendency. In fact, only two respondents in the interviews mentioned the superintendency as their career position of choice. Both of these women indicated that it was not the “right time” for them to take on the responsibilities of the position given their current personal lives, and one of the respondents wondered if she ever would move in to the superintendency given what she perceived to be the high level of accountability of the position combined with very little personal control.

Becoming an assistant superintendent was more often desired by principals, as was teaching at the collegiate level. Other positions sought included work at a regional service center, going back into teaching to be near family, and starting up one’s own school. Overall, however, the majority of principals interviewed wished to remain in their position—for now—because they were comfortable with where they were socially, professionally and personally. Interestingly, however, most of those same principals were working on, or indicated that they were going to work on, superintendency certification “just in case.”

For the most part, central office administrators indicated that they were happy with their positions. In general, these women indicated that if they were to move, they would attempt to gain positions in larger school districts either as an assistant superintendent or superintendent, especially in order to increase their retirement salaries. However, these women were grateful for the opportunity to learn about the superintendency in a small rural setting,

and their primary concern about leaving was that they would potentially lose out on the “closeness that is out there, the rewards” if and when they moved to a larger setting.

Barriers in Educational Administration

There were no significant differences in any of the barrier variables between women in inschool administration and women in central office positions. However, there was a significant difference between women in stable and depressed communities for the barrier, “Female administrators with children are perceived to be less capable of performing their administrative duties” ($p = .029$). The mean score of women in stable communities (2.18) was significantly lower than that of women in depressed communities (2.51), although the mean scores of both groups fell in the middle range of agreement for this variable.

Hiring and Selection

Although the administrators in this study spoke from a privileged position in that they had achieved administrative positions, the hiring and selection context needs to be highlighted because of its potential impact on female administrative career patterns. Almost all of the respondents indicated that males were generally hired before females except when districts wanted to ensure a gender balance in school administration. Many of the respondents indicated that they had interviewed in situations where they were the only short-listed female. Another commonly mentioned hiring/selection factor concerned the nature of discipline, physical stature, and/or perceptions about women and athletics, especially at the high school level. One respondent’s experience highlights the issue the best:

I had one farmer who sat there the whole night when I was interviewed and he didn’t ask any questions. He just doodled. He had his overalls on . . . Near the end the superintendent looked over and said, “John, you haven’t asked [candidate] any questions.” He said, “Well, that all sounds real good to me and if you all like her, that’s fine, but I want to ask one question.” I knew it was coming. He said, “Ms. [Candidate] have you ever paddled a kid?” I said, “Yes, sir, I have.” And he said, “You have any reservations about paddling these kids around here?” I said, “Not if the board will back me.” He said, “Good, I don’t want some panty waist coming in here watering down the discipline that we’ve worked so hard to create.”

This principal stated that she eventually had a rather good working relationship with this board member.

Inequitable Treatment

Many of the respondents relayed instances of inequitable treatment that was due more to their gender than to their abilities. This included such things as being granted more administrative tasks than males, being held accountable for “paperwork” when male administrators were not reprimanded for their refusal to complete it, and being deliberately isolated from discussions with male colleagues until “the guys really need something, especially knowledge about something.” Other responses included: (a) the provision of secretaries to male administrators only; (b) male colleagues taking credit for their work; (c) being told they could not accept phone calls from their husbands while at work; (d) male teachers or school board members refusing to “answer to a woman,” and (e) inequitable salaries between male and female administrators or between rural and larger districts.

Three principals spoke of the resistance they felt from other females. As one woman stated, “women do not support each other. The issue of ‘jealousy’ for lack of a better word, is hindering career development. Women are socialized to ‘compete’ with other females—men are socialized as ‘team players.’” Two women—one a principal and one a superintendent—indicated that because the district had only hired one unsuccessful female administrator in the past, the district had effectively labeled the entire gender incompetent. Not surprisingly, these women felt they had become symbols for women’s competency and felt the pressure of intense scrutiny from others in the district. In the end, most of these women believed they had to work harder and smarter in order to prove themselves worthy of an administrative position. Some women alluded to a sense of betrayal when all their hard work in the community seemed not to be recognized.

Good Old Boys Club

Almost all participants indicated that the “Good Old Boys Club” in Texas was alive and well. Although frustrated by its presence, most of the administrators accepted the fact that the network existed and tried to use The Club to their advantage. One of the principals spoke of “breaking in” to this club during her university classes. She became a sought-after work partner of the men because of her abilities, so she built relationships with these men who then became leverages into administration. A second woman spoke of her involvement in the Rotary club of which she was the only female member. She indicated that her involvement with this group allowed her to network with some of the “good old boys,” who then helped her and her school. She was astute enough to notice that the same help was not extended to two other female administrators who worked in the same district but who had not built a relationship with the “Good Old Boys.”

Perhaps the most explicit example of how the “game” was played is outlined by the following comment:

I’m a woman in a small rural school that had a school board that was all male: good old boys, ranchers, cattlemen . . . yes! Especially when I heard that they were not pleased when they heard that there was a woman candidate for the principal’s job. I never said anything to the superintendent that that was illegal, but I could have gone and been real ugly. I found real quick a lesson learned. I hate politics, but I learned real well to play the game. What you do is, I think it was Boleman and Deal, “Survey the landscape.” and get to know them individually. I learned to talk cattle and hay. I learned to draw from my experience growing up with a grandfather who was a rancher. I had to find something that I connected with. There was some intimidation there because a lot of these guys do not have a college education. They’re high school graduates and here I am working on my doctorate. I had to make certain that I didn’t come across as arrogant or condescending. I put on a little southern girl charm and built that relationship up. It’s OK. I’m still a woman but I’m accepted.

Of course, not all women had these kinds of explicit experiences, and a number indicated that the context was getting better for women in administration. However, none of the administrators assumed that the path was completely rosy and free from barriers related to gender.

Supports for Women in Educational Administration

There were significant differences by both community nature and position for the support, “Access to mentorship programs exists.” The mean level of agreement of women in stable communities (2.76) was significantly higher than that of women in depressed communities (2.41) ($p = 0.02$). As well, significant differences were found between women in inschool administration (2.52) and central office administration (2.81) ($p = 0.033$).

In almost all cases, administrators indicated that their husbands, children and parents were their primary personal supports. Perhaps one of the most moving instances of the kind of support a father gave his daughter was mentioned by one of the principals:

Neither one of my parents had an education. My father had a fifth grade education and my mother had a tenth grade education. My father always told me that education was power. He lifted up his heavy, 50 pound toolbox and he said, “This is what I do for a living. I crawl around other people’s hot attics and behind dirty washers and refrigerators and stoves because I don’t have an education. I don’t want this for you. I want you to work in an office where it’s air conditioned and people look up to you and they respect

you for what you do. You won't get that without an education." So if we didn't go to school, we didn't go outside to play that day. And when you went to school, you didn't shame your family. My father and my mother gave me a very strong motivation to go to school. My sister and I were the first two in our family's generations to have completed high school.

Finally, most of the administrators mentioned that their faith was a continuing personal support for them.

In terms of professional supports, most women mentioned particular mentors or administrative teams (both within and outside the district) that they could count on to provide advice. Other commonly cited supports included teachers/employees, the district/division school board, and professional organizations. However these women indicated that travel distance, reduced staff development budgets and time away from the school significantly hindered the opportunity and the desire to become involved in those groups. A number of administrators cited graduate student networks and university faculty as professional supports. One of the superintendents mentioned a mentorship program for new superintendents organized by the Texas Association of School Administrators. Finally, although the support from educational service centers was mentioned by four interviewees, the most commonly cited support for all interviewees was district superintendents who had encouraged ideas and provided the support necessary for them to achieve many of their leadership goals.

Emerging Issues

The final section includes a discussion of the findings in relation to emerging issues.

Community Nature

Although women in both types of communities were likely to recommend their communities to other women interested in educational administration, women in depressed communities were less apt than those in stable communities to make this recommendation. Based on the data it may be that women in depressed communities find that the extra responsibilities of leadership that exist because of less staff positions, lower budgets, and very small support bases make the position so demanding that some women reconsider whether the rewards of the position are worth the tremendous amount of professional and personal effort necessary.

Women in stable communities had significantly higher levels of agreement than women in depressed communities for the ideas that: (a) women consider a wide variety of career options; (b) gender plays a role

in differences in administrative leadership, and; (c) access to mentorship programs exists. Perhaps the smaller size of depressed communities typically also includes a smaller variety of services (and therefore career options) may play a role in shaping the career development of women. The fact that gender differences in leadership seems to play a smaller role in depressed communities might be explained by the fact that school districts in depressed communities have a difficult time attracting and retaining administrators of either gender, and therefore the differences between males and females are minimized for the sake of finding a competent person. Women in depressed communities had significantly higher levels of agreement about the notion that female administrators with children are perceived to be less capable of performing their administrative duties. This finding might be explained in two potential ways. It may be that individuals in depressed communities hold more conservative ideas about gender roles and motherhood. Alternatively, because of the lack of anonymity in very small communities, community members are more aware of the personal commitments (including motherhood) of female administrators and therefore might be more apt to focus on those aspects than people in larger communities where the anonymity of the administrator's personal life is somewhat more protected.

