To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Shirley Rita Napier, entitled "Perceived Leadership Effectiveness Among Selected Predominantly Black Women Administrators and Institutional Variables in Higher Education: An Exploratory Study." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision.

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We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Accepted for the Council:

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PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP EFFECTIVENESS AMONG SELECTED PREDOMINANTLY BLACK WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS AND INSTITUTIONAL VARIABLES IN HIGHER EDUCATION: AN EXPLORATORY STUDY

A Dissertation

Presented for the

Doctor of Education

Degree

The University of Tennessee, Knoxville

Shirley Rita Napier

June 1979

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ABSTRACT

The field study approach was used in this investigation to conduct case studies and interview sessions for purposes of analyzing and describing career paths followed by nine selected women administrators in coeducational institutions of higher learning. The research further sought to support the case studies and interview data by providing group measures of leadership effectiveness. Nine female administrators and nine groups of employees who worked over, under and around them completed the Least Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC). Scores on interpersonal perceptions of personality attributes were obtained from the LPC. Interviews and a structured questionnaire supplemented the LPC and examined situational variables that enable the leader to exert influence. The identified measures were to provide sufficient information to analyze and describe the following: women administrators' perceptions of career paths that have led to top-level administration in higher education, perceived leadership effectiveness of top-level women administrators, formal and informal expectations coworkers have for women leaders, a definition of an effective leader apart from sex variables, and female role models in top-level administration in higher education.

Findings emerging from the case studies and interviews indicated that the target women were predominantly Black, top-level administrators in higher education. A majority of the women administrators had worked their way up the hierarchical ladder to top-level administration. Many of the women identified male mentors who had helped them climb to the

top. The women sampled were role-breakers in the sense that they had followed the male model for moving up through the ranks, producing publications and doing consultant work. There seemed to be high competence in task-related activities among the women administrators; less emphasis was placed on competence in human relations. Most of the female administrators were "insiders" who moved up within the institution's organizational structure.

T-tests were utilized to measure statistical differences in how leaders and followers perceive their most-preferred coworker, least-preferred coworker, themselves, their leaders, and group atmosphere. There was evidence to say that leaders who feel positive about self assess their work groups positively. Those who assess self negatively also assess their work groups negatively. Findings further showed that people tend to see themselves much in the same way as they see their most-preferred coworker. Leaders are inclined to identify with and rate themselves similar to the way they rate their immediate superiors. Contrarily, they tend to assess their work groups differently from the way they evaluate themselves. Followers also hold a different perception of self when compared with perceptions of the work group atmosphere.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A recent national comprehensive survey found that relatively few women hold top jobs in higher education administration except at women's colleges and minority institutions. This finding may be a result of institutions of higher education automatically favoring men for chief executive and administrative positions. The question arises, can a woman administrator be an effective leader in a setting defined by male group behavior in a male-dominated culture? Fiedler's comment that an organization is as responsible for the success or failure of a leader as the leader himself (1967) is highly relevant to women who enter administrative posts in higher education. Administration as a traditional male vocation has dictated that organizational behavior and leadership effectiveness be viewed from a male perspective. Consequently, a prevalent assumption is that men are more effective leaders. However, as women in groups assume more non-traditional positions and as research efforts, training programs and governmental mandates force institutions of higher learning to fill more slots with women administrators, female group behavior will be re-defined. Perhaps, such action will create new standards for women.

It is not the intent of this study to examine whether women are more effective leaders than men. It is the intent to determine a definition of leader separate and apart from man or woman and to examine leadership effectiveness of selected women administrators as they perceive themselves and as their coworkers perceive them. Empirical data are

provided to support questions such as: What is perceived as effective leadership in top female administrators? How do women leaders perceive themselves? What do work groups look for in their women leaders? Do work groups prefer women leaders who are relationship-oriented or task-oriented? Are there differences between how individuals perceive themselves and how they describe their most-preferred coworkers? Is group atmosphere consistent with what groups prefer in women leaders? Are groups' perceptions of their most-preferred women coworkers comparable to their perceptions of their women leaders?

It is not the intent to determine what ought to happen in organizations. It is the intent to report through case material what does happen. Twenty five Black and White women were asked to participate in the study and nine responded positively. Thus, nine case studies focus on top-level female administrators who work in post-secondary educational settings. The case studies are presented to:

1. Clarify by illustration what occurs in academe.
2. Provide role models of women in administrative decision-making posts in higher education.
3. Provide visibility so that educators can visualize and place women in leadership roles.
4. Add to the scarce supply of information regarding women administrators' attitudes toward their work environment.
5. Provide some how-to-do-it hints for those apsiring to become administrators in higher education.
6. Raise a number of questions that might be useful in building a theory of women and administrative decision-making.

7. Raise a number of questions concerning training programs in educational administration.

The main concern of the study is the immediate situation where perceived leadership effectiveness of women administrators meets with institutional variables.

I. The Problem

Statement of the Problem

The shortage of women in top-level management positions poses a problem for aspiring women administrators who look for female role models. Traditionally, the successful male administrator set his sights on a particular job and found out how men got there. For the woman, a comparable person to examine for strategic help and advice does not exist (Woods, 1975).

A major problem lies with the literature on women administrators. Virtually no systematic research is available which explores a wide range of variables drawn from different aspects of the field of women in management. Nor is a body of empirical studies available which spells out how a female administrator's personality attributes and styles of interacting with others affect her leadership effectiveness.

On the subject of women in management, researchers have examined personal traits needed by women who want to succeed as executives, attitudes of men and women toward women in leadership positions and sex role stereotyping as it influences management decisions concerning women. A few additional studies have focused on problems that impede progress of women in management.

Certainly the types of studies conducted have been essential to the organization of empirical findings on women. However, researchers continue to suggest the need for investigations that (a) highlight female role models for women and (b) present evidence of leadership effectiveness among women administrators (Heinen, 1975; Kaye, 1976; Nieboer, 1975; Shavlik, 1975; Woods, 1975).

This research used the field study approach to analyze and describe the perceived leadership effectiveness of nine selected women administrators in coeducational institutions of higher learning. It further sought to:

1. Identify women administrators' perceptions of career paths that have led to top-level administrative positions.
2. Identify perceived leadership effectiveness of top-level women administrators.
3. Identify female role models in top-level administration in higher education.
4. Identify formal and informal expectations coworkers have for women leaders.
5. Identify a definition of an effective leader separate and apart from man or woman.

Questions Pertinent to the Study

The basic questions which gave direction to this study were: What career paths do women follow to reach top-level administration in higher education? What is perceived as effective leadership in top female administrators? Who are the role models? What types of

expectations do coworkers have for women leaders? Can an effective leader be defined separate and apart from man or woman?

II. Definition of Terms

Terms of importance to this study have been defined as follows:

Assumed Similarity of Opposites - A predictor of group performance based on the difference an individual perceives between the most- and least-preferred coworker she has.

Effective Leadership - Leadership acts which result in the desired effect, i.e., goal or task achievement.

Followers - Nine groups of individuals who worked over, under and around the leaders in this study.

Group Atmosphere Scale (GAS) - A measure of the leader's feeling about herself in relation to the group as well as the group's feeling about itself.

Leader - The individual in a group who directs and coordinates task-relevant group activities.

Leader Rating - A score derived from followers' ratings of their leaders and leaders' ratings of those who lead them.

Leadership - An interpersonal relationship in which authority, power and influence are unevenly distributed so that one person is able to direct and control the actions and behaviors of others to a greater extent than they direct and control hers.

Leadership Behavior - Particular acts in which a leader engages in the course of directing and coordinating her work or the group's work.

Leadership Style - A consistent system of interacting with others who are in a subordinate position; a motivational system expressed in various goal-seeking behaviors that an individual perceives as rewarding or necessary for her emotional well-being.

Least-Preferred Coworker Scale - An indicator of interpersonal perceptions of personality attributes.

Role-Breakers - Women who deviate from society's norms for female behavior by setting their own standards and agendas; women who hold non-traditional positions.

Self-Rating - A measure of leaders' and followers' ratings of self.

III. Review of the Literature

The topic of sex role stereotyping, or the process by which we attribute characteristics to individuals on the basis of their sex, pervades the literature which is germane to this study. Our culture adheres to a value system that expects certain behavior of females which differs from that expected of males. Therefore, society operates from a base of assumptions about women which revolves around an identity defined by the male, while assumptions about the male revolve around the promotion of a dominant and superior sex (Firestone, 1970; Janeway, 1971).

The norms concerning beliefs held about different behaviors among the sexes are well-documented. In general, indications point to a predisposition to believe that "an individual—because she is female or because he is male—will think and behave in prescribed ways and will occupy certain social positions in society (Schmuck, 1976)." The effects

that these beliefs have on the political, economic and social equality of females are highly relevant to this research on "Perceived Leadership Effectiveness Among Selected Predominantly Black Women Administrators and Institutional Variables in Higher Education." For women interested in pursuing top-level administrative posts in higher education, many lessons can be learned from research which highlights the perceptions people have of women as they differ from their perceptions of men. A message is transmitted which emphasizes the profundity of the socialization process and signals the need to identify female role models who are "role-breakers." Role-breakers are women who deviate from society's norms for female behavior when they risk securing and hold non-traditional positions.

The following studies offer different perspectives on why this type research is important. Broverman and others (1972), for example, offered a view of different concepts of health for men and women when they initiated inquiries into sex role stereotypes and clinical judgments of mental health. They found that "clinicians' concepts of a healthy mature man did not differ significantly from their adult health concepts." The researchers concluded that clinicians are not as likely to attribute traits which characterize healthy adults to a woman that they are likely to attribute to a healthy man.

Johnson and Goodchilds (1976) investigated styles of persuasion for masculinity or femininity. Sixty-four (64) college students were asked to analyze a series of statements designed to influence others. Students had to decide whether the speaker was male or female and if the style of persuasion was masculine or feminine. Respondents

attributed indirect, emotional statements and pleas of helplessness to females, while men were credited with direct, unemotional sentences and claims of expertise. The researchers noted it appeared that the categorization of men as competent and aggressive and women as warm and aggressive and incompetent also applied to expectations about power (Johnson and Goodchilds, 1976).

Weber organized 83 four-person teams of students in management and organizational behavior classes. Teams consisted of three men and one woman in 62 groups and three women and one man in the other 21 groups. Students assessed who were leaders and non-leaders, contributors and non-contributors and sources of conflict. Weber found that more males than females in each case said that they were leaders, were seen as leaders, claimed they contributed most to the group and were awarded it by someone else.

Several researchers (Gardner, 1966; Heinen, 1975; Woods, 1975; Coleman, 1976) have interviewed male and female executives to examine personal traits needed by women who want to succeed in management. On the whole, this research points to the conclusion that women aspiring to promotion up the corporate ladder must be competent, well-educated and equipped for higher-level positions. Further, they should act like people instead of men (Bowman, 1965).

Miller (1976) provided a clue to the behavior of men when she theorized, "Mankind is basically self-seeking, competitive, aggressive and destructive." According to interview results from the Woods study (1975), women, on the other hand, are different and unique. They can

communicate better with women than men can. A woman's strength is sensitivity, therefore; women should do well in responsibilities requiring patience and skill. And, women who are diplomatic in using their femininity are much better at getting things done.

The assertions of both Bowman and Miller are highlighted in a study of masculinity by Tavris and Pope (1976). The Tavris and Pope research showed that more men than women, though not a majority of either sex, felt that 'real' men should be more competitive, aggressive, strong, and successful at work than women.

This impressive evidence suggests (1) that people not only behave in stereotyped ways, but they expect others to do likewise; (2) sex role stereotyping is a social mechanism used to perpetuate and increase career differences between men and women (Schmuck, 1976); (3) traditional attitudes of both men and women toward masculine and feminine roles represent one of the biggest obstacles to a woman who seeks a management position (Shavlik, 1975).

Some of the earliest studies of women in management consisted of surveys which investigated attitudes of men and women toward women in leadership positions. In 1965, the Harvard Business Review surveyed 1,000 males and 900 female executives and found 51 per cent of the males agreeing that women were "temperamentally unsuited" for management jobs (Bowman, 1965). Men in government had the same attitudes as revealed by a survey of 30,000 civil employees. Nearly 75 per cent said men make better supervisors than women and more than 50 per cent thought women would not be as good workers as men (Bowman, 1965). A study of attitudes by Basil (1971) reported that men and women identified the following

requirements for upper management characteristics of men: decisiveness, consistency and objectivity, emotional stability, and analytical ability.

A simulated decision-making situation provided by an in-basket exercise was used to examine the influence of sex role stereotypes on personal decisions (Rosen and Jerdee, 1975). The subjects' responses confirmed the hypothesis that male administrators discriminated against female employees in personnel decisions involving promotion, development and supervision. A highly promotable female was preferred only slightly less than an unpromotable male.

Cohen and Bunker (1975) approached the subtle effects of sex role stereotypes on recruiters' hiring decisions by asking job recruiters to evaluate relevant employment materials on one hypothetical job applicant for either a male-oriented or female-oriented position to make a hiring decision. Results indicated that hiring decisions were not influenced independently by the applicant's sex or position for which he/she was applying, but by the interaction of the two variables.

Petty and Lee (1975) had employees of an academic institution describe their supervisors with the Supervisory Behavior Description Questionnaire and to complete the Job Description Index. Correlations between supervisory leadership and subordinate satisfaction were examined for four sub-groups: female supervisor, male subordinates, male supervisor, female subordinates; male supervisor and subordinates, and female supervisor and subordinates. For all groups, subordinates with supervisors higher in consideration displayed greater satisfaction with work. This relationship was significantly higher for subordinates with female supervisors. Relationships between supervisory structure and

subordinate satisfaction were more situational. Although most of the relationships between the supervisor's initiating structure and the subordinates' satisfaction were not significant, there was some tendency for male subordinates to have lower satisfaction with female supervisors who were on a higher supervisory level.

Similarly, in replication of a previous study with male middle managers, 167 female middle managers rated either women in general, men in general, or successful middle managers on 92 descriptive terms. Schein (1975) reported that, as was found with the male sample, the results showed that successful middle managers were perceived to possess characteristics, attitudes and temperaments more commonly ascribed to men in general than to women in general. These findings support the results of an in-depth study of 100 successful women executives where Hennig (1976) found that the majority of these women admitted to identifying with the masculine stereotype of what constituted success during their early managerial years (Schein, 1975).

Recently, researchers have begun to use a greater variety of methods to investigate the behavioral effect of sex role stereotyping on leadership behavior. (Rosen and Jerdee; 1973; 1974; Schein, 1975; Day, 1972; Cohen and Bunker, 1975; Petty and Lee, 1975; and Megaree, 1969). The studies of Rosen and Jerdee (1973; 1974) demonstrate that females were evaluated as less suitable than males for both managerial level positions and positions described as demanding. One of these studies (1973) examined the way sex role stereotypes--perceptions and expectations of what is appropriate behavior for males and females--influenced evaluations of male and female supervisory behavior. Respondents were instructed to read one of six versions of a supervisory problem and to

evaluate the effectiveness of four supervisory styles. Results provide evidence that men and women share common perceptions and expectations regarding what constitutes appropriate behavior for males and females in management positions.

Megargee (1969) investigated situational variables which influence the expression of leadership by high dominance men and women. Findings showed that high dominance women inhibited the manifestation of dominance due to sex role conflicts. Authorities on sex roles maintain that conflict arises because on the one hand women are "supposed to be subservient, nurturant and maintain affective relationships, yet as administrators they are supposed to be independent, assume leadership and be task-oriented (Schmuck, 1976)." Chessler (1972) sheds some additional light here as she notes, "Women . . . are finding it hard to abandon the virulent double standard of male-female behavior. Paradoxically, while women must not 'succeed,' when they do succeed at anything, they have still failed if they are not successful at everything." As a consequence, the socialization process provides a basis for ambivalent feelings and for behavior which differs from that of males as is noted in the study of Hennig and Jardim (1976).

To determine the problems that impede progress of women in management, Hennig and Jardim (1976) interviewed 100 women senior executives in business and industry and had 3,000 women and 1,000 men complete questionnaires. Striking differences were found between men and women. Men tended to concentrate on achieving long-range goals; women focused on short-term planning with little concern for long-term implications. Women saw risk in entirely negative terms: loss, danger, injury, ruin.

Men saw risk as loss or gain, winning or losing, danger or opportunity. Women saw it as the threat of losing what they had achieved so far. Men saw risk as taking a gamble now in order to achieve a later career advancement. Men took their cues from their bosses' expectations of them; women concentrated on their own concepts of themselves.

In identifying factors related to progress on their jobs, women cited factors related to their own individual capacities such as hard work, competence and further training rather than organizational environment (an area in which there is a need to make one's goals known), the need to win support of bosses, peers and colleagues, and the need to be seen by others as the kind of person who should have a particular job.

Justification for the conclusions of this study is found in a statement by Miller (1976), "Since man is the measure of all things . . . we have all tended to measure ourselves by men." Women have not been socialized to enjoy male institutions. They have had almost no collective experience of public problemsolving and no valuable female role models (Schmuck, 1976). A social distance is maintained between the sexes in the professional world as in the greater society.

According to Loring and Wells, organizations have sex labels just as people do. . . . In a survey, men and women sex-ranked education as a feminine organization, yet the respondents expected women to have difficulty advancing from teacher to school administrator (Loring and Wells, 1972). Epstein indicated that it wasthis type distinction between occupational roles of women and men which make certain jobs male and others female and which narrows women's visions of which work may become theirs (Epstein, 1970).

In a telephone communique between Robert K. Merton and Cynthia Fuchs Epstein, Merton indicated that occupations could be described as "sex-typed" when a large majority of those in them are of one sex and when there is an associated normative expectation that this is as it should be (Mattfeld, 1974).

Data collected by Jacquelyn Mattfeld on administrators in Ivy League universities and the Massachusetts Institute of Technology identified three general categories of administrators. A first category included persons employed to maintain and develop the physical plant and to manage the business operations, alumni and other public relations and development. A second category was composed of those who worked in admissions, financial aid, student affairs, the academic and personal counseling of students, placement and the registrar's office. The final group comprised the academic leaders of the university—the president, chancellors, provosts, and the deans of faculties, of colleges, graduate and professional schools, and special programs. Mattfeld's study found that three-quarters of the women working as administrators in Ivy League institutions during academic year 1972-73 unambiguously worked in student services. The researcher observed that this suggested either that work directly involving students may be less prestigious and, therefore, considered more appropriate for women than other areas of administration or that women were more drawn to it. Beyond Mattfeld's observations, more women could have been at the levels they were because their qualifications prepared them for it or because they applied more for these types of positions.

In terms of women in top administration, Mattfeld found the situation to be different from that for women in student services. The primary officers of universities and colleges have customarily come from the school's own faculty or the faculty of a comparably prestigious institution and, notably, after many years of teaching and research. . . . Certainly these prerequisites for office militate against the employment of women in high academic posts such that in Helen Astin's words (1974),

> Women are not in positions where policy is being made and where the decisions for the direction of higher education and research are taken. They are not in high level academic administrative posts, not on review committees, not on educational boards and commissions.

Mattfeld's study supported the fact that institutions were hampered by the small size of the pool from which to select women candidates for top academic administration. In view of the traditions Ivy League institutions follow in selecting top administrators, there is truth in their contention that few women in our country can both move and meet the time-honored criteria for presidencies, academic vice-presidencies, chancellorships, provostships and even top deanships. Pressed to have women appointed to high-level positions, many universities have used familiar titles to designate positions dealing with matters that directly affect women (such as coeducation, affirmative action, recruitment of women faculty and the well-being of women students) or dealing with new areas of university activity (such as continuing education, off-campus study, interinstitutional arrangements and training programs in the health professions) (Mattfeld, 1974).

Peterson concludes that the woman who has established herself professionally in the academic world seeks the elimination of any

barriers to promotion, pay, or other rewards of the academic world, such as committee service , honors, membership in policymaking bodies and appointment to administrative posts. "These barriers do exist because she is a woman (Astin, 1974)."

There are women who have made it to the top and are perceived as effective leaders in higher education. Certainly they must have some answers for getting around the "double bind" of gaining access to support and information that male colleagues naturally share.

A conclusion of the Cohen and Bunker (1975) research is that women applying for sex-role incongruent jobs must be somehow perceived as more qualified in a task-oriented sense, in order to be hired for that job, than those applying for the traditionally sex congruent positions.

The implications of the reviewed research for women aspiring for management positions in higher education are complex. This section began with the recognition that a body of literature on women and leadership effectiveness is not extensive. Then sex role stereotyping, as a process by which characteristics are attributed to individuals on the basis of their sex, was discussed. Additional , problems were presented which impede the progress of women in management in general and women in higher education more specifically. In summary, the words of Schmuck and Miller seem appropriate:

> Leadership is a transactional process between leaders and followers. We need leaders who exhibit characteristics of being a nurturant, affective catalyst for others' ideas as well as exhibiting initiative and task-oriented energy. We need individuals who are able to rise above the restricting and confining social sex role stereotypes and behave in appropriate ways demanded by the task at hand (Schmuck, 1976).

> Women don't need to be men. We do need the right to be women-full-fledged women. . . not as women have been defined for us in the past. And we need the wherewithal to make that possibility a real one: real opportunity and real power in the real world (Miller, 1977).

Importance of the Study

The patriarchal model followed in society and in organizational life fails to affirm women as persons. Currently, our culture adheres to a value system that expects certain behavior of females which differs from that expected of males. Consequently, "professional or . . . career women are neither leaders nor brothers within professional male organizations" (Chessler, 1972). Just as people have sex labels, so do organizations (Loring, 1972). College administration is no exception. As a male calling, college administration has traditionally defined the relative status of its members in terms of maleness so that what individuals are is understood in terms of societal beliefs and sentiments of what they ought to be. Thus, role conflict arises for women who aspire to fulfill an occupational role traditionally held by men. "Women administrators stand between one set of interpersonal expectations for how they should behave as women and a contrasting set of expectations for how they should behave as administrators" (Schmuck, 1976).