Position

The responses of inschool administrators were significantly different from those of central office personnel for the variables: (a) number of years in administration; (b) future goals, and; (c) number of students in the district. Not surprisingly, central office administrators were more likely to possess more years of administrative experience than were inschool administrators. As far as future goals were concerned, the greatest proportion of central office administrators wished to remain in their current positions, or were split equally into wanting to move further into upper administration or being unsure about their future career prospects. Inschool administrators were almost equal in proportion between those who wished to remain in their current position and those who wished to move into upper administration. Making the break away from working directly with children was a commonly cited reason for the ambiguity in their desire to move into central office positions, as was a decrease in the attractiveness of the superintendency. In terms of student enrollment, the greatest proportions of women in central office positions occurred in districts where the number of students in a district was equal to or less than 300. This situation was reversed for women in inschool administration where the greatest proportion of female inschool administrators worked in districts with 300 or more students. This phenomena might be explained by the fact that there were fewer districts in

general with enrollments of less than 300, but that women were more apt to acquire central office positions in these districts because they are less attractive for males (financially and in prestige) than larger districts.

Finally, inschool administrators had significantly lower levels of agreement than central office administrators for the idea that access to mentorship programs exists. This is somewhat perplexing, since literature and programming has espoused the benefits of mentoring in school districts. However, perhaps the distance between schools and inschool administrators' desire to remain at the school play a role in mentor program access. Superintendents may be more apt to indicate that support programs in their districts are available, even if in reality they are not functioning at optimal levels. It may also be that the pre-occupation with the revolving door superintendencies in the state of Texas has drawn attention to the need for support programs at the superintendent level more than at the school level.

Intersection of Context and Career

Some of the realities of living in a rural community impacted the work of administrators. Administrators indicated that financial restraints based on decreasing enrollments, and declining populations had forced many districts to reduce staff development opportunities, cut positions and increase the responsibility loads of administrators, which leads to greater feelings of isolation and stress on the administrator (especially when the positions cut were support positions like that of assistant principal or assistant director). Many districts had difficulties retaining administrators because they could not pay equitable salaries.

Geographical isolation from resources or facilities for professional development/higher learning were causes for concern in rural areas, since professional credentials were desired and required (in terms of certification) for Texas administrators. The time, distance and financial resources necessary for administrators to access them were very demanding. Rural female administrators, especially inschool administrators, more often than not elected to remain on their campuses "taking care" of the students and staff. This has major ramifications for the skill level and quality of administrators in rural areas.

Texas administrators were faced with high mobility rates, high poverty rates within the community (or at least segments of the community), and cultural and/or language issues. It becomes necessary to develop supports to help administrators deal with communities in flux, since their role as administrator puts them at the forefront of issues that trickle into the lives of the children in school.

“Life in a fishbowl” was a consistent metaphor utilized by rural administrators, although it was not always referred to negatively. The stresses of being a public role model were often balanced by the care and concern offered by the community in times of need. The lines between professional and personal identities blurred in rural communities. Many single female administrators had to either leave the community on weekends or be able to live with the idea that their personal lives would become the community’s coffee conversation. Perhaps the issue is that female administrators in rural contexts need to have some links—social and professional—to a world outside of their work community. Since these women indicated that they did not want to leave the community for professional development, it would likely follow that neither would they want to leave the community to attend mentorship meetings across the state. Perhaps online learning technologies that incorporated interactive networking with professional development is a potential way to address the issue, especially if it included some focus on women’s issues in administration. Unfortunately, the discrepancies in technology access, availability, usage and maintenance make this a major undertaking for rural districts.

The data suggest that there was high variability in the representation of female administrators in Texas. A closer examination of regional differences may help to illuminate some of the gender discrepancies found in the representation of women in educational administration. Women do seem to be gaining administrative positions in principalships across the state, but not equitably in the high school principalship nor the superintendency. Women in central office positions are more highly represented in very small rural districts and report that they have a difficult time “breaking in” to larger districts. It is proposed that positions in depressed communities are not as attractive to males as they once were, because responsibilities are high, school closure may be an imminent possibility, and fewer opportunities for advancement exist. Instead, males, who are more mobile in general, are more apt to access positions in communities that are able to provide more activities and more resources. Quite simply, the greater competition for positions in stable communities might ensure that gender inequities are in fact fostered.

In general, females followed traditional career paths and most often found themselves in an elementary principalship. The high school principalship is still hallowed ground upon which few women are invited to tread. It appears to be easier for a woman to move into a central office position than it is for her to become a high school principal. Notions of physical size, perceptions about discipline and athletics still epitomize the stereotype of the high school principal. Some central office interviewees indicated that this inequity ultimately transferred into their search for

superintendencies in larger districts, since many school boards used their lack of experience in the high school principalship to justify not hiring them.

There is a growing aversion to the position of superintendent for many Texas principals. Work needs to be done with school divisions, communities, school boards and professional organizations to alleviate this negativity. Based on the comments made by the interviewees, it is not surprising that Texas is having difficulty finding rural superintendents, or at least keeping them for any length of time, because of the staggering breadth of responsibility and level of personal accountability these people face.

Neither inschool administrators nor central office administrators have access to a collective bargaining unit, since collective bargaining is illegal in the state of Texas. However, that reality may have a negative impact upon female administrators, especially in terms of equitable benefits and salary, contract issues, and grievances. There is no legalized collective bargaining voice for female administrators in Texas that offers them a platform for addressing their concerns. Inequities can occur when contracts are negotiated individually and yearly.

Notions of gender inequity and tokenism exist in the Texas context, and the Good Old Boys Club seems to be thriving in a variety of rural areas. Texas interviewees spoke openly about the methods they used to subvert or to use the power of the Good Old Boys Club to their advantage. Overall, women recognized that The Club existed, but they generally tried to work around or with its influence rather than aggressively confront it.

In conclusion, the administrators indicated that they worked within constraints, and dealt with incredible challenges in contexts that were not always facilitative or inviting. At times, the role model responsibility, isolation of the position, and sometimes personal loneliness gave these rural women in the Lone Star State cause for concern:

Aren't we all like lonely stars
Separated from others by empty space
Occasionally, one unforgettable relation comes
Only to be gone in the blinking of an eye. (Anonymous)

These women became the shining stars of their rural districts because of their hard work, dedication to children, and emphasis on service and support to the community. Their legacy will be to shine the way for more women to enter a field which is still highly unrepresentative of the gendered and ethnic diversity found in the state of Texas.

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Women in Educational Leadership Finding Common Ground

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The purpose of this research project was to engage in self-reflective analysis of leadership development as an ongoing process of social action towards democratizing education. Four White women connected by their work as educational leaders, teachers and administrators, engaged this topic by conducting a dialogical analysis of their experiences in leadership. They dialogued from what were technically different positions in the hierarchy at their University and implemented a research process to speak across or marginalize those technical differences to produce a text that explored the rich terrain of leading in which they shared experiences of growth, the conceptual frameworks that guide their leading, and their differing interpretations of gender's role in the leadership process.

The purpose of this research was to engage in self-reflective analysis of leadership development as an ongoing process of social action towards democratizing education. We, four white women connected by our work as educational leaders, teachers and administrators, engaged this topic as we conducted a dialogical analysis of our experiences in leadership. The following questions were central to the dialogical study of women in educational leadership: (a) How do we understand leadership? (b) How has our perception of leadership been influenced by our position? (c) What are the complexities of being a woman in leadership roles?

We were looking at our conceptualizations of leadership, the importance and influence of position in our ideas about leadership, and how gender has played a role in our ideas and the realities of our praxis of leadership. We were hoping that these self-reflective analyses would be a step toward democratizing education. We were dialoguing from what were technically different positions in the hierarchy at the university and implementing a research process (a) to speak across or marginalize those technical differences, and (b) to produce a text that explored the rich terrain of leading

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in which we shared experiences of growth, the conceptual frameworks that guided our leading, and our differing interpretations of gender's role in the leadership process.

Women in Educational Leadership and Pedagogical Theories

Researchers have approached the study of educational leadership, and, especially, women in educational leadership, from many perspectives. Recent research includes new research methods that are implicitly or explicitly critical of more traditional methods. Research coming from feminist, critical theorist, cultural studies, and post modernist perspectives challenges old paradigms and methods, which, the researchers argue are incapable, for a variety of reasons, of finding the answers they seek (Dillard, 2000; Marshall, 2000; Morley, 2000; Strachan, 1999). Some researchers argue, the methods themselves, as well as the questions they ask, perpetuate the problem the research is seeking to understand. Taken together the researchers attempt to name and examine the experiences of women in leadership positions and/or of women taking or defining leadership roles. They inadvertently bring up the question of how one defines leadership (Carli & Eagly, 2001; Muller, 1994). Most, but not all, define it in terms of position, not as a way of approaching any work, or a possibility in any work situation, as we did. We examined leadership through dialogue as a way to go beyond or rise above positionality.

For all of the research reviewed, as for us, the method and its challenges to the *status quo* are central to the conclusions. The process and product, or the method and theory, are wedded, as they are for us. Some researchers used different conceptual lenses than ours, causing us to question and stretch our own. We were, for example, intrigued by work on the role of emotionality in educational leadership (Beatty, 2000; Hargreaves, 1998; Sachs & Blackmore, 1998), a concept we did approach directly. We keep these various views in mind, as we analyze our dialoguing.

We also keep in mind our own roots in pedagogy. All of us were originally prepared to be K-12 teachers: two of us as secondary school teachers, one as a middle school teacher, and one as an elementary school teacher. Although there are research literatures on various aspects of

leadership and management, we, as teachers/educators have all been schooled in educational philosophies and pedagogies that still guide our actions. We are grounded in the Progressive tradition as articulated by John Dewey. Such well known mantras as “learning by doing” and “education is of, by, and for experience” are indelibly written in our educational souls (Dewey, 1915, 1916, 1938). Dewey stressed process over product, method over content. He tied the active participation of students in their own learning to the learning of roles necessary for citizenship in a democracy. Dewey’s ideas on learning from experience and relating those experiences to democratic, participatory goals guide us.

We also find Critical Theory especially challenging in thinking through issues of leadership. Giroux, in his seminal work on “Teachers as Transformative Intellectuals,” puts forward the idea of making the pedagogical political and the political pedagogical (Giroux, 1985, 1988). He appeals to classroom teachers to go beyond the role of technician, to become intellectual leaders, or “transformative intellectuals.” He also asks that educators build on their Progressive base by addressing issues of power in the classroom. Teachers, according to Giroux, are working within a political framework in the classroom, and they, as teachers, thus, are acting politically as they teach. They are making the “pedagogical political.” Leaders, too, are teachers, and in this sense we ask how this perspective on the pedagogical, the political, and their symbiotic relationship to one another can inform our dialoguing.

Dialogue as Narrative Method in Research

During two 120-minute audio-taped dialogue sessions, we agreed to suspend our opinions and judgments in order to understand all perspectives and reflect on our own perspective. The dialogical methodology for data collection was framed by the work of Burbules (1993), Jenlink and Carr (1996), and Systems Thinking (Isaacs, 1993). Our analysis of the data was framed by narrative methods (Polkinghorne, 1995). We analyzed our narrative texts, which resulted from transcribing the two 120-minute audio-taped dialogue sessions, to determine the responses that best represented insightful information to contribute to leadership theory.

From a traditional perspective on leadership as hierarchical positions, the teacher educator researcher’s role in this project may have been questioned, as she serves in a position of assistant professor, while the other researcher participants served in administrative roles in the university: Department Chair, Dean, and Vice-Chancellor of Academic Affairs. It was the teacher educator researcher among us who provided the methodology leadership for

our research project. Her relatively recent doctoral studies in a Scholar-Practitioner model of educational leadership influenced her to connect inquiry and practice as a way of approaching all her endeavors in her positional role as assistant professor and researcher. She had completed her dissertation work using narrative methods. She exercised leadership when she defined dialogue as we would use it as a method of self-reflective narrative inquiry:

My perspective on dialogue is that people suspend their judgment of other people's positions or comments and that we seek to understand each other's perspectives. In that sense, when each person is responding to the question, it will be important to the rest of us to try to listen, to understand, not to be thinking about how our position may be different, but to understand.

The other three of us had completed our doctoral work years before and had built our research on other methods and academic traditions. At the time of this project we shared an identity as women working in the same university, all involved in different positions of educational leadership, and all originally trained to be K-12 classroom teachers. Thus, the leadership on methods and theoretical research perspective for this project challenges positional expectations, as do the methods themselves.

Dialoguing, Capturing Conceptual Frameworks

Dialoguing allows educational leaders to capture conceptual frameworks of leadership and raise new questions. Through our dialoguing we discovered our varied and nuanced perspectives to several questions. We began our narrative analysis of women in educational leadership by reflecting on how we understand leadership.

Dean Roberta Wiener: "I understand it through experience. Of course, there's another way of understanding it, and that's through studying leadership. Susan studies leadership from her own discipline, as well as being a leader, but the understanding of leadership is experiential."

Vice Chancellor for Academic Affairs Susan Hannah:

I agree with Roberta . . . I have spent some time studying leadership as a historian and a political scientist . . . A lot of my understanding of leadership is from doing it, and matching my own experience against others whom I watch, and the research I've read. That's how I understand it. I experience it, I do it, I watch other people, and I read about it. I think we lead who we are. And if we are not true to who we are, I think who we are comes out in whatever we do. But that's more of a style issue, and that's why I don't think there is one style of

leadership . . . I think it's very different for different people, different times, different groups, and different situations. It varies dramatically.

Assistant Professor Glenda Moss:

I think of leadership as a force in an organization. And it's active, it's relationship, it's the way people relate to one another and influence. Basically it's a force that results in decision-making, which moves the organization in one direction or another.

Chair Kathleen Murphey:

Leaders are people who take responsibility for creating a community, for looking at the whole of the group in relationships. They take responsibility either because they have been chosen to do it, or because they choose themselves to do it; but they see the whole, and they want it to work for one reason or another . . . I would also associate leadership with having a vision, of seeing the broader goals . . . It is dealing with the political, or dealing with the power relationships of what we do . . . I think that there are power relationships everywhere, and I see leaders as people who read those and work with them for some kind of end, which we hope is positive.

Hannah:

Your word "responsibility" is very important. If we're going to talk about leadership as a definition, then I have to throw out here my favorite, Peter Senge's (1990) work on *The Fifth Discipline*, responsibilities and tasks of leadership. He talks about leaders as "stewards, teachers, and architects," and he articulates for me as full a definition of leadership as I know anything about. The steward part is what you, Kathleen, were really getting at; a leader is a steward of the group.

Moss:

Everyone has to take up leadership. Everyone has to be conscious of the political. Everyone has to become conscious of who is impacted positively and negatively by every decision we make. Classroom teachers need to be conscious of the impact of the lesson plans they make and how they carry them out. They need to have a sense of leadership in the kinds of communities they build in the classroom.

The dialogue then turned to considerations of no leadership, described as anarchy, and negative leadership, as in fascist models of leadership, and the difference between authoritarian and authoritative leadership. Hannah

emphasized that she is particularly interested in leadership as practiced by people who also are in positions of authority, like she is now. Moss, in turn, stressed that to her leadership “is praxis, it is the way we practice positions of authority we’ve been given, whatever they are.” For example, according to Moss, teachers cannot blame principals for lack of leadership. They, the teachers, need to bring leadership to their work.

Murphey suggested that leadership is contextual; leadership arises when the moment calls for it. Wiener added that good leaders make leadership look easy, effortless, but, in fact, leaders have to work hard to make it work. They also have to make difficult decisions; it goes along with the responsibilities of leadership. Moss reiterated that she sees leadership as a force of energy driven by relationships: “We can’t physically see it, yet we know it . . . We have a momentum going. It’s not really tangible, but you can see a lot of products that are evidence of the productivity.” Hannah added that Mary Parker Follett (1918) talked about this in the 1920s in her work on power in organizations: “Power is defined by what we bring to the task. Leadership is given to us by other people. We can’t really take it. They give it to us.”

Wiener then raised the question of how the authority inherent in leadership can be democratic. Is it democratic, because, as Moss suggested, everyone must exercise leadership in their work? Is it democratic, because, as Hannah suggested, the leader-led relationship is reciprocal? Is it democratic, because, as Murphey suggested, stewardship is the essence of a democratic system, in which leaders take responsibility for the democratic functioning of the whole community?

Continuing the Dialogue: Questions Leading to Questions

We dialogued next about how our perceptions of leadership had been influenced by our positions. We discovered that all of us referred to leadership experiences at various positions in our careers, including the positions we then held. We had all learned greatly from our experiences and continue to learn as we meet new challenges in leadership. Wiener, for example, learned early on that she needed consensus to lead. She had experience with leaders, when she was a faculty member, who tried to lead without consensus, which caused extreme resentment and divisiveness among the faculty.

Hannah stated that her perception and perspective changed with changing positions: “The questions are very different at different places. The information is different, and the responsibility is very different whether we are an assistant or the person that makes the decision.” She explained how,

when she moved from Associate Dean in Arts and Sciences to become Assistant Provost at a previous institution, her vision had to change from a school to the whole university. She continued: "I had to change totally the kinds of questions I asked, the kind of data I looked at, the issues with which I needed to be concerned, which parts of the job I needed to do and which parts of the job I needed somebody else to take over." In essence, according to Hannah, we are playing roles, which we have to be informed about to do well. She said about the role, "I don't confuse it with who I am. I don't confuse it, thinking that it's me personally. It's whoever is in this job. It's the job, those set of responsibilities. So I'm very informed about the set of responsibilities I hold at this time."