One authority maintains that the organization is as responsible for a person's success or failure as is the leader . . . (Fiedler, 1967). Yet in the case of women, the organization, societal expectations, and women's feelings about self play an important part in whether those who succeed overcome role conflicts and move on to become perceived as effective leaders.

If role models are to be identified, some questions deserving answers are, "who are the role models? What career paths did they follow to reach the top? What is perceived as effective leadership in top female administrators?"

This research attempted to verify by case studies the career paths that women take to reach top-level administration in higher education. A theoretical model, developed by Fred Fiedler (1967), was utilized to provide group measures of perceptions of leadership effectiveness that would support interview data. Finally, attempts were undertaken to relate this research to other leadership studies.

Fiedler, an authority on leadership effectiveness, conducted research studies which led to the development of the Least-Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC) which measures two aspects of leadership effectiveness: leadership style and interpersonal relations. An LPC score indicates interpersonal perceptions of personality attributes. An Assumed Similarity score predicts group performance based on the difference an individual perceives between the most- and least-preferred coworker she has. A Group Atmosphere Scale measures the leader's feeling about herself in relation to the group as well as the group's feeling about itself.

History, translated to read "his story," has denied "her story." The literature confirms that women have no role models because "her story" has been left our of books. Research such as this has value for identifying role models and for getting "her story" into the literature. An identification of role models will not only discredit stereotypic thinking about women and women leaders, it should help women

aspiring to become administrators to build self-confidence, to see the need for a spirit of cooperation instead of competition, to become aware of their total possible role in society and to identify more than one goal or option. A profile of top-level women administrators in non-traditional positions serves to tell prospective women administrators what leader attributes and what styles of interacting with others reflect an effective leadership style.

Limitations and Delimitations

Limitations and delimitations of this study were as follows:

1. The study sample consisted mainly of Black women who worked in predominantly Black institutions. For this reason, extreme care must be taken in any attempt to generalize results of this study.
2. Subjects of this study were a non-random, purposive and voluntary sample.
3. The Least-Preferred Coworker Scale was used to provide data that could be compared with interview data, observations and documentary materials.
4. The administration of the Least-Preferred Coworker Scale was limited to nine work group clusters of three to five individuals and nine selected female administrators.
5. There are existing limitations of the measuring instrument.
6. The data collected from the field study consisted of documentary materials, observational data, interview data and the researcher's reactions to this data from a theoretical perspective.
7. Observations of organization life were not made from a historical reference. The field study consisted of queries into what is

currently happening in institutions of higher learning according to women administrators' perceptions.

8. Some administrators allowed more time for interviews than others.
9. Interviews extended over a period of 45 minutes to three hours depending upon the interviewee.
10. Some women would not allow taping of the interview sessions.

IV. Assumptions

The following assumptions served as guides for this study:

1. Leadership style and interpersonal relations affect leadership effectiveness.
2. Organizations have sex labels as do people.
3. Top-level female administrators need support systems.
4. Leadership effectiveness hinges on whether or not the group allows the leader to lead.
5. The organization is as responsible for a leader's success or failure as is the leader.
6. Effective women leaders are role breakers.
7. Black female leaders are influenced by the organizational behavior of mainstream society.
8. The use of an instrument to secure baseline data provided an empirical reference against which socialized answers from the interviews could be compared.
9. Black female leadership has been ignored in the literature because of the absence of theories guiding studies of any female leadership.

The Instrument

The following instrument was utilized to collect data from the nine target subjects and from those who work over, under and around them:

1. The Least-Preferred Coworker scale. This instrument, developed by Fred Fiedler (1967), was designed to measure two aspects of leadership effectiveness: leadership style and interpersonal relations. The concept underlying the scale is that the way one person perceives another will affect their interpersonal relationships. Consequently, the LPC asks individuals to describe their most- and least-preferred coworkers. A more thorough discussion of the instrument is provided in Chapter II of this study.

The Participants

Forty employees from academic and non-academic divisions of coeducational institutions of higher education participated in the study. Included in this figure were nine selected female administrators who worked on two levels of management: top management and upper-middle management. Positions titles of the nine target administrators were: Dean of Graduate Studies; Director—Division of Hospital Services and Training; Executive Assistant to the President; Special Assistant to the President; Vice President of an Educational Fund; Executive Vice President; Library Director; Dean of the College; Department Chairperson.

V. Design of the Study

To accomplish the purposes of this research, a field study approach was used to describe and analyze case studies of nine selected

women administrators in higher education. The nine target subjects and 31 individuals who worked over, under and around them completed a standardized leadership questionnaire (Fiedler, 1967). Data from the LPC formed a basis of comparison for data obtained from documentary materials, interview data, and observational data from the field study.

The field study was conducted among nine selected women administrators in higher education. An attempt was made to investigate institutional variables in the settings where the women worked. A thematic approach was used to identify what was happening in institutions of higher learning in terms of Fiedler's Theory of Leadership Effectiveness. The themes included career paths, experiences, professional affiliations, administrative responsibilities, and recommendations for females aspiring to become administrators in higher education.

Vitae were used to collect background data on the nine target women in the organizational settings where they worked. Other data were collected from documentary materials such as organizational charts, job descriptions, and procedures manuals. Interviews were taped and a journal was kept to record field notes.

The LPC results were analyzed and compared with analyses of data from the field study, and were discussed in relation to Fiedler's norms.

VI. Organization of the Study

This study is organized in the following manner:

Chapter I includes the introduction to the study, statement of the problem, questions pertinent to the study, definitions of terms, review of the literature, rationale, limitations and delimitations, assumptions,

the instrument, the participants, design of the study and organization of the study.

Chapter II contains a complete description of procedures and data collection used for the study.

Chapter III presents and discusses nine case studies.

Chapter IV presents and analyzes the questionnaire data.

Chapter V contains a summary of the findings and conclusions resulting from the study.

CHAPTER II

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

I. Introduction

This research was designed to use the field study approach to describe and analyze, through case studies, the career paths followed by nine selected women administrators in coeducational institutions of higher education. Eight of the women were Black. The researcher further sought to support the case studies and interview data by providing group measures of perceptions of leadership effectiveness. The study purposed to: (1) identify women administrators' perceptions of career paths which have led to top-level administrative positions; (2) identify perceived leadership effectiveness of top-level women administrators; (3) identify formal and informal expectations coworkers have for women; (4) identify a definition of an effective leader apart from sex; and (5) identify female role models in top-level administration in higher education.

Because of the exploratory nature of the study, no administrator was approached until a pilot study was done. The pilot study purposed to test the instrument and the wording of questions for the interviews. Three experienced administrators participated in the pilot study.

This chapter discusses (1) the procedures used for identification of the population from which data were collected and a description of the population; (2) sequence of events followed in administering the

instrument and following up with the field study; (3) the instruments used and the scoring procedures followed; and (4) the descriptive procedures utilized for analysis of data.

II. Population and Sample

When formulating the design for this study, the decision was made to utilize a non-random, purposive and voluntary sample of women administrators in top management in higher education such as administrative directors, deans and assistant deans of faculties, of graduate schools and of special programs and institutional researchers.

Identification of the women administrators was based solely upon recommendations from other administrators, mostly male, who perceived the women as effective leaders. Twenty-five target women were identified within three southeastern states and the District of Columbia. The states included Virginia, Tennessee, and Georgia. Letters (Appendix A) were sent inviting the 25 women to participate in the study. Participation was voluntary because those who agreed to become involved signed and returned Informed Consent Forms (Appendix B) committing themselves to the research with the option of terminating their participation at any time.

It was noted when the study was undertaken that there was no body of literature on Black women as administrators in the management of higher education. Yet, according to Alstyne and others (1977), in Black institutions, Black females are not alien to educational administration. Originally, the study was to focus on women administrators in higher education without regard to race. However, when

thirteen Black and twelve White women were asked to participate in the study, only nine responded positively. One was White and eight were Black. Although the one White respondent was included in the study, the research by necessity focused primarily on making the Black female administrator visible, a vital element in advancing the status of all women.

One or more of the following criteria, outlined by Cartwright (1965), were used to screen the nine target women:

1. A formal position title which is indicated in the upper echelon of an institution's formal organizational chart.
2. A position which has a span of control over other individuals enabling the leader to oversee others.
3. A position which has a major relationship to policymaking and requires or includes memberships on review committees, governance boards and commissions.
4. A position of influence which controls economic resources.
5. A position of power which gives the leader the ability to control resources valued by members of the organization such as controlling promotions, salary increases, terminations of employment or suspensions.

Of the nine respondents, one worked as an administrator for an educational foundation that services post-secondary institutions and one was an administrator in a predominantly White university. The other seven were employed in top-level administrative capacities in traditionally Black institutions of higher learning.

As noted in Table 1, the selected administrators' positions and the respective institutions in which they worked were:

1.	Dean of Graduate Studies	State University
2.	Director--Division of Hospital Services and Training	Private Medical College
3.	Executive Assistant to the President	City College
4.	Special Assistant to the President	Private University
5.	Vice President	Educational Foundation
6.	Executive Vice President	State University
7.	Library Director	State University
8.	Dean of the College	Private College
9.	Department Chairperson	Private College

III. Sequence of Events

The researcher established initial contact through a letter that described the research and invited 25 women administrators to participate in the study (Appendix A). Informed consent forms were mailed with the letters (Appendix B). Nine women administrators returned the forms and agreed to cooperate fully with the needs for the data collection. Each woman supplied a vita when she returned the informed consent form by mail. Vitae were used to secure data on personal qualifications and institutional qualifications for the position of leadership held by each female administrator. Additionally, vitae provided data on memberships in policymaking bodies, on publications and on career paths. As vitae and informed consent forms were received, the researcher contacted each woman by telephone and arranged for an informal interview.

TABLE 1

DEMOGRAPHIIC SUMMARY OF WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS

A. Subject Characteristics					B. Employment History			C. Indices of Professionalism		
Position	Race	Age Range	Marital Status	Degrees	Present Employment	Number years in Current Positions	Positions	Publications	Membership in Policymaking Boards	Consultant
1. Dean of Graduate Studies	White	59-50	Married	Ed.D. Duke University	State University	5	9	9	Yes (3)	Yes
2. Director, Division of Hospital Services and Training	Black	49-40	Divorced	Masters New York University	Medical College	1	8	4	Yes (2)	Yes
3. Executive Assistant to President	Black	49-40	Divorced	Masters (Doctoral Candidate) Virginia Polytech Institute	City College	3	4	0	No	Yes
4. Special Assistant to President	Black	39-30	Single	J.D. Columbia Law College	Private University	3	6	4	Yes (3)	No
5. Vice President	Black	59-50	Married	Ph.D. University of Wisconsin	Educational Foundation	5	13+	3	Yes (5)	Yes
6. Executive Vice President	Black	59-50	Widow	Ed.D. LeHigh University	State University	6	6	None listed in vita	Yes (7)	Yes
7. Library Director	Black	49-40	Married	Ph.D. George Peabody College	State University	1	5	5	No	No
8. Dean	Black	59-50	Married	Ph.D. Columbia University	Private College	5	10	5	Yes (3)	Yes
9. Department Chairperson	Black	49-40	Single	Ph.D. University of Tennessee	Private College	4	3	None listed in vita	Yes (5)	Yes

The participants volunteered to participate in the study, to respond to questionnaires, to allow notetaking during the interviews, to allow their vitae to be read and analyzed, to allow institutional documents such as organizational charts to be reviewed and to provide reactions to the analyses without inducement or any element of force.