Moss had a difficult time seeing leadership as only inherent in a role. She gave the example of herself as a middle school teacher who had different opportunities for performing her teaching creatively, depending on the leadership style of the principal. It was not, however, just a matter of her leadership as a teacher, or of the principal's leadership as an administrator. There was an environment of leadership created through their relationships with one another. With one principal, the leadership environment was positive and teacher leadership was allowed to blossom; in another experience, the principal stifled the leadership of the group.

Murphey came to the chair's position when it was a new position: "There wasn't a model or practice to follow." She found herself exercising the general directives for the position, but realizing often afterwards that there were things she could have done, especially in terms of taking the initiative, that she only realized serendipitously or too late to act on. During the time of her chairing, teacher education was undergoing major reforms and the School of Education was facing an accreditation visit from NCATE. Through all the extra pressures at work, she discovered the satisfaction of having a leadership team that worked well together, under Dean Wiener's leadership, and a faculty, including Moss, who rose to the occasion in support. She came away with a tremendously positive experience of faculty working together and a renewed appreciation of how circumstances, which were considered oppressive by most of the faculty, can help set the parameters for what leadership can achieve. This could be viewed as an environment of leadership created through relationship, as articulated by Moss.

Moss explained how she had many more leadership opportunities at the University than she did as a classroom teacher, although she bases much of her knowledge on her experiences as a classroom teacher. Wiener reminded her that she was able to exercise those opportunities as a teacher educator because of her, the Dean's, leadership in allowing and encouraging her to be innovative in her university teaching. This, thus, affirmed Moss's own earlier

statement that leadership is something in the environment of the organization, when, in essence, everyone contributes to the leadership of the whole in their one way, from whatever position they occupy. Thus, it is not positionality, so much as the leadership process that promotes positive leadership.

In looking at leadership process, we then challenged ourselves to dialogue about the complexities of women becoming leaders. Up to this point in our dialoguing we had spoken with no reference to the gendered dimensions of our positions or of leadership in general. So far, it would seem that gender was not an important prism to us for thinking about leadership.

Questions About the Complexities of Women Becoming Leaders

Hannah immediately charged, "Our sexual roles follow us into any job, everywhere. I think gender does intrude. It's a power, though. We can use it." Murphey thought that as more women moved into leadership positions, more styles of leadership were becoming apparent, i.e., there was coming to be a broader range of styles for women than for men. She and Moss noted how they had learned from Wiener's strong use of counseling skills gained from her background in psychiatry. Wiener's human relations skills were exceptional and contributed to her ability to lead well. Murphey and Moss had witnessed many times the academic skills in political science which Hannah used so effectively in her position. Hannah always brought her own intellectual engagement with the literature on leadership to help her lead. Murphey explained, "I've often been in meetings where she'd say, 'Well, now we're going to do it this way, because so-and-so says in this book that this is the best way to do it . . . She used ideas as a support system, and they were very effective. She leads through ideas.'" Murphey wondered if, perhaps, this meant that women needed "extra strengths" to counterbalance their perceived lack of experience in leadership roles.

Moss indicated that many men recognized their position of privilege, as men, and were working hard to be just. Still others did not see their relatively privileged position. Although Moss said she tried to encourage democratic participation of all students in her classes, so that traditionally marginalized students had a chance to participate, on reflection she was not sure if this practice distinguished her as a women leader, since it might just be the way she personally does things in her classroom.

Hannah said that "women have to find a way to deal with the fact that they are largely in a situation dominated by men in leadership roles. Women

in leadership positions have to deal with the fact that they are human. And have to adopt whatever strategies, yours might be this one, some women do it by being dictatorial, using their power, authority, and position like a sledgehammer . . . They, women, play the role very differently.”

Murphey noted that because most of the department members were women, she was not as conscious that she was a women leader, as that she was learning a leadership role. She quickly discovered, however, that she assumed that leadership was an academic task, and not a political task, a fact that she now thinks, perhaps, had to do with being a woman. She also learned, through challenging experiences, that aggression, which she does not use, can be used by both women and men, and subordinates and superiors, to challenge her leadership. She has had to learn ways to prepare for it, and counter it, without being aggressive in return. This she now sees as a product of her upbringing and identity as a woman. She concludes that she is constantly learning her own values and limits by unconsciously assuming that gender does not matter, when it is, in fact, always present in her expectations, habits, and gender (un)consciousness and that of all with whom she deals.

Hannah finds that not all women leaders are nurturers, and some men are: “Not all men are walking around like dictators . . . There are plenty of men, who maybe out of the goodness of their hearts, or maybe just because they’re very good leaders, understand the importance of nurturing and supporting their folks.” Moss notes that her own strengths and weaknesses in relating to both men and women sometimes make it difficult for her to tell if she is being as sensitive as she would like to be with her students on this issue.

Wiener stresses the importance and power of upbringing. Men, she finds, often have expectations for success, good raises, and appointments to positions of power that women do not have. Those expectations help them achieve success. At the same time, Wiener finds that we, as women, have not been experienced in or expected to help other women go up the ladder of success. Competition among women still lurks in the background, pulling at the support women leaders need to progress in leadership roles.

Thus, through our dialogues we see that we share the experience of constantly learning from our work roles. “I think we lead who we are. And if we are not true to who we are, I think who we are comes out in whatever we do,” said Hannah, as noted above. We saw throughout our dialoguing that we each “led who we were,” and appreciated that in one another. We see four women in different positions of educational leadership who are very conscious of and articulate about the process of leadership. They bring different skills, different talents, and different experiences to the table.

Confident in their own skills, these women are, nonetheless, very aware of the gender issue in leadership, but, for the most part they acknowledge the reality of their and everyone else's upbringing and try to work with it as they develop their own styles and effectiveness. In the end, however, they see the fact that they have taken leadership roles as (a) a special achievement because they are women, and (b) a step forward in the democratization of leadership. As leaders they define their broadest goals as shaping democratic organizations, as well as democratic practices on both the macro and micro levels.

Breaking into Theory, When Process Becomes Product

We hold up our method and the text that it produced to theories about educational leadership. We discovered that role and position matter, experience matters, ideas about leadership matter, dialogue matters, research matters, and democracy matters. We conclude that democracy is the biggest lens and the broadest conceptual framework that we all share, though we express it differently and it plays different roles in the worlds in which we lead. It trumps gender, position, and individual experiences as the common denominator, our common framework for action. On the importance of positionality to leadership, those of us with the longest experience in positions of authority, and in the positions with the most decision-making power tended to express ideas about leadership from the perspective of positions. Others of us saw leadership inherent in any position, as part of the broader environment. Gender poses special obstacles to us: some, which we recognize, we accept and try to creatively work around or overcome; others, which we can not yet see, we are ever vigilant to discover and confront. Our research leads us to many new questions and inspires us to continue narrative inquiry research in educational settings with educators. We are convinced of the power of narrative inquiry as a democratizing method for revealing us to ourselves and to each other, so that we might all grow more in our own leadership skills.

Our narratives all show that we are approaching our leading pedagogically. We are all learning from our experiences, including this dialoguing, as Dewey would have sanctioned. We also see that leadership is pedagogical and it is political, and each is tightly interwoven with the other, as Giroux's (1985, 1988) work articulates. In many ways our four careers are testaments to our ongoing experiences with the challenge of the pedagogical and the political in our leadership roles. We are all, as these narratives also show, seeking to be transformative of the situations we see ourselves as

leaders in, and transformative in a democratic direction. As leaders then, we wear the Progressive mantle, as we are learning from experience, learning by doing. We also wear the Critical Theorist mantle, as we actively and consciously take on the pedagogical and political challenges that cannot be separated from any work in education. Under both mantles we, as women educational leaders, carry out the democratizing agenda of transformative educational leadership. Our histories, current praxis, and futures are committed to this process.

Final Reflection

In an educational age of top-down reform in which “women remain dramatically underrepresented in formal leadership positions” (Rhode, 2003, p. 3), is there a place to ask the question: What difference can women in educational leadership make towards a more democratic, participatory process? Although our study did not specifically seek to answer that question, our research methodology models constructivist leadership theory (Lambert et al., 1995) in practice. We offer this study in which we used dialogue methods to achieve authentic participation in the examination of women in educational leadership as a way of finding common ground. It models the way narrative and dialogue (Cooper, 1995) inquiry can create space for participants from diverse positions to contribute to the examination of leadership and grow in knowledge and conceptualization of what it means to be an educational leader in the process. It validates dialogical inquiry as a narrative method that is pedagogical, scholarly, and democratic.

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Strategies for Advocacy in Higher Education

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The feminist phase theory (Tetreault, 1985) was used to examine the cultural patterns embedded in a department of a large, urban university, to classify how the faculty in the department perceived women, and to examine how our own behavior as two newly hired associate and assistant professors contributed or did not contribute to these patterns of behavior. Three years of field notes, anecdotal records, transcriptions of meetings, interviews, and student comments were categorized to develop experienced-derived strategies. These strategies encourage women in higher education to: (a) recognize their own enmeshment in patriarchal practices; (b) disrupt these practices through their own behavior; and (c) move to positions of advocacy and moral purpose in higher education.

As two newly hired associate and assistant professors in an urban university, we embarked on a journey that led us to examine the cultural patterns embedded in the department in which we were hired. With backgrounds in K-12 education, we have endured patriarchal practices in work environments and were aware of the dominance of males in many institutions of higher education. In this paper our thoughts about marginalization, our values, boundaries and the politics of difference (Nicholson, 1990; Young, 1990), and our individual differentiation (Yeatman, 1990, 1994) are examined. Previous research studies that investigated ways to identify/define "success" for women in academia were extended (Wesson & Carr, 2003; Wesson & Hauschildt, 1997a, 1997b, 1998).

Literature Review

Wenniger and Conroy's (2001) longitudinal data illustrated the past and present status of women in academe. In 1975, five percent of all presidents of colleges and universities were women. The percentage increased to 12% by 1992, 16.5% by 1995 and 19.3% by 1998. The largest percentage of women

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presidents were reported to lead private two-year colleges with 27% of all private two-year college presidents being women. Next, women represented 15% of all presidents of private four-year colleges, and represented 14% of all public university presidents. Women were reported to be presidents of smaller schools with 71% leading schools that have 3,000 or fewer students. Wenniger and Conroy (2001) maintained that women were more likely to be presidents of troubled schools that were considered to be at risk, colleges that were in need of an interim president where a free trial period is allowed, and at community colleges where teaching was more valued than research.

Wenniger and Conroy (2001) reported an increase of women in the ranks of provosts, vice presidents, deans, and department chairs. The number of women also increased in administrative jobs such as directors of programs and affirmative action offices in which they have little chance of affecting policy and procuring advancement (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001).

The gender of the faculty in higher academic ranks is predominantly male. Bellas' (2001) data (prepared for The Committee on the Status of

Women in the Academic Profession, a sector of The American Association of University Professors), illustrated the disparity of women faculty in the professoriate. Women were reported to account for 36% of faculty overall. The data confirm that more women faculty are in the non-tenured, lower paying positions in comparison to male faculty. Among tenured or tenure track faculty, Bellas (2001) reported that women were well-represented among assistant professors and least well-represented among full professors. Women made up 46% of assistant professors, 36% of associate professors, and 21% of full professors. Women were represented disproportionately among instructors and lecturers and in unranked positions holding 58% of instructorships, 55% of lectureships, and 48% of unranked positions. Data indicating the salary advantage held by male faculty were also reported. Across all ranks and institutional types, on average, women were reported to earn 91% of what men earn. Among the ten highest-paying public institutions, only one (College of William and Mary) reported higher average salaries for female full professors. During 1970-2000, in the professoriate, the gap between men's and women's salaries has grown wider (Mason & Goulden, 2002).

Discrepancies also exist when the standards for hiring and promotion for those in higher education are analyzed. According to Wenniger and Conroy (2001), from 1925 to 2000 the percentage of full-time female faculty in higher education increased by only 5% (from 19% to 24%). In the area of gaining tenure, 22% of tenured faculty were female in 1989. In 1998, that number increased to 26%. During 1980-2000, there was an increase of 1.5% in the rate of women gaining tenure, compared to an 8% increase for men. In the male-dominated higher education arena, "the real rules are unwritten and the good old boys are reluctant to let women join their game" (Wenniger & Conroy, 2001, p. 6).

Although women have gained status, they appear to have marginalized their personal lives. Mason and Goulden (2002) analyzed data from 1973 to 1999 of faculty with children. They reported that women who attained tenure across all disciplines were unlikely to have children in the household. Tenured women in science were twice as likely as tenured men to be single, and more tenured women remained single in the social sciences and humanities as well. Fifty-nine percent of the married women with children, who chose not to marginalize their personal lives, indicated they were considering leaving academia and cited balancing career and family as a high source of stress.

Purpose

This study examined ways to disrupt patterns in behavior that keep women in roles of victimization and move them away from positions of advocacy for themselves and their authentic life's work. Strategies are recommended for women in higher education to: (a) recognize their own enmeshment in these patriarchal practices, and (b) disrupt these practices through their own behavior. Because patriarchal systems are so entrenched in western cultures (Tarnas, 1991; Weedon, 1987), the rules of the day-to-day patriarchal games occur within complex layers of acts and responses, some more conscious or unconscious than others.

Feminist Phase Theory

The feminist phase theory is a "classification schema of the evolution in thought during the past 15 years and the incorporation of women's traditions, history, and experiences into selected disciplines" of thought (Tetreault, 1985, p. 364). The disciplines Tetreault examined were anthropology, history, literature, and psychology. She drew her conclusions based on examples of questions commonly asked about women in each discipline in each phase.

The five phases of the feminist phase theory (Tetreault, 1985) are: male scholarship, compensatory scholarship, bifocal scholarship, feminist scholarship and multifocal or relational scholarship. Each phase represents an evolutionary shift about what is "possible and appropriate" (Tetreault, 1985, p. 366) for that discipline to include about women.

Tetreault described each phase in this way:

1. In the male scholarship phase, the male experience is viewed as universal in that it is representative of humanity and is the basis for generalizing about all human beings. If this perspective is present, all thought has the derivative of the male perspective. There is no awareness that the existence of women as a group requires expansion of that knowledge.
2. In the second phase, compensatory scholarship, there is a consciousness that women are missing. However, males are still perceived as the norm and representative of all thought. In this phase, a few outstanding women emerge, but they fit the male norm of excellence.
3. In phase three, bifocal scholarship, the following factors are represented: first, there is an emphasis on the differences between

women and men; second, there is a focus on the oppression of women and the means that men have used to advance their authority and to assert female inferiority; third, there is attention to women's efforts to overcome that oppression, specifically through women's organizations and networks.

4. Phase four, feminist scholarship, emphasizes women's activities as the most valued. In this phase, there is a more pluralistic conceptualization of women. There is a realization that generalizing about a group as vast and diverse as women leads to inaccuracies.
5. In the final phase, multifocal or relational scholarship, how women and men relate to and complement one another is analyzed. There is a search for the common points where women and men's experiences intersect. The pluralistic conception of women from the feminist phase is now applied to all humans. There is a shift from a male-centered point of view to one placing women at the center of their own knowledge.

For the purposes of this paper, these five evolutionary phases and the questions that accompanied each phase were used as a framework to determine which of the five phases served as a representative of the perspectives of faculty in the department of a large urban university. The department consisted of seven faculty, three of whom were women. The feminist phase theory was used to classify how the faculty in the department perceived women and how our own behavior, as two of the female faculty, contributed or did not contribute to these perspectives.

Methodology

Using field notes, anecdotal records, transcriptions of meetings, interviews, and student comments, a case study was developed to evaluate which of the common stages of thinking about women was most representative of departmental faculty of a large urban university during a two-year period. The perceptions of four males and three females in the department were classified. Although there were differences at various times among the faculty, there was enough evidence to support the notion that the phase that was most applicable to the behavior in the department was phase two, compensatory scholarship. In this phase, the female viewpoint is recognized as being separate from males, but the traditional patriarchal, male perspective dominates all aspects of the experience. In this phase, women are perceived to be different and at times inferior. The data indicate that this perceived difference and inferiority was expressed by males as well as females.

As two female academics with previous experiences in K-12 administrative settings, we have often found ourselves in patriarchal work environments where these kinds of perceptions exist. As we examined our careers, particularly teaching, research, and leadership, it was evident that we were able to move out of a phase two environment and establish a professional life that was not in keeping with the perceptions of those around us. Our teaching, research, and leadership did not conform to the expectations of the environment.

In the last portion of the study we identified strategies we used to move out of the expectations in phase two, compensatory phase, and how we established careers that, in many ways, exemplify the fifth phase, the relational phase.

Experiential-Derived Strategies for Moving Out of a Phase-Two Environment

These strategies emerged as we researched our work in the department (Wesson & Carr, 2003). They are the strategies that helped us disrupt patterns in our own behavior that kept us in roles that moved us away from positions of advocacy for our authentic life's work. Although these strategies were difficult to categorize, they appear to center on self-development and centering life's work around things that were congruous with our values (Wesson & Hauschildt, 1997a). The strategies speak to the need to take complete responsibility for oneself and one's actions.

Strategies

Maintain Your Moral Purpose

Fullan (1999) defined moral purpose in an educational context as twofold: on a local level, moral purpose entails your ability to make a difference in the lives of the students with whom you interact and on a broader level, moral purpose is educating others with the intention of making a contribution to the betterment of society as a whole. We entered education with that moral purpose in mind, but found that being enmeshed in phase two environments caused difficulty in staying committed to this kind of moral purpose. Specific strategies we use to sustain our moral purpose in higher education are:

- Craft your practice of teaching, research, and leadership based on your lived-experiences and the moral purpose defined by Fullan (1999).

- Spend time with your students and colleagues to build authentic relations.
- Develop strategies that call for experiential and participatory learning.
- Implement practices of transformative learning.
- Be a student, learner, and wisdom-keeper.
- Attend workshops, network with other, read, read, read, and use the internet to connect with ideas and people who also promote this kind of moral purpose in education.