Some participants would not agree to taping of the interview. However, all participants consented to the following agreement:

1. That only the researcher and her doctoral chairperson would review the raw data and that tapes would be destroyed after three years.
2. That participation in the study might benefit them and others like them in the conduct of education and especially in helping to promote equity for women in top-level administration positions in higher education.
3. That any inquiries concerning the procedures of the study would be answered immediately.
4. That no personal identification of any sort would appear in written reports or summaries of the study, although references might be made to individual leadership styles and to institutions such as two year, four year, public or private.
5. That participants would be free to withdraw consent and to discontinue participation in the study at any time (Appendix B).

The researcher felt that the study would be more effective and humanistic if, along with the administration of the LPC, interviews were conducted to provide case material on women who have followed the academic model of scholarship, research and service. Case material was introduced because it illuminated how Black females have

dealt with various facets of the process of ascending the hierarchical ladder of administration in higher education. Thus, for purposes of this research, the case studies which are presented in Chapter III are defined as the study of a small sample of individuals as unique administrative personalities. Focus is on the leader as a unit and upon holistic patterns of common behavior in terms of training, career paths, support systems, professional activities and affiliations, administrative responsibilities and perceptions of how one should proceed to reach top-level administration in higher education.

As each participant was interviewed in her "on-the-job" setting, she first identified three to five individuals working over, under and around her who would complete the LPC. Then she explained to the researcher the table of organization for her institution. Following this activity both the leaders and their coworkers completed the LPC which required an average of 15 minutes to complete. A copy of the LPC may be found in Appendix C.

During interview sessions impressions and perceptions of leadership effectiveness were expressed by the target women as they responded to a structured interview guide (Appendix D).

After the interview was completed each woman was informed that a final report of the study would be made available upon request. It has been noted, some participants allowed the researcher to tape responses; others did not. However, notes were taken in both cases. The information reported from the interviews was compared with data gained from the LPC. Discussion follows in Chapters III and IV.

IV. Instrumentation and Scoring Procedures

The Least Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC) developed by Fred E. Fiedler (1967) was identified as a means of measuring perceived leadership effectiveness for this study. The instrument was developed to assess two aspects of leadership: leadership style and interpersonal relations. It has been used in a number of previous research studies. The concept underlying the scale is that the way one person perceives another will affect her relations with the other. Consequently, the LPC scale asks individuals to describe their most- and least-preferred coworkers. Both leaders and their coworkers who participated in this study made such an assessment by completing the LPC Scale prior to the case study and interview sessions.

The efficacy of using interpersonal perception measures as predictor variables for leadership effectiveness was first tested in studies of psychotherapeutic relations where findings showed that reputedly effective psychotherapists tended to see their patients as more similar to themselves than reputedly poor therapists (Fiedler, 1951). Later, studies of a college fraternity, in which each man was asked to describe his most- and his least-liked fellow group members, supported the hypothesis that the individual who perceives another as similar tends to feel psychologically close, accepting, and permissive toward the other. This finding has been substantiated by subsequent studies by Fiedler, Warrington (1952); Bieri (1953); and Davitz (1955).

In this study, the LPC Scale was used to derive three types of information: (1) An LPC score indicates interpersonal perceptions of

personality attributes; (2) An Assumed Similarity score (ASo) predicts group performance based on the difference an individual perceives between the most- and least-preferred coworker she has; (3) The Group Atmosphere score (GAS) measures the leader's feeling about herself in relation to the group as well as the group's feeling about itself. Each scale from which scores were derived is modeled after the LPC Scale found in Appendix C.

The scoring system followed is that suggested by Fiedler (1967). The description of the least- and most-preferred coworker was made on a set of eight point bi-polar scale items. Each item was scored by a range of numbers from eight at the most favorable pole to one at the least favorable pole. Most favorable pole and least favorable pole refer to high and low LPC scores. LPC scores were obtained by summing the item scores on the scale sheet describing the individual's LPC. A high LPC score indicates that a person perceives her least-preferred coworker as one who derives her major satisfaction from successful interpersonal relationships. A low LPC score indicates that the least-preferred coworker is perceived as deriving most satisfaction from task performance. A high score says, in effect, that the person with whom one is least able to work on a common task might still be reasonably nice, intelligent and competent. It is as if a distinction is being made between the person and the way she works. A low LPC score, where the least-preferred coworker is described in a negative rejecting way, says, in effect, that the person with whom one cannot work is uncooperative, unintelligent and incompetent. According to Fiedler, the implicit personality

theory of the high LPC person separates work and performance. The low LPC person links an individual's poor performance on a joint task with undesirable personality characteristics (Fiedler, 1967).

The comparison between the items on the most- and least-preferred coworker defines ASo. ASo predicts group performance based on the difference perceived between the most- and least-preferred coworker an individual has. The ASo was obtained by computing the difference between corresponding items on the descriptions of the Most- and Least-Preferred Coworker scales. The differences in item scores were then squared and summed to yield a D^2, a measure of profile similarity. A high ASo score shows that an individual perceives her most- and least-preferred coworker as dissimilar. A low ASo shows that she perceives them similarly.

A Group Atmosphere score (GAS) was obtained by summing the item scores of the GAS scale.

LPC scores have a high internal consistency, with split-half coefficients of over .90. The scores are reasonably stable over time, although changes do take place depending upon intervening training and experience. In this respect, the scores resemble other attitude measures. But LPC and ASo scores do not correlate consistently with commonly used personality tests. Early investigators treated ASo as a measure of psychological distance (Fiedler, 1967). However, more recent investigations (e.g., Hawkins, 1962) have shown that individuals who differentiate highly between their most- and least-preferred coworkers tend to be more than relationship-oriented but not necessarily more distant.

To obtain additional perspectives on how individuals perceived themselves in relation to their leaders, the researcher added two scales to the instrument: THINK OF YOURSELF, AND THINK OF YOUR LEADER. The same scoring system was used to assess these two scales. To check the reliability of the two scales adapted for this study but based on Fiedler's construct, the split half reliabilities were estimated using odd-even items on the self-rating and leader-rating responses. Acceptable reliabilities would support the adaptation as sound for purposes of this research. Reliabilities may be somewhat lower than Fiedler's original ones due to a smaller n or due to his use of 20 items as opposed to the use of 16 items in this research (see Table 2 for reliabilities).

TABLE 2

RELIABILITIES ESTIMATED FOR SELF RATING, LEADER RATING, LEAST-PREFERRED COWORKER

Category	Leaders	Followers	Total Group (N=40)
Self-Rating	.82 (N=9)	.72 (N=31)	.73 (N=40)
Leader Rating (N=8)	.93 (N=8)	.92 (N=31)	.92 (N=39)
Least-Preferred Coworker	.84 (N=9)	.70 (N=31)	.73 (N=40)

The various sections of the instrument were used in an attempt to answer the following specific questions related to Fiedler's prior conceptualizations:

Most-Preferred Coworker (MPC)

1. How do group leaders and group members perceive the most-preferred coworkers? What are the similarities and differences?
2. Are descriptions of the most-preferred coworkers similar to self-descriptions or different?
3. How are group descriptions of the MPC like group descriptions of their leaders?
4. What is the consistency of leaders' reactions to the MPC and their self-perceptions?
5. How do group descriptions of the MPC compare with their perceptions of group atmosphere?

Least-Preferred Coworker (LPC)

1. Do leaders perceive differences between their most- and least-preferred coworkers?
2. Do groups perceive differences between the MPC and LPC?
3. Do followers rate their LPC differently from the way they rate their leaders?
4. Are their differences or similarities between perceptions of the LPC and perceptions of self?

Think of Yourself (SR)

1. Do leaders' self-perceptions differ from followers' perceptions of the leaders?
2. Do followers' self-perceptions differ from leaders' perceptions of their work group?
3. Do followers perceive their group atmosphere as they perceive themselves?

4. Are there differences between leaders' self-perceptions of those who lead them?
5. How do leaders perceive themselves in relation to their perceptions of their work groups?

Group Atmosphere (GAS)

1. Is group atmosphere consistent with what groups prefer in their leaders?
2. How do leaders who feel positive about their groups assess themselves?
3. How do leaders who feel negative about their groups assess themselves?

V. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA

Analysis of the data is more thoroughly presented in Chapter IV. This a brief summary of the analyses employed. Data generated from the frequency of responses to each item on the bipolar scales were computed and mean scores determined for all leaders, each follower group and all followers. This procedure was followed in order to obtain scores for perceptions of the Most-Preferred Coworker (MPC), Least-Preferred Coworker (LPC), Assumed Similarity of Opposites (ASo), Self Rating (SR), Leader Rating (LR), and Group Atmosphere (GAS). Further, for each leader an individual mean item score was computed for each of the sixteen items on the bipolar scale. T-values were computed and are presented in Chapter IV.

VI. SUMMARY

In summary, this chapter has presented: procedures used to identify the population, a description of the population, the sequence of events for administering the instrument, discussion of the instrument, and scoring procedures, and an abstract of data treatment.

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION OF NINE CASE STUDIES

I. Introduction

Case studies were utilized to describe and analyze the career paths followed by nine selected women administrators in coeducational institutions of higher learning. It was felt that the study would be more thorough, effective and humanistic if, along with the administration of the LPC, case study and interview data were provided on women administrators who held upper-level positions in the institutions where they worked.

For purposes of this research, case studies are defined as the study of a small sample of nine individuals as unique administrative personalities. Focus in this chapter is on each administrator as a unit and upon holistic patterns of common behavior in terms of training, career paths, support systems, professional activities and affiliations, administrative responsibilities and perceptions of how one should proceed to reach top-level administration in higher education.

It was not the intent of this research to use the case studies to determine what ought to happen in organizations. Rather, the intent was to report what does happen so that the cases would:

1. Clarify by illustration what occurs in academe.
2. Provide role models of women in administrative decisionmaking posts in higher education.
3. Provide visibility so that educators could visualize and place women in leadership roles.

4. Add to the scarce supply of information regarding women administrators' attitudes toward their work environment.
5. Provide some how-to-do-it hints for those aspiring to become administrators in higher education.

The case studies reported herein illuminate how 8 Black and 1 White female have dealt with various facets of the process of ascending the hierarchical ladder to top-level administration.

II. Rationale for Case Material

The rationale underlying the presentation of case material is complex. Visibility is a vital element in advancing the status of all women. Because the female situation is perpetuated by organizational behavior, societal expectations and feelings about self, these elements play an important part in whether those who succeeed overcome role conflicts and go on to become perceived as effective leaders. The literature confirms that women have no role models because "her story" has been left out of history books. Consequently, there is a paucity of literature on women and management in higher education. Moreover, in spite of the presence of the black female administrator in predominatly black colleges and universities, her story is also without documentation. The cases of black female administrators in higher education have implications for aspiring female administrators regardless of race. In the case material presented, their stories are reported in a manner that reflects and includes personal decisions they have made which impact on external influences.