Maintain the Principle of Nonresistance

Millman (1994) in *The Warrior Athlete: Body, Mind, and Spirit* maintained that there are four paths you can take to respond to the forces of life: surrender to them, ignore them, resist and create turmoil, or use the forces of life to your advantage. He termed the last option nonresistance. As nonresisters, we use challenges and oppositions as lessons. In higher education, this principle translates to moving out of the role of victim and taking responsibility for your own behavior so that your behavior works toward your goals. From every situation, a life-learning experience can be extracted. Specific strategies are:

- Craft a reflective life.
- Know that you are 100% responsible for yourself.
- Gain control over your own life and give up the need to control others.
- Define and redefine success for yourself.
- Accept necessary losses as gifts to help you re-define “success.”
- Be an active listener but practice non-attachment.
- Don’t engage in another person’s drama.
- Be the peace you seek.
- Carry yourself with you wherever you go.
- Face and step into your fears.
- Step out of your own emotionality and compulsive behavior.
- Seek out mentors and role models.
- Be aware of rules of the “games.”
- Keep an eye on the bigger picture.

Create a Sense of Community

In a phase-two environment, the atmosphere seems to be very much like the traditional environment found in higher education. There is an individualistic culture where achieving goals for the self is the top priority. Many would say

that in this environment the *I* takes precedence over the *we*, initiative and achievement are highly prized, individual goals are the most important goals, relationships are often adversarial and become win-lose conflicts, and friendships seem to be made only for specific purposes (Wenniger, 1995). This kind of environment ignores the needs that many women bring to the work environment; i.e., the need to create a sense of community where support, trust, belonging, and long-term friendships are prized. For many women, when there is a culture of connection rather than separation, understanding and acceptance rather than assessment, and collaboration rather than debate, success seems to come more easily (Wenniger, 1995). The following strategies for creating this sense of community are suggested:

- Seek relationships with faculty, administrators, researchers, writers, students, and colleagues who value collaboration.
- Participate in conferences, workshops, retreats, study groups and book clubs that invite conversation about collaborative approaches to problem solving.
- Role model collaboration and co-creativity in classrooms, meetings, and other university activities.

Maintain Interdependence Between Personal and Professional Life

Women in higher education often feel challenged to give equal time to the demands of their personal life especially in a phase-two environment. The internal conflict resulting from such turmoil ultimately results in a lack of substance in both areas. So that a healthy perspective and emotional well-being is maintained, we must learn to allow lessons learned from the workplace to enhance our personal lives and vice versa. Life's lessons are not restricted to any one area. True harmony is achieved when interdependence is maintained through self reflection and allowing all of our lived-learning to enhance all aspects of our life. Specific strategies are:

- Keep your spiritual life as the center of your life and spend time there in contemplation.
- Critically examine values and meanings that emerge in your academic environment and self-construct values and meanings that emerge out of your own values and lived-experiences (Mezirow, 1978).
- Critically examine how your own emotionality contributes to your behavior, particularly to the unconscious role playing behavior of hero and/or victim (Wesson & Carr, 2003).

- Focus on personal growth as well as skill mastery.
- Understand and reflect on the importance of a “value-full,” instead of a “value-free” environment. (Duerr, Zajonc, & Dana, 2003).

Concluding Thoughts

The identified strategies created a working environment for us that differed from the traditional higher education environment that is replete with behaviors that have traditionally been termed as male: aggression, selfishness in time allocation (that translates to more focus on personal career agendas rather than students and teaching), extreme competitiveness, linear thinking, and a tendency to overlook the overall moral purpose of higher education. By using the feminist phase theory to validate and contextualize our personal experiences in the department (Gardiner, Enomoto, & Grogan, 2000), we were able to also value our lived experiences and categorize experience-derived strategies that have emerged out of these lived-experiences and have helped us work against “an imbalanced male biased perspective” (Gardiner et al., 2000). We hope that these strategies provide talking-points for others who are also striving for positions of advocacy and moral purpose in higher education.

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Voices of Women in the Field

Lessons From the Land of Administrative Oz

Carol Renner

We're off to explore the Land of Administrative Oz. On this adventure, Dorothy is a female teacher searching for her ideal educational path. Her passion is to make a difference for student learning. She is wondering if she should try her leadership in an administrative capacity. She contemplates taking the road to administrative endorsement, just as our protagonist, Dorothy, traveled the Yellow Brick Road, not knowing what was ahead. Our teacher starts her journey. Where does the road lead? Observe as our aspiring administrator follows the Career Brick Road. Are her experiences reminiscent of your educational career route?

Prior to her journey, our aspiring administrator has a satisfied educational life as a teacher in the Midwest (maybe Kansas) with good support from her school supervisor, and her school family of instructional peers. She is a teacher who has made a difference for students in her classroom. Yet her inner mental turmoil causes her to speculate, 'Can I be a better leader?' 'Can I affect more students?' 'How can my career be more fulfilling?' These queries soon thrust our teacher onto the path of the Career Brick Road, just as Dorothy's thoughts of a better place propelled her to a new land. Our teacher takes the administrative study route. Initially, the quest is somewhat daunting, but she soon finds the Land of Administrative Oz clearly directing her at each turn. The path to success is marked.

Along the way, Dorothy meets three significant mentors, each with a different point of view and life story to share. A lesson for aspiring female administrators is to seek mentors to support the journey down the Career Brick Road. New relationships help one to identify personal strengths as observed by Dorothy's personal growth. The colleagues encounter both good and bad escapades on the journey, but they continue, united in support of one another. They learn that there is no magical trick to make their destiny easier. They must simply walk the talk all the way through the Land of Administrative Oz. Conversations give way to questions regarding the appropriateness of the journey:

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- Am I smart enough to succeed in the Land of Administrative Oz? Do I have the knowledge to lead others in student learning accomplishments? (A brain)
- Do I have the courage to boldly speak from my core values and educational beliefs in the face of loud, challenging, internal and external opposition? (courage)
- Do I have enough heart to address educational decisions with flexibility, rather than rigid responses and lack of compromise? Can I see each educational situation for the unique care and consideration that it requires? (A heart)

The path to educational gain is challenging and the prize, at times, seems unreachable. Threatening obstacles are encountered along the way (as frightening as lions and tigers and bears). But the ultimate ambition, to achieve a personal goal and to serve all munchkins well, is a source of strength for Dorothy and our teacher.

On arriving at the end of her journey, our aspiring administrator expects that the Wizard of Administrative Oz will be able to mysteriously grant her the educational skills and hopes she desires; but the Wizard can only provide encouragement and support. The Wizard can be a mentor to our aspiring administrator, as he was to Dorothy, pointing out that she had the capacity to

reach her destiny all along. He can give our teacher advice on how to strengthen leadership skills, and counsel her that success is just a matter of looking deep inside and believing in oneself. She has already proven herself by traveling the difficult Administrative path, and completing all the directives along the way. She is now in charge of her own destiny. The Wizard supports her with a diploma and a promise of a continued relationship. The trip through Administrative Oz was successful for our teacher and taught her many new things about relationships and inner strength. She is now ready for a place where she can make a difference for all district munchkins through an administrative position.

The classic fairy tale, the *Wizard of Oz*, may have some lessons for female teachers considering school administration. Just as Dorothy, female educators experience the same perplexing emotions, questioning the right career destiny, experiencing stormy situations that thrust them into career paths, exploring the unpredictable path to their destiny, meeting mentors who help them through the journey of challenging obstacles, always completing yet one more life requirement before the goal is met, and ultimately, learning to believe in themselves as the source of personal success. Dorothy showed us the importance of mentors along the path of life. Mentors who can honestly share their experiences, hopes, strengths, and weaknesses are important to new administrators. Relationship building with mentors makes one reflect on personal strengths and supports one in a successful administrative career.

The characters in the *Wizard of Oz* show females some of the traits to apply in successful administrative careers. Women in pursuit of administration roles sometimes question their own knowledge or capacity to lead (like the scarecrow's quest for a 'brain'). This is overcome by believing in self and just doing the leadership job. Sometimes a community may question a female administrator's ability to show courage in the face of adversity. As displayed by the lion, taking charge of one's self-perceptions and making the hard decisions is the demonstration of courage. This stereotypic female 'weakness' does not play out in modern society. Females, at home as single moms, as career professionals, or political officials are making the tough decisions and standing up for what is right. As a school administrator, there is ongoing opportunity to demonstrate ethical behavior and show courage. Unlike the tin-man's quest for heart, female administrators typically apply 'heart' in the decisions made on behalf of students. Let your care and support of others show. Make decisions on behalf of each family's needs.

Our schools need strong administrators who pursue goals with persistent determination, yet use their intelligence, confidence, and care to get results.

Dorothy's journey in the Land of Oz provides a good model for female teachers in quest of administrative jobs. If you are willing to take the long learning path, and address challenges with heart, smarts, and courage, you are ready for school administration. Oh! And wear your ruby slippers! You'll look awesome!

FIRST THINGS FIRST: WRITING STRATEGIES

Marilyn L. Grady

Make TIME, Take TIME!