III. Population and Sample

When formulating the design for this study the decision was made to utilize a non-random, purposive and voluntary sample of women administrators in top-management such as administrative directors, deans and assistant deans of faculties, of graduate schools and of special programs and institutional researchers.

Based on recommendations of other administrators, mostly male, who perceived the women as effective leaders, 25 women were asked to participate in the research. Of the nine who responded positively, one was White; eight were Black.

One or more of the following criteria, outlined by Cartwright (1965), were used to screen the nine respondents:

1. A formal position title which is indicated in the upper echelon of an institution's formal organizational chart.
2. A position which has a span of control over other individuals enabling the leader to oversee others.
3. A position which has a major relationship to policymaking and requires or includes memberships on review committees, governance boards and commissions.
4. A position of influence which controls economic resources.
5. A position of power which gives the leader the ability to control resources valued by members of the organization such as controlling promotions, salary increases, terminations of employment or suspensions.

The following lists the participants' administrative titles and the types of institutions where they worked (see Table 1 for more detailed description of the nine administrators).

1.	Dean of Graduate Studies	State university
2.	Director - Division of Hospital Services and Training	Private medical college
3.	Executive Assistant to the President	City college
4.	Special Assistant to the President	Private university
5.	Vice President	Educational foundation
6.	Executive Vice President	State university
7.	Library Director	State university
8.	Dean of the College	Private college
9.	Department Chairperson	Private college

IV. The Interview

During interview sessions which lasted from 30 minutes to 2 hours, impressions and perceptions of leadership effectiveness were expressed by the target women. The questions listed below served to structure the interview sessions:

1. Can you identify experiences that have contributed to your success in a male world?
2. Do you have a support system within the organization?
3. Have you had a mentor or sponsor who helped you in your climb to the top?
4. How do you describe your leadership style, task-oriented or relationship-oriented?

5. Have you had a role model whose style you considered patterning your leadership style after?
6. What coping mechanisms do you use to deal with pressures resulting from the "old boy network?"
7. What is your definition of leadership effectiveness?
8. What career paths should a woman follow to reach top-level administration?

Leader I, Dr. A

Dr. A has an Ed.D. degree in the Social Sciences from Duke University with a specialty in Curriculum and Teaching. She is an "outsider" who was brought into a state university system by the President to serve as Dean of Graduate Studies. Her position is one in the upper echelon of the institution's organizational hierarchy.

Now in her fifties, Dr. A has gone through the ranks of an educator step-by-step to her present position of three years. Her past positions include: 1. Teacher; 2. Health Educator; 3. Supervisor of Public Health Education; 4. Director of Public Health Education; 5. Associate Professor of Public Health Education; 6. Professor of Health Education; and 7. Dean of Graduate Studies.

Honor awards, special experiences and involvement in professional activities enhance Dr. A's credentials. She has been a Kellogg Fellow, recipient of a Duke University Tuition Scholarship, and a Distinguished Service Award from the University of North Carolina School of Public Health. Three study tours have broadened Dr. A's experiential background so that her expertise in health education is beneficial to others who pursue continuing educational experiences. Dr. A has assumed

leadership roles in continuing educational activities by serving as director of a local program for Nursing Home Administrators and as chairperson and co-chairperson for a number of conferences, seminars and short courses on new developments in health education. In a wider capacity she has been a health education consultant for school health projects, for a school system project on Family Life Education, and for a national hospital association on Health Education.

Involvement in professional activities extends beyond local and national involvement to include international assignments for the World Health Organization. A major leadership role was assumed when Dr. A served as Consultant for the Evaluation of Graduate Programs in Health Education in India, Thailand and the Phillipines.

Dr. A has maintained professional affiliations in local and national organizations related to health and to education. Moreover, scholarly contributions which she has made to the field of health education are reflected in nine published articles and reports, ten 10 unpublished reports and editorial responsibilities in seven instances.

Dr. A apparently believes that a leader's style must judiciously reflect a relationship orientation and a task orientation. She articulates the significance of maintaining a balance between interpersonal relations and the task in these words, "Interpersonal relations are very important and essential to getting the job done. Graduate school deans have no faculty and little budget. Their reason for being is the graduate student, (consequently) my job is to serve students."

According to Dr. A, leadership effectiveness is heightened when a leader is competent and thorough as well as free, open and straightforward in involving others in the decisionmaking process.

At the administrative level in her work setting, Dr. A is the only woman among many men. This situation is not unique, she claims, for being one sister in a family of four brothers and playing in a neighborhood consisting of 28 males caused her to develop some interests similar to those of males. As an avid sports fan and stamp collector, she feels she is consequently better able to initiate and sustain conversations about subjects that have in the past been unique to males. She presently uses these interests to establish a point of communication with males in her work setting.

To relieve the pressures resulting from the "old boy network" in organizational behavior, Dr. A relates that, on one level, family and friends provide a support system. On another level memberships are maintained in professional organizations where peers are highly supportive.

Dr. A indicates that sound decisionmaking is a necessary skill when women begin to consider stepping stones that will take them to the top of an administrative hierarchy. Furthermore, it is a highly important skill that is needed for the job once the position has been acquired. Therefore, in preparation for a top-level position, Dr. A advises:

1. Seeking out training and other experiences that build confidence and the skills needed to be the best person there is for a job.

2. Designing your own program of experiences for internships especially in graduate school, if possible.
3. Seeking out role models.
4. Getting as much administrative experience under the belt as possible.
5. Making your goals known and participating actively in their implementation.

Leader II, Ms. B

Ms. B's area of specialization is Health Care and Hospital Administration. Currently, she is Director of Hospital and Health Services at a private medical college. This position succeeds a number of other administrative positions which she has held in the field of Public Health Administration. Some were retained for one year periods; others were held for two to three year stints. Periods of time spent in each position are less important than career paths followed to reach her current status in a male dominated profession that women have a hard time penetrating.

Beginning as a Health Education Coordinator, Ms. B worked her way up to Pediatric Nursing Coordinator and then to Assistant Hospital Administrator. From this position she became Associate Director of a metropolitan hospital and then on to the present position of Executive Director of a medical school's teaching hospital. Aside from her major assignment, she has faculty rank and teaches hospital administration in medical school and dental school.

The responsibilities of the Executive Director are defined in Ms. B's vita thusly:

> Responsible for the efficient operation of a medical teaching facility pursuant to its objectives of patient care, teaching and research. Planned, implemented and directed hospital-based comprehensive community medical programs which provided a wide variety of in-patient and ambulatory services. Development, execution and coordination of intra-inter departmental policies, methods and procedures. Implemented and promoted efficient and economical techniques for budget control, billing, collections, procurement, maintenance and services. Represented the medical center before Federal, state and local officials.

Ms. B's training is in keeping with the foregoing responsibilities. She holds a Bachelor's degree in Nursing Education and a Masters' degree in Public Administration. Further, she has had specialized training in Health Systems, and additional course work has been taken in the management of health systems, in labor relations, in curriculum planning and in human relations.

Like other leaders in this study, Ms. B has extended herself nationally and internationally. This is evinced in awards, citations and fellowships received for contributions to the field of Public Health and Hospital Administration. She is cited in World Who's Who, The National Register of Prominent Americans and International Notables, Who's Who in the East, and The Ebony Success Library: 1,000 Successful Blacks. She has been a Fellow in the Royal Society of Health in England, and she holds a certificate in Medical Care and Public Health from the University of Oslo in Norway.

Ms. B describes her leadership style as supportive but more task-oriented because in the area of health, she notes, "We are there to serve patients not ourselves. Thus, the leader's role is an educational role that entails helping people to grow, to assume responsibility for their behavior, to solve problems, and to be task-oriented. The

leader must make decisions in a style that helps people to work more effectively on their jobs."

Ms. B believes strongly that certain leadership traits are significant because others do tend to perceive the leader as she perceives herself. To this extent, Ms. B describes herself as effective, responsible, a good decisionmaker and a person whom others cannot manipulate. This, she feels, is indicative of the support she receives from her Board of Trustees. While she reports nothing of other groups on the job who comprise a support system, she does cite a male mentor who encouraged her to take her current position. National committees with which she works are one type of support system. The described leadership traits, then, tend to be buffers that insulate Ms. B from the pressures of the "old-boy" network. She notes that these are supports when one is aspiring for top-level management. In summary, Ms. B cites very generally the following musts for ascendancy up the career ladder to top-level management:

1. Consistency in training and experiences.
2. Skills.
3. A variety of experiences.
4. Risktaking behaviors.
5. Assumption of decisionmaking responsibilities.
6. Active involvement on and off the job.
7. Creation of positions for oneself.

Leader III, Ms. C

As Executive Assistant to the President, Ms. C has an ascribed position of power or a formal position title which is

indicated in the upper echelon of a city college's organizational chart. She has no budgets to administer nor does she supervise any employees. But, by virtue of her title and the fact that she reports directly to the President, she is privy to information that may or may not be accessible to those working on other levels. Ms. C is one woman among many men in the top ranks of her organization. Consequently, she attests to the need to be better informed than the men working on the same level.

The Executive Assistant has a Bachelor of Science degree in Business, a Masters degree in Educational Administration and Supervision and is currently pursuing a Doctoral degree in the Administration of Higher Education. She is in her mid-forties and has worked in four major positions since beginning her career. Her first two work experiences were consistent with her undergraduate degree. For twelve years she served as Administrative Secretary to a state teachers' association. Then for five years she functioned as Director of Secretarial Services and the Printing Department at a state university. At the end of this period she was hired as Administrative Assistant to the President of a state college, a position which she occupied for three years.

Meanwhile, when the President accepted a post at a city college in another locale, Ms. C was invited to move also and to serve in the capacity of Executive Assistant to the President. This has been her title for four years. She notes that responsibilities of the position require dealing primarily with the human side of enterprise—as she stands in for the President at Board meetings and Faculty Senate

meetings and officially attends to the concerns of students, constituents of the community, government officials and visitors. Ms. C admits that much of her time is spent serving in a capacity that requires strong and positive interpersonal skills and a sensitivity to people. In effect she is a "sounding board" and problem solver who attends to issues concerning people. Ms. C. notes,

> A strong leader must be aware of becoming involved with people to a point of individual attachment or to the extent where it becomes difficult to make unpopular decisions. There are two dimensions of leadership effectiveness that are hard to get at. One is people-orientation; the other is task-orientation. Task accomplishment requires many times making hard and uncelebrated decisions that hurt people, including those who are very supportive of you. Striking a balance so that neither one dimension nor the other dominates—so that people needs are met and tasks are achieved, requires creating resources within the self that leave a leader comfortable with her decisions.

The resources referred to are interpersonal skills that open lines to communication and facilitate receptivity to and respect for the thoughts and ideas of others. According to Ms. C, interpersonal skills encompass a range of behaviors that include but are not limited to the following: being a good listener, being non-judgmental, showing genuine concern for others, avoiding the manipulation of people, respecting the rights of others, being rational and assuming responsibility for your behavior. She feels that these are her strengths, and they serve to cushion the effects of decisions that might otherwise be uncomfortable.

Ms. C's support system on the job consists of two males—the President and a Vice-President. She had worked with both in a previous job. She notes that the President has been a role model because of his application of a humanistic approach to management. Unlike other leaders

in the study, who turn to professional organizations for support, Ms. C does not employ this recourse. She is affiliated with no professional organizations and limits her participation in civic organizations to one association which caters to furthering the educational goals of gifted youngsters.

Leader IV, Attorney D

Attorney D is in her mid thirties and has been Special Assistant to the President of her alma mater for three years. She has a law degree from the J.D. Columbia Law School where she was a Sperry Hutchison Fellow. Beyond this training, Attorney D pursued additional study that consisted of Legal Education in Communications Law, Real Estate Law and Taxation. Further training obtained in Communications encompassed public speaking and broadcast techniques and National Academy of T.V. Arts and Sciences Craft Seminars in sales, promotions and scriptwriting. The total educational experience provides the framework for Attorney D's job objective which spells out clearly what she is equipped to do. It reads, "To secure a management position in government, in the communications industry or with a trade or professional association."

It is from this perspective that Attorney D sought and secured a variety of legal positions and management positions in government at the city and federal level and with for-profit and non-profit corporations. She has worked as a Legal intern in the Office of the General Counsel at the Department of Housing and Urban Development.

Other assignments leading to her present position include:

1. Special Assistant to the HUD General Assistant Secretary and Assistant Secretary for Community Planning and Management.
2. Associate Counsel for the National Corporation for Housing Partnerships.
3. Program Officer for the Housing, Urban Growth and Transportation Division of the National Urban Coalition.

In addition to her present full-time position, she serves as Chairperson of the D.C. Minimum Wage and Industrial Safety Board. This is a part-time appointed position in city government.

The major areas of responsibility in the named positions included communications, labor relations, housing and urban development and international affairs. These types of work experiences provided the necessary background for Attorney D's current assignment. Her duties as Special Assistant to the President involve legal and developmental work for the university's National Consumer Information Center, administrative supervision of a commercial radio station on campus, supervision of the University Press, participation on a task force to launch an educational television station, and service on a collective bargaining team in labor negotiations.

Included in Attorney D's vita are three professional and civic activities where she has a major role as decisionmaker. They are: Executive Council Member of the Young Lawyers' Section of the D.C. Bar Association, Board Member of the Minority Legislative Education Program and Advisory Board Member for United National Bank. Attorney D is evidently very comfortable with the traditional male responsibility

of decisionmaking as she indicates, "I do not like making generalizations about male qualities and female qualities. I think there are some women who have close relationships with their fathers, who have always been trained to compete in sports and who have been trained to do well academically." Attorney D notes that this has been her case, for her father was probably her first role model. She claims that as an only child her father spent a great deal of time with her and taught her to play tennis and touch-football. When asked about godfather types and who helped to pull her up in her profession, Attorney D cites the input of other role models but she credits no one particular person.

Attorney D maintains that at work on the university campus, Affirmative Action Programs have been a type of support system because of three advantages. First, they have facilitated the placement of numbers of women in high-level positions. Next, they have been helpful in facilitating good working relationships among women. Finally, they have resulted in the smooth flow of information.

In terms of the flow of information in her own work setting, Attorney D indicates that there are advantages to working in the President's Office. People are much less likely to tell you they cannot provide you with information. Rather, they are much more likely to make sure you have the information you need.

Attorney D has published three articles on housing.

Attorney D recommends that interested women consider the following stepping stones to top level management positions:

1. Set some goals and objectives and learn to organize your life and your time.

2. Do some financial planning so that there are enough resources to pursue further training.
3. Pursue an advanced degree in a non-traditional area.
4. Acquire some technical specialty.
5. Secure some management training through voluntary organizations, continuing education programs and MTA programs in business, industry and government.
6. Do a good job with the job you happen to have.
7. Do not feel obligated to stay in one area. Be willing to take some risks and to shift from government to corporations to educational institutions.
8. Help yourself personally and professionally by publishing and by participating in public speaking activities.
9. Join professional organizations. They are often a source of good jobs.
10. Get into jobs where there is sufficient position and/or power to learn a lot about the total operation.
11. Pursue a position that is located within an area that is the "life-blood" of an institution. The management-fiscal area of an organization is a possibility because institutions need money to survive. Develop fund-raising techniques. This is an area where very tangible contributions can be evaluated.
12. When exploring job possibilities look for other women in high positions in a company. This may indicate that there is much more of a support network. Additionally, you get to meet a number of women in areas similar to your own and with similar interests.

Leader V, Dr. E.

Dr. E. is past 50 years of age, and as a top-level administrator she differs from other participants in the study in as much as she works for an educational foundation which serves post-secondary institutions. Like Dr. A and Dr. F, most of her career has been spent in the conduct of higher education.

Within the parameters of this study, she is one of the administrators who fits into all of the criteria for a leader as outlined by Cartwright (1965). As Vice-President of the Washington Bureau of an educational foundation, she has a formal position title indicated in the upper echelon of the organizational chart. The foundation functions to create educational opportunities for Blacks, American Indians and poor whites in the United States.

As top administrator, Dr. E has a Bureau staff of 31 and a field staff of 25 who report directly to her. Consequently, the position affords the power to control promotions, salary increases, suspensions and/or terminations of employment. The position also allows Dr. E to have a major relationship to policy making and to the exercise of influence which controls economic resources, especially since her management responsibilities include proposal preparation, program development, personnel training and funding. The Bureau's annual budget is $2 million.

Dr. E has held this position for five years. But to assume this type position of power, numerous considerations were evidently taken into account by Dr. E in the personal management of her life. These considerations are reflected in her credentials and in her conversation

about management. First, her educational preparation is concentrated in English Language and Literature. Thus, all of her degrees—the Bachelor's, the Masters and the Doctorate—are in these two areas. Second, her success as a scholar is evident through fellowships and citations. Fellowships include the UNESCO International Seminar Fellowship to the University of Dublin in Ireland, a Fulbright Fellowship to do post-doctoral work at Oxford University and an all-expense fellowship for graduate study.

A few of her most outstanding citations include being:

1. Cited by President Lyndon B. Johnson as one of the top fifty women in United States government positions.
2. Named as the only woman and the only Black person to the Chatham County, Georgia Hall of Fame.
3. Selected by the Editorial Board of the American Biographical Institute to appear in an edition of Community Leaders and Noteworthy Americans.
4. Named three times as U.S. Peace Corps agency nominee for annual awards to outstanding women in U.S. government service.

A third consideration that Dr. E evidently took into account in the personal management of her life was the willingness to change chairs. Having taught elementary school and having worked in 16 colleges and universities in the U.S. both in full-time and part-time positions, she then extended herself internationally by affiliating with the Peace Corps. Even while working for the United States government, beginning as a training officer for the Peace Corps and finally as a director working with Ministers of Health, Education and Agriculture, she held

four different types of positions. Each position provided training for the types of responsibilities she now has and built upon management skills acquired through other lines of work.

On the subject of management and leadership, Dr. E notes,

> I do not have a degree in management, but I have the arrogance to believe that the experience I have had was sufficiently broad to help me know how to manage. I had worked for a number of years earning my way in accounting, shorthand,and typing. And I had worked in an actuary company, had been a registrar in a college, had been director of a traveling troupe of actors and had picked up a lot of odd things about management from a practical point of view. But, I think there are certain basic skills that a manager needs whether male or female, and mastery of those skills allows one to manage almost anything reasonably well. It becomes a matter of knowing how to describe, to compare and contrast, to sequence, to analyze, to synthesize and to negotiate. Negotiating is just plain common sense. A leader must understand communication—verbal and non-verbal. Verbally, one must understand what should and should not be said in given situations. On the other hand, one must be acutely aware of non-verbal messages or body language that places her on the wrong side of negotiation. For example, if your image suggests incompetence to another person, it is nonsense to ignore others' perceptions if you want to succeed. Another thing with negotiation is that you must have trade-offs, options or alternatives and a plan or some plans, but this calls for doing your homework so that if one plan does not work, the other does. Three things about negotiation: First, it requires learning how to read people and situations quickly without temporizing. Next, it requires making an almost immediate decision about what kind of person or situation is confronting you. Finally, it requires knowing the environment, appreciating what the people you are working with are likely to respond to and responding accordingly. Working with options means being able to step back from a situation with sufficient objectivity in order to imagine more than one set of circumstances and to propose hypothetically. As the manager plans (s)he looks at the whole area of assumptions, knows what her assumptions are so that she knows from whence her ideas and decision came. This way there is some way of evaluating how valid the assumptions might be and whether or not they will work.

Dr. E advises other women to learn from the inside how an organization runs, and become involved in organizational behavior. The latter requires penetrating the network by cultivating people to share their ideas with you. Seizing an opportunity is critical, but timing plays as important a role as does the appropriate set of circumstances,

Leader VI, Dr. F

Dr. F is Executive Vice President for Administrative Affairs at a university. She has worked at the same institution which is her undergraduate alma mater for 21 years and notes, "Administration is incidental for me. I am an educator, yet I have been called upon to work in every capacity imaginable until I accepted my current position." Seeing the need to equip herself for her administrative post, Dr. F accepted a scholarship to Harvard University for extensive studies in an Institute for Educational Management, a discipline which she deemed was to some degree alien to her. She had pursued degrees in Teacher Education and Curriculum and Elementary Education and Language. Further, she utilized continuing education programs to develop expertise as a specialist in testing, test results, and how to use both. Yet early in her working career she began to accumulate experiences as an administrator when she was appointed principal of the Campus Laboratory School and Director of the Student Teaching Program. Following these positions, Dr. F joined the faculty of the university as chairperson for the Department of Elementary Education and achieved rank of Professor of Education. While she was working in these positions, Dr. F continued to upgrade her skills in the areas for which she was trained through participation in international education programs that included: Programs for Young Children in European Countries including Russia; Comparative Education and Language Development at the University of London and A Psychology Seminar at the University of Geneva in Switzerland.

In a nutshell, Dr. F's present position consists of three key responsibilities: 1. Supervising 22 budgets, both federal and non-federal; 2. knitting the university together by looking at where it has been, where it is going and how it plans to get there; and 3. leading her group to goal accomplishment.

Off the job Dr. F has been appointed to a State Council of Higher Education. This is a governor's appointment, and she has served two terms. Furthermore, she is serving as a board member with two other organizations and on a statewide advisory council for Title I, a federally legislated educational program.

Dr. F has her own philosophy on the elements needed to become an effective leader. It is this,

> In order to become an effective leader one must be a human being first—respecting all other human beings; secondly, the greatest challenge is to make certain one operates not with emotions but with intelligence and pride; and of importance, thirdly, is standing your own, respecting self and maintaining respect from the group. Beyond this an individual must recognize that the traditional concept of leadership is obsolete. No longer is it acceptable for the leader to tell others what to do and to be uninvolved. Moreover, she perceives her job and attempts to map out a sound plan of strategies to implement tasks. As tasks are defined step-by-step, moves are made toward implementation. But, tasks must be put on paper for accountability to parents, students and legislators. When everyone understands the task and there is a goal to achieve no one is a dictator or teller, everyone works toward completing the task. An effective leader is able to subcode people and to look at the facility individuals have for getting a job done, and then select accordingly. People are selected who have the skills to complete the necessary tasks. Then the leader is in a position to determine whether the job is moving and if not, who the barrier is. Those who divert the group from goals must be moved aside.