There are some fundamental principles that relate to writing. For instance, you must sit down and begin. Writing is an illusive task. Procrastination and hesitation are poor companions to the work of the writer.

One consistent excuse for not writing is a lack of time to do so. Recall, of course, that there are 168 hours in a week. It is essential that you schedule your week so that you have part of the 168 hours for the writing you want to accomplish. An hour each day (or more) would be a great beginning for a writing schedule. By writing each day, you establish a rhythm, momentum, and continuity to your work. If too much time elapses between writing sessions, each writing session becomes a new beginning rather than a continuation of the writing process. Valuable momentum is lost in the “start and stop” method of writing.

Consistency is an asset in achieving your writing goals. Pick the same time and location each day so that you develop the writing habit. The location should be free from distractions and conducive to your writing needs. Pick a location that has the right ambience and a site that includes all the writing implements you require. You do not want to squander your writing time in a search for a reference or a cup of coffee.

Alert others to your writing intentions. Your friends and family can be persistent task masters who will remind you of your self-proclaimed goals. Allow them to help keep you on track and encourage you in the lonely quest of writing.

Some individuals commit themselves to writing a minimum number of words or pages at each writing session. This practice assures consistent writing progress. Imagine how many pages you can write in a month or six months if you commit to a requirement of two pages each day. Consider not leaving your writing spot until you have written those two pages.

Writing requires discipline. One way to create structure for your writing is to establish deadlines. A section, a theme, or a chapter can be benchmarks for the completion of a writing session.

The key is in beginning!

Book Review

Clark, L. (2004). *5 Leadership Essentials for Women: Developing Your Ability to Make Things Happen*. Birmingham, AL: New Hope Publishers.

Clarissa M. Craig

Because much of the scholarship on leadership has been constructed using male norms (Nidiffer, 2001), there is added attraction when the essentials of successful leadership are targeted for women. *5 Leadership Essentials for Women: Developing Your Ability to Make Things Happen* addresses five leadership skills that, according to the “compiler” [sic] Linda Clark, are designed with women’s needs in mind. The leadership essentials explored are communication, relationship essentials, time management, group building, and conflict management.

One of the main purposes of writing *5 Leadership Essentials for Women* is to help women realize their “God-given potential” of becoming an effective leader (Clark, 2004, p. 9). Based on personal observations and more than 30 years of experience as a women’s leader, she advocates that leadership is not reserved for a chosen few nor automatically assumed with position. Kouzes and Posner (2003) described these as two common myths of leadership. They view leadership as an “observable set of skills and abilities” that “can be strengthened, honed, and enhanced” irrespective of title or position (p. 97). From their perspective, we are all born with various sets of skills and abilities and it is up to us as to what we do with what we have. The development of these skills requires practice and feedback, along with good role models and coaching.

The concept of a “natural born leader” is another myth that is perpetuated, especially in higher education (Chliwniak, 1997). This concept is often described from a masculine perspective, largely attributed to a relative lack of women leaders as role models (Regan & Brooks, 1995). Clark’s notion of realizing God-given potential suggests that we are all natural born with leadership abilities, but ones that may need to be developed. Based on his experience working with organizations and executives, Blank (2001) indicates that there are a set of specific skills that define what people commonly label as a natural born leader. Natural born leaders gain this recognition because they “*effortlessly, spontaneously,*

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consistently, and *frequently* demonstrate skills that cause others to willingly follow (Blank, 2001, p. 8). These skills come from learning, practice, and mastery.

Although Clark selects five skills as essential for leadership, the number, scope and classification of leadership skills are varied in the literature. Kouzes and Posner (2003), for example, identify five practices of exemplary leadership: Model the Way; Inspire a Shared Vision; Challenge the Process; Enable Others to Act; and Encourage the Heart. Blank (2001) describes 108 leadership skills grouped into three categories: Foundation Skills; Leadership Direction Skills; and Leadership Influence Skills. Chliwniak (1997) describes an emerging leadership model in higher education that requires strong human relations skills, a humanistic approach, collegiality, and consensus building. These images of leadership are more attributed to women than men and suggest that women are prime candidates for positions of leadership (Blackmore 2002; Chliwniak 1997; Regan & Brooks, 1995).

The mastery of skills is just one dimension of leadership but one that has been described as the “hard sciences of leadership . . . where leadership and management merge. The principles and traits are what followers expect of their leaders. The skills provide . . . the tools to win a leadership position. [And] it is the implementation of leadership skills” that sustain a leader (Frigon & Jackson, 1996, pp. 7-8).

Overview

The five leadership essentials of communication, relationship building, time management, group building, and conflict management explored in *5 Leadership Essentials for Women* are in keeping with current leadership scholarship. The same leadership skills apply to any leadership style, according to Clark. She indicates that her consideration of what were essentials of leadership was based on personal observation and experiences as a women’s leader. Sections for each of the essentials are written by women who are also identified as skilled and experienced leaders. For Clark

and the other contributors, much of the experience is based on work in Christian women's ministries and missions. Each section includes discussion questions and reflective learning exercises that are intended to help the reader better understand each of the areas.

Communication Essentials

Harral begins the section on Communication Essentials using an example based on a Biblical story. The story is used to exemplify three models of communication: one-way communication; two-way communication; and transactional communication. Communication is described as:

- a process influenced by elements of our past and present;
- “a totality” depending on our internal systems (attitudes, emotions, understandings, physical and psychological health.) that interface with our external systems (situation, time, place, urgency, ritual);
- being perceptual and creative where no two people perceive the same event in exactly the same way; and
- an uncertainty since we can never exactly predict what will happen in the communication situation. (p. 21)

Transactional communication is identified as an ethical viewpoint, resting on the recognition that human beings have a freedom of choice. The view highlights the necessity of continuous communication to share meanings and to reach mutually acceptable choices. Leaders must be careful not to assume responsibility for the choices of everyone. The challenge for leaders is to accept the other person and the range of choices, and in so doing to also accept their own range of choice.

Another Bible story is used to exemplify principles of the situational leadership model advanced by Blanchard and Hersey. This model provides guidance regarding the communication style to be used in a given situation. Effective leadership and communication depends on the situation, the needs of the people involved, and the job of the leader asking them to do it. This section explores four approaches: telling, coaching, encouraging, and delegating.

Harral notes that “Listening may be the most important part of communication” (p. 37). It is through listening that we validate each other and create opportunities to know another. Most people have spent a great deal of time learning to read and write but few have had any formal training in listening. According to Blank (2001), “Knowing is not doing. Everybody knows it is important to listen. Few demonstrate good listening skills” (p. 15). To be recognized as a natural born leader, a person must “know what to do *and* do it *and* ultimately perform in an effortless, spontaneous manner

(Blank 2001, p. 15). This requires frequent and consistent application of good listening skills.

Common obstacles to effective listening are discussed in the chapter. Antidotes for each obstacle are offered as strategies to minimize or eliminate these obstacles. Additionally, there are strategies suggested to improve listening skills.

The importance of messages sent by unspoken communication is also addressed. This is aptly subtitled, "I See What You're Saying!" Beyond the usual attention to body language and behavior, this section also includes "space," "time," and "artifactual" communication. Space communication considers the distance we place between ourselves and others. This is often tied to a person's culture and the nature of the conversation. Time communication explores how the concept of time provides opportunity for misunderstanding. Examples of "*in just a second*" or "*awhile*" help to reinforce this point. Artifactual communication examines how the objects we use or are surrounded by influence communication. This may include how we dress, the house we live in, or the car we drive.

The last part of Communications Essentials focuses on importance of a leader speaking articulately and persuasively before a group. Harral acknowledges that this is often met with apprehension and offers suggestions to help "control the shaking" (p. 57). Tips and exercises are also offered about voice skills: pitch, pace and inflection. Practical strategies on making the message meaningful are provided, with particular emphasis on knowing the audience, the purpose of the message, and the actual delivery.

Harral indicates that purpose and organization will "make or break" the effectiveness of communication (p. 64). Five major purposes identified are: to inform; to persuade; to entertain; to inspire; and to call to action. The idea of having a clearly defined and formally stated goal would be an important element in achieving any of these intended purposes. Harral's description is very similar to what Frigon and Jackson identify as "the three Cs" of leadership: communication, cooperation, and coordination (1996, p. 107). With these strategies, leaders are able to win over their leadership team, gain followers, and overcome resistance.

Relationship Essentials

In the chapter on relationship essentials, Damon provides background discussion on how women relate and the possible reasons behind what have been identified as gender differences. Although Damon does not cite the sources, the importance of relationships and the attributes associated with women have been the topic of recent research and discussion.

“Leadership is a relationship,” according to Kouzes and Posner (2003), between those who aspire to lead and those who choose to follow (p. 2). This relationship “should be collaborative, guided by a shared purpose, enable respectful disagreement, have clear divisions of labor and responsibilities, and creating a learning environment in which individuals develop” (Madden, 2002, p. 117). Gender has been regarded as a category of experience that influences women to develop leadership values and engage in a model of relational leadership (Regan & Brooks, 1995). Regan and Brooks suggest that relational leadership is a model that synthesizes the finer qualities of the masculinist and feminist perspectives and forms a newer, stronger, and more balanced practice of leadership” (p. 18). Relational leadership is characterized by five attributes: collaboration, caring, courage, intuition, and vision. Chliwniak (1997) indicates that a leader with an emerging, inclusive style of leadership can provide higher education institutions with new values and ethics grounded in cooperation, community, and relationships. As a result of her research, she concludes that women appear to exhibit the emerging perceptions of leadership to a greater degree than men.