Dr. F. admonishes women desirous of becoming top-level administrators in higher education:

1. Do not let tradition throw you. If tea or coffee needs to be served and that is part of getting the job done, do it.

2. Think ahead of the opposite sex. Do not let them put you in a demeaning position. Work around a situation so that you do not show the ugliness of self and plant seeds of separation.
3. Cement good relations, but do not be submissive. See yourself in relationship to others.
4. Keep your sixth sense out constantly so that you do not defeat yourself by drawing upon exaggerations.
5. Be comfortable with yourself.
6. Know what you are administering and what it relates to. You cannot put a roof on a house unless you have a foundation. Thus, one administers according to goals that relate to the whole organizational structure, i.e., purposes, mission and goals. Study and understand your role as it relates to these elements of organizational behavior. And finally, undertake efforts to have others perceive your role as you perceive it.

Leader VII, Dr. G

Dr. G has been employed in library work for 20 years. Her current position is Library Director, and she has faculty rank as Associate Professor of Library Science. Responsibilities of the position qualify Dr. G to meet more than one of the criteria established as a means of identifying top-level administrators for this study. Duties, as described in her vita, include but are not limited to:

1. Hiring, training and supervising all library personnel (more than 12 major positions in addition to clerical and support staff).
2. Establishing procedures, policies and systems that facilitate efficient library operations.

3. Planning future needs of the library in the areas of finances, buildings, equipment and staffing.

This description denotes some of the power concurrent with Dr. G's role at the university. The position requires not only the control of resources but implementation of a planning, programming and budgeting system.

Dr. G has a Ph.D. degree in Curriculum/Library Science and admits that she was not formally trained to be an administrator nor was this a career goal. A primary reason for not seeking administration was that her husband was Acting President at the university where Dr. G had her first work experience in higher education. She recalls a state ruling which, at that time, prevented spouses from working in a capacity which would necessitate one reporting to another. Thus, she indicates her aspirations were to be a classroom teacher. However, when her husband left the university some 15 years later, "it just happened." She was "thrust into a role with many administrative responsibilities." But, her work record indicates that on-the-job experiences provided much of the training needed to move to Library Directorship. For example, Dr. G's first position in library work was Director of a library media center, a position that she retained for four years. After this, she sought employment in higher education and was hired as Circulation Librarian and library instructor. This position lasted eight years, and for one year within this period, Dr. G served as Head of the Reference Department and continued to teach library science. Later positions included Head of the Circulation/Interlibrary Loan Department for two years and then Coordinator of the Library Science Curriculum before

assuming the Library Directorship. In her current position, Dr. G sits on an Administrative Council comprised of approximately 14 men. She also sits on a Dean's Council which is predominantly male. She recounts that a buddy system seemed to exist among several of the deans as they readily shared information among themselves. But she indicates, "I had to work through that. They did not start sharing until I had earned their respect."

Leader VIII, Dr. H

Dr. H is Academic Dean at an institution where she has been employed in various capacities for 26 years. She recalls "being passed over twice" for this position in the 1940's because, in her words,

> Being a woman was a drawback. And, an unspoken institutional custom was that the elderly statesman or that person who held a terminal degree and had the longest tenure track inherited the Deanship.

At that time, Dr. H had the credentials. She had completed the Masters and the Ph.D. degree program in history at Columbia University, and all of her work experiences had been at the higher education level. In fact, she had authored a book, published several articles and was Department Chairperson for the Division of Social Science, an area which was also considered a male discipline. However, it was not until the 1960's according to Dr. H, that the custom changed and this small liberal arts college became "very unselfconscious" in its employment of women administrators. It was during this period that the President invited Dr. H to serve as principal administrative officer to whom all faculty would report. Unlike Leader I in this study, Dr. H was an

"insider" who moved through the institution's ranks from Instructor to Department Chairperson and to Directorship of a campus Human Relations Program before becoming Dean. Like the majority of leaders described herein she, too, was selected to receive awards and/or fellowships to support her educational pursuits. She has been a General Education Board Fellow, a Columbia University Fellow and recipient of a Southern Fellowship grant.

Prior to appointment to the deanship, Dr. H had done post doctoral study in human relations education at American University and qualified as a Human Relations Trainer. Expertise in this area led to her initiation of various campus activities in human relations. Research in human relations and group dynamics, supervision of a human relations club and instruction in human relations courses were a few such activities. This type involvement over a 21 year period led to the design and staffing of campus and community workshops. The workshops resulted in consultant work for city and county school systems as each began to initiate Black Studies programs.

Dr. H's competence in human relations soon became nationally recognized so that she was invited to serve in the following leadership capacities: Member of the Education Task Force for the White House Conference, "To Secure These Rights;" Consultant to the Department of Health, Education and Welfare in the construction of guidelines for Civil Rights Institutes; and Co-director of group dynamics workshops for a national group of ministers and the Interdenominational Theological Center in her locale.

As women work their way up the hierarchy in higher education Dr. H advises them to:

1. Get as much experience on as many different levels as possible.
2. Seek administration only if it is your first interest. It is rigorous, requires hard work and a willingness to forget being [female].
3. Have some knowledge of what has to be done when a position is assumed. See tasks as a set of functions to perform and get the job done by delegating responsibility.
4. Recognize that one should be well-informed before attempting to make a decision, and know who will be affected by decisions so that they can be brought into the process.
5. Encourage others to perform for the benefit of the total group.

Leader IX, Dr. I

Dr. I admits to having role models, several mentors and a support system which have contributed to her success in climbing the ladder to an administrative post in higher education. While her faculty rank is Professor of Business, she is also Department Chairperson for the Business and Economics Department. She did not start her career in this latter position. Like many of the other leaders in the study, she worked through the system from instructor to department chairperson. Dr. I's first role model was a female undergraduate instructor for whom she worked while pursuing the Bachelor's degree in science. Her first mentor was also a female serving in the capacity of Acting Academic Dean of the college. As mentor, the Acting Dean invited Dr. I to serve as Acting Head for the Business Department and later promoted her to

Chairperson for the department. Her department has all male employees, however her support system consists of other women and men on the job who share ideas and encourage her to get involved.

Getting involved was nothing new as is evidenced through grants received by Dr. I while she was training to become a professional. For graduate expenses she received a Southern Education Scholarship, a United Negro College Fund Fellowship, an Iota Phi Lambda Scholarship and a teaching assistantship from the University of Tennessee.

Dr. I's training ended with an Ed.D. degree in business, however, she has developed expertise in individualized instruction and also in writing behavioral objectives. This proficiency has led to consultant work for the National Science Foundation and the United Board for College Development, as well as for various colleges. She has conducted workshops on the following topics: Self-Directed Learning, Writing Behavioral Objectives for an Audio-visual Resource Center, Writing Behavioral Objectives and Using Individualized Instruction, and Content Development Specialists in Individualized Learning.

In 1975 Dr. I was named Outstanding Educator. The following year 1976-1977, she was listed in Notable Americans. Dr. I advises prospective female administrators as follows:

1. Do not be afraid to change jobs if you sense that the position is a dead-end.
2. Do not sacrifice what you could become by being too comfortable in the security of a position.
3. Lay the groundwork for building relationships with people. Tasks are important, but so are interpersonal relations. Set a strategy for building relationships by using a task-type format. This

provides comfort for the leader in feeling that she will get support for smoothing the way so that reasons behind requests are understood.

4. Find your own answers. It is good to have the support of others, but a woman must feel strongly about what she wants to do and, then, stand up and speak up for it.
5. Get a variety of experiences.
6. Look at long-range planning, and ask where do I want to be five or ten years from now?

V. ANALYSIS

Administration as a traditional male calling has dictated that organizational behavior and leadership effectiveness be viewed from a male perspective. Anxious to add to the scarce supply of information regarding women administrators' attitudes toward their work environment and to provide visibility for top-level administrators in higher education, the researcher embarked on a limited program of inquiry into who the role models are.

Demographic data from the cases are presented in Table 1, page 28. Table 1 illustrates various characteristics of the population which are labeled subject characteristics, employment history, and indices of professionalism. Table 1 reveals that the largest number of top-level administrators in this population were between 40 and 59 years of age. Fourty four per cent of the administrators' ages ranged from 50-59 years and the same percentage were between 40 and 49. Only one fell within the 30-39 age range.

Marital status of the women administrators varied. Twenty two per cent were single; one was widowed; 44 per cent were married and 22 per cent were divorced. Diversity existed in educational degrees acquired in that 22 per cent had masters degrees; 44 per cent had a Doctor of Philosophy degree; 22 per cent had Doctorates of Education and one had earned the Doctor of Jurisprudence Degree.

Of the nine participants, 44 per cent worked in private institutions, 44 per cent in public institutions, and one worked in an educational foundation. Fourty four per cent of the participants, who were 50-59 years of age, had been in their current positions for five to six years. Thirty three per cent had held their current positions from three to four years. Twenty two per cent had been on the job for one year. The nine women had been administrators for a total of 33 years. Fifty five and one half per cent of the women had published and 67 per cent had done consultant work.

The cases document important aspects of the need for scholarship, research and service to compete for top-level administrative posts in higher education. Some of the cases may appear as successes, others as failures, however, they were provided to illuminate various facets of the process of ascending the hierarchical ladder to top-level administration in higher education.

A thematic approach to the study resulted in a number of findings. Relative to women administrators' perceptions of career paths that lead to the top, the following were identified: (1) mapping a strategy for reaching the top, (2) development of an area of specialization/continuing education, (3) work experience at various levels,

(4) faculty rank, (5) performance which merits being invited to take a position, (6) mobility to make national and international contributions and (7) age and experience.

All of the women administrators did not suggest extensive how-to-do-it hints for women in pursuit of administrative positions. However, among the recommendations offered, patterns were noted in the target women's demonstration of adherence to their own advice. Where this was the case, the following recommendations stood out and provided parameters for a definition of an effective leader separate and apart from sex.

1. Know what you are administering. Six of the nine target women placed a great deal of emphasis on task-related activities and high competence in this area. The remaining three leaders indicated the need to strike a balance between the task and human relations.
2. Perform for the benefit of the total group.
3. Get as much experience on as many different levels as possible. Lateral moves were minimal in this research. The administrators, in practically all cases, had moved up the hierarchy.
4. Cultivate people to share their ideas.
5. Assume decisionmaking responsibilities.
6. Be willing to take risks.
7. Help yourself personally and professionally by publishing.
8. Become actively involved on and off the job.

In cases where role models and/or mentors were not discussed, the women denied having either. Interesting to note, however, are the mostly male administrators who recommended the target women as

prospective participants for the research because they perceived the women as effective leaders. In some cases the men who recommended the women were indeed their mentors. In other cases, quite a few of the women identified males who advised them and provided the help needed to move up. This contradicts Woods (1975) statement that "For the woman a . . . person to examine for strategic help and advice does not exist."