The reflective exercises in this section of the book are designed for self-introspection. The intent of this self-knowledge is to provide a sense of how others see us and to help us recognize the areas that we would like to change. Damon provides a thought provoking section that includes identifying the four pieces of baggage we each carry: the steamer trunk; the duffle bag; the backpack; and the flight bag. As the image might conjure up, the steamer trunk is described as that baggage that is rarely opened and has been relegated to the attic. Within this trunk are the rules that we grew up with and our early childhood memories—much of which is remembered selectively. How we remember often influences our relationship expectations. The duffle bag contains the “dirty laundry of a lifetime” (p. 100). The ability to forgive and be forgiven shapes relationships. The backpack is filled with our anger, animosity, and resentment. This bag is described as the one often filled until the point of explosion. The importance of handling these feelings in a healthy manner is emphasized. The fourth bag is the flight bag. This bag is the one full of hopes, dreams and expectations. Damon suggests that we are unable to go on with our lives and build healthy relationships if we have not examined our four pieces of baggage.

Practical strategies are provided for developing successful relationships. Recognizing, however, that not all relationships develop in healthy and mutually satisfying directions, Damon provides four coping skills: how to solve a problem; how to deal with difficult people; learning how to speak up; and learning to let go. As with the other sections, there is significant religious

association. This section wraps up by describing what is identified as “the ultimate relationship”—the one a person has with God (p. 113).

Time Management Essentials

Lloyd reminds us in the section on time management that we each have 24 hours a day and that when we master our time, we master our life. It is a matter of being more efficient with the time we have. This includes “discerning priorities, having the right perspective, claiming responsibility for our time, accepting interruptions as opportunities, learning when to delegate and when to say no, and feeling good about the choices we have made” (p. 118). She craftily poses the question, “*Is time the problem, or am I the problem?*” and then proceeds to provide familiar but thought-provoking strategies to “find time, take time [and] make time” (p. 139; p. 141). The prevailing premise is that it is all about choices.

This section, even more than the others, infuses religious imagery to the topic with Jesus as the “master manager” and the importance of seeking a clear sense of purpose with God as a guide. Some readers may not be comfortable with these images. However, having a clear sense of purpose is cited as a basis for good time management. This clear sense of purpose often begins with establishing goals and direction. Blank (2001) categorizes the necessary skill set for this under the heading of “leadership direction skills” (p. 12). Exceptional leaders “map the territory” and chart the course of action (p. 13). It is also necessary for leaders to influence people to willingly follow. In doing so, exceptional leaders create a desire. “They inspire rather than require” (p. 13). Whether finding the time, taking the time, or making the time, having a clear sense of purpose is essential to effective time management.

Group Building Essentials

In this section Hamlin states that skilled leaders recognize they cannot rely on one leadership approach, preferring the word “approach” to what she sees as the more limiting term of “style” (p. 197). The leadership approaches described are autocratic, authoritative, democratic and laissez-faire.

Women leaders, in general, are more participatory and democratic, with less exclusive focus on task (Nidiffer, 2001). Democratic styles are correlated with higher productivity than other styles. Participatory leadership is associated with greater faculty satisfaction and is seen as most compatible with academic culture. Fisher (1999), in her book *The First Sex*, notes: “

Women’s style of management is based on sharing power, on inclusion, consultation, consensus, and collaboration . . . work[ing] interactively and swap[ping] information . . . Encourage[ing] their employees by listening to,

supporting, and encouraging them. Women give more praise . . . compliment, thank, and apologize more regularly . . . ask for more advice in order to include others in the decision making process . . . tend to give suggestions instead of giving orders . . . characteristically believe everyone can succeed in business . . . a win-win attitude.” (1999, p. 31)

The socialization of women is attributed to them being connective leaders; a highly affective approach that combines elements of both transactional and transformational leadership (Nidiffer, 2001).

Leaders empower groups by introducing an information-rich, decentralized environment and inclusive decision-making (Madden, 2002). Community should be built without silencing debate or disagreement, recognizing that diversity may be more productive in producing sound consensus decisions (Madden, 2002). Much of what Hamlin describes supports these premises. She also establishes that group building is dependent on each member recognizing a purpose, need or goal for the collective efforts. She notes that there are various stages of development. Group dynamics and maturity will determine if and in what way groups will move to consensus. Active participation and cooperation of all members are key elements.

Strategies are suggested for building groups effectively. The “5 B’s of Group Leading” provide a focus for leaders: Be an Encourager; Be Decisive; Be a Sharer; Be Visionary; and Be a Skilled Leader (pp. 192-193). “Rx for a Healthy Group” describes nine additional tips:

- Rx—Proper motivation
- Rx—Wise use of members’ gifts
- Rx—Respect for the individual
- Rx—Accountability
- Rx—Balance of leader/member involvement
- Rx—Communication
- Rx—Attitude of teamwork
- Rx—Shared goals
- Rx—Constructive handling of conflict.

These strategies and the others discussed will ring familiar to anyone who is or has tried to lead group activities. They are also ones that often need development and constant attention.

Conflict Management Essentials

Schooley begins this section by describing the conflict between Michelangelo and Pope Julius II over the painting of the Sistine Chapel. She cites the story as an illustration of how conflict can enrich and enliven rather than destroy relationships. She views conflict as more often a sign of interdependence and really a need to work together in some way.

Conflict is seen as a benefit since it can prevent stagnation, stimulating interest and curiosity. As such, it can serve as a channel through which problems can be aired and solutions identified. Whether conflict is bad or good depends in part on how skillfully it is managed, according to Schooley. In well-managed conflict situations, the potential difficulties are highlighted, new solutions are encouraged and efforts are made to ensure the continued commitment and interest of others. Schooley associates colors with three common sources of conflict: green for “ideas” that are presented and tested but not always well received; gold for “status” referring to the group hierarchy and possible hidden agendas; and red for “need for power” as the perceived influence one person has over another (pp. 227-229). Various types of conflict are also explored along with recognizing ways people deal with conflict.

Although there are reflective exercises in this section, helpful strategies are not as prevalent as in the other sections. Readers seeking practical skills in the area of conflict management and managing difficult people may want to turn to other resources. Hiebert and Klatt’s (2001), *The Encyclopedia of Leadership*, offer five levels for dealing with conflict, depending on the level of resolution that is most appropriate. When confronted with difficult people, they provide profiles of five common types of difficult people: the aggressors, the know-it-alls, the negativists, the sticklers, and the indecisives. For each profile, techniques are suggested on how to deal most effectively with each type. Manning (1995) has a slightly different list of difficult people types but the themes are similar.

Karre (2005) takes a slightly different approach when focusing on dealing with difficult people. She suggests that the language of “dealing with difficult people” communicates a self-fulfilling prophecy. A different perspective is to think of conflict situations as “productive coaching conversations” (p. 1). Coaching provides support, guidance, and advice so that team members are able to achieve their personal and professional best. Karre (2005) provides both tips and tools in this endeavor.

Many of the tips for dealing with conflict and difficult people focus on fostering relationships and good communication. An additional tool offered by Karre (2005) is GROW: Grow, Reality, Options, and Wrap-up. This

acronym represents a four-step agenda for after taking the time to talk and clarify issues and feelings. The steps help to move the coaching conversations forward. During this process, Karre (2005) suggests moving the conversation to paper—writing down the goal; writing down the reality; sharing of options; making notes. This shifts the focus from the individual to the paper and increases the quality of “actionable choices” (Karre, 2005, p. 4).

Conclusion

5 Leadership Essentials for Women: Developing Your Ability to Make Things Happen does identify five common skills necessary for successful leadership. Each section includes questions and reflective learning exercises to help readers better understand themselves in relation to each of the five key leadership areas. Effective leadership and communication involve skills that must be learned and practiced. Knowing oneself is an important aspect of leadership and one of the leadership “competencies” (Chliwniak, 1997, p. 66). The tips, strategies, and reflective exercises offered in *5 Leadership Essentials for Women: Developing Your Ability to Make Things Happen* are ideal for a person with new and developing leadership responsibilities. Those with more leadership experience may find the tips, strategies, and reflective exercises valuable as a quick self-assessment check.

Despite the title, the book does not provide substantial support for how or why these leadership essentials are “for women.” The references cited tend to be from out of print resources. It is also not immediately evident when reviewing the cover or the book highlights that the context for leadership is with religious organizations. Sprinkled throughout the respective sections are specific references to examples found in the Bible and the life of Jesus. The belief expressed is that as “Christian women we know that a dependence upon God is the first step to becoming a leader (p. 11).” This context may limit the potential interest and usefulness for some readers.

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