We have seen that moving up in the organizational hierarchy is influenced by an institution's local standards as well as by the standards of mainstream society. This suggests that there are linkages with unexpected parts of our culture that have consequences for a woman's career. An example is the way that society had recognized some of the target women as scholars by rewarding them with prestigious scholarships. Later, their identification as leaders came through awards, citations, and invitations to accept decisionmaking roles on prominent policymaking boards.

Women administrators as members of mainstream society share standards that are common to their male peers in higher education. The peers then become a reference group that reinforces the standards of that group in order to be socially accepted. The women in this study obviously adhered to those standards to reach the top.

VI. CONCLUSIONS

As a result of findings from the case studies and interview sessions, the following conclusions can be drawn.

1. Various types of advanced degrees are acceptable for women seeking top-level administrative positions in higher education.

2. Marital status may have little bearing upon whether or not a woman moves up in higher education.
3. An acceptable standard which was adhered to in this study was the traditional male model for climbing the organizational hierarchy. Educational preparation seemed to be a prerequisite, and moving up through the ranks was more acceptable than being brought in as an outsider. Publication was also a required element in the male model.
4. For women in higher education administration professional organizations seem satisfying as a type of support system.
5. Outsiders as well as insiders can move up the hierarchical ladder, but insiders stand a better chance.
6. Women do not have to deny their femininity to become administrators, but they should forget being female in order to direct positive energy toward getting the job done.
7. Top-level women administrators who work in predominantly male settings evidently have a system for coping that is not readily visible.

CHAPTER IV

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSES OF DATA

I. INTRODUCTION

The research generated data from nine women administrators and 31 coworkers who worked over, under and around them in institutions of higher learning in the Southeast. Eight of the institutions were historically Black; one was predominantly White.

Initial contact was made with a population of 25 top-level women administrators. The administrators were sent letters requesting their participation in the study. Nine administrators responded positively and consented to respond to questionnaires, to be interviewed, to allow taping and/or notetaking during the interviews, to allow their vitae to be read and analyzed and to allow institutional documents such as organizational charts to be reviewed. Additionally, the administrators supplied names of coworkers who worked over, under and around them. The coworkers consented to participate in the study by completing the Least-Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC). Table 1, page 28, identifies the women administrators by subject characteristics, employment history and indices of professionalism.

II. ANALYSES OF DATA

Data obtained from the Least-Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC) provided measures to analyze (1) interpersonal perceptions of personality attributes, (2) predictions of group performance based on the difference an individual perceives between the most- and least-preferred coworker

she has and (3) the leader's feeling about herself in relation to the group as well as the group's feeling about itself. Figures 1-5 represent a comparison of each leader's score and the mean scores of each group of followers on the LPC instrument. Figure 6 summarizes the total mean scores for all followers and all leaders. Tests of significance were computed and resulted in t-values which are presented in Tables 3 and 4.

Most-Preferred Coworker

There were five questions concerning the Most-Preferred Coworker. The first question was stated as follows:

1. How do group leaders and group members perceive their most preferred coworkers? What are the similarities and differences?

For purposes of data summarization at this point, data analyses revealed no significant differences in how group leaders and group members perceived their most-preferred coworkers. When scoring data from the MPC, mean scores were computed for followers by group and for the total group of followers and leaders. These two scores were then charted along with the MPC score of each leader. There were striking similarities in the total mean scores on the MPC scale. Ranges differed somewhat as noted below:

	Followers	Leaders	Total Group
Total $\bar{X}$	107.26	107.22	107.25
Range	93.67 to 120.33	89.00 to 120.00	95.00 to 120.25

It appears that leaders and followers tend to see themselves much in the same manner as they see their most-preferred coworkers.

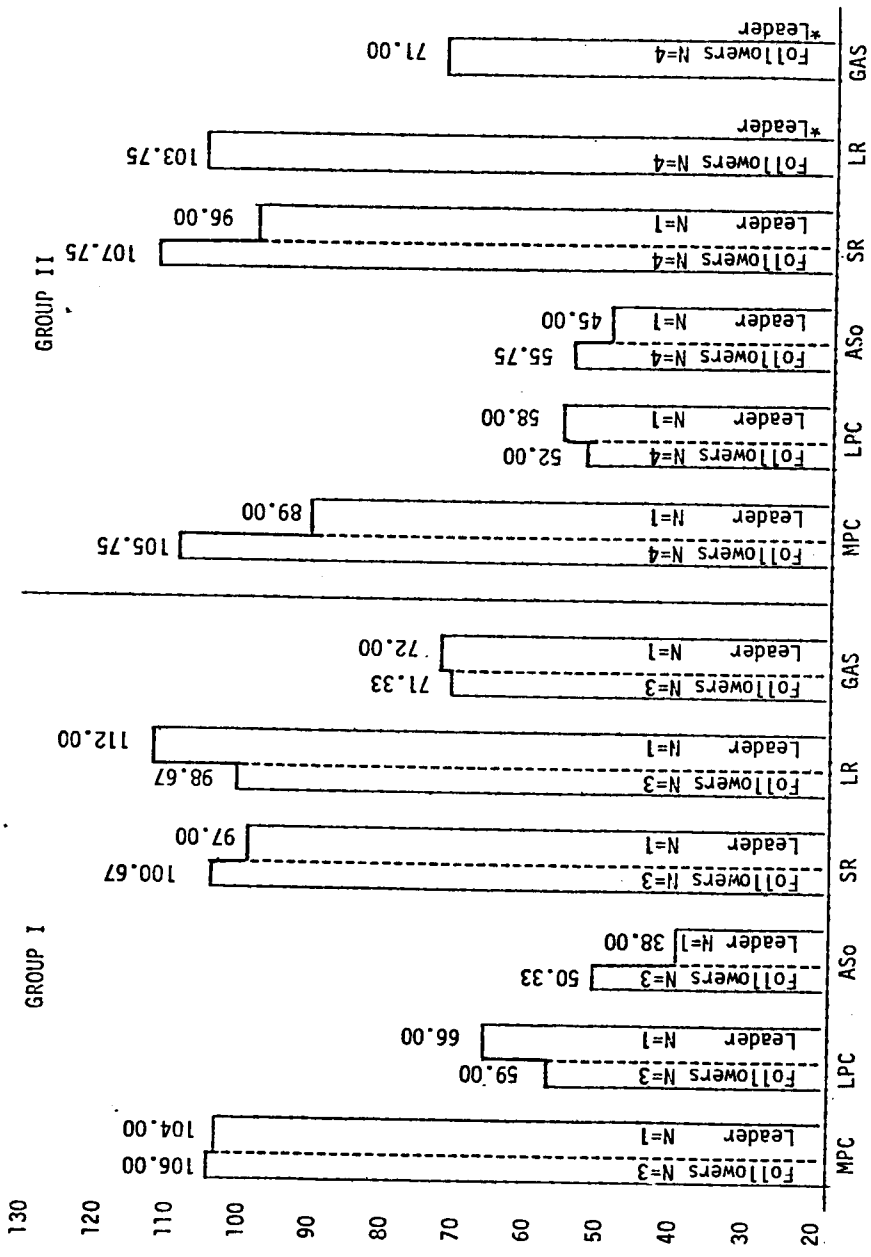


Figure 1. Comparison of leader score and mean scores of followers on MPC, LPC, ASo, SR, LR and GAS. *Leader did not complete Leader Rating Scale and Group Atmosphere Scale.

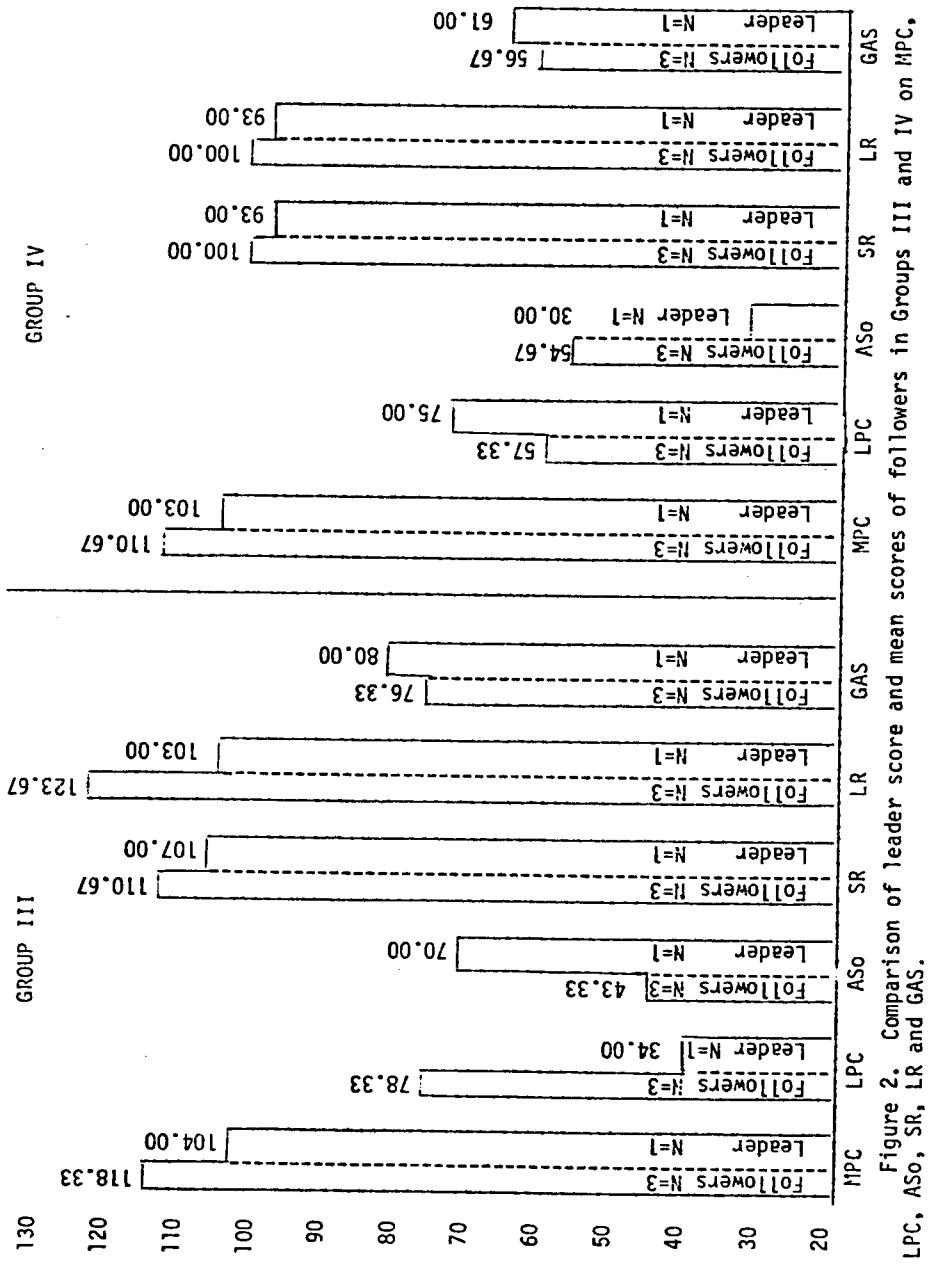


Figure 2. Comparison of leader score and mean scores of followers in Groups III and IV on MPC, LPC, ASo, SR, LR and GAS.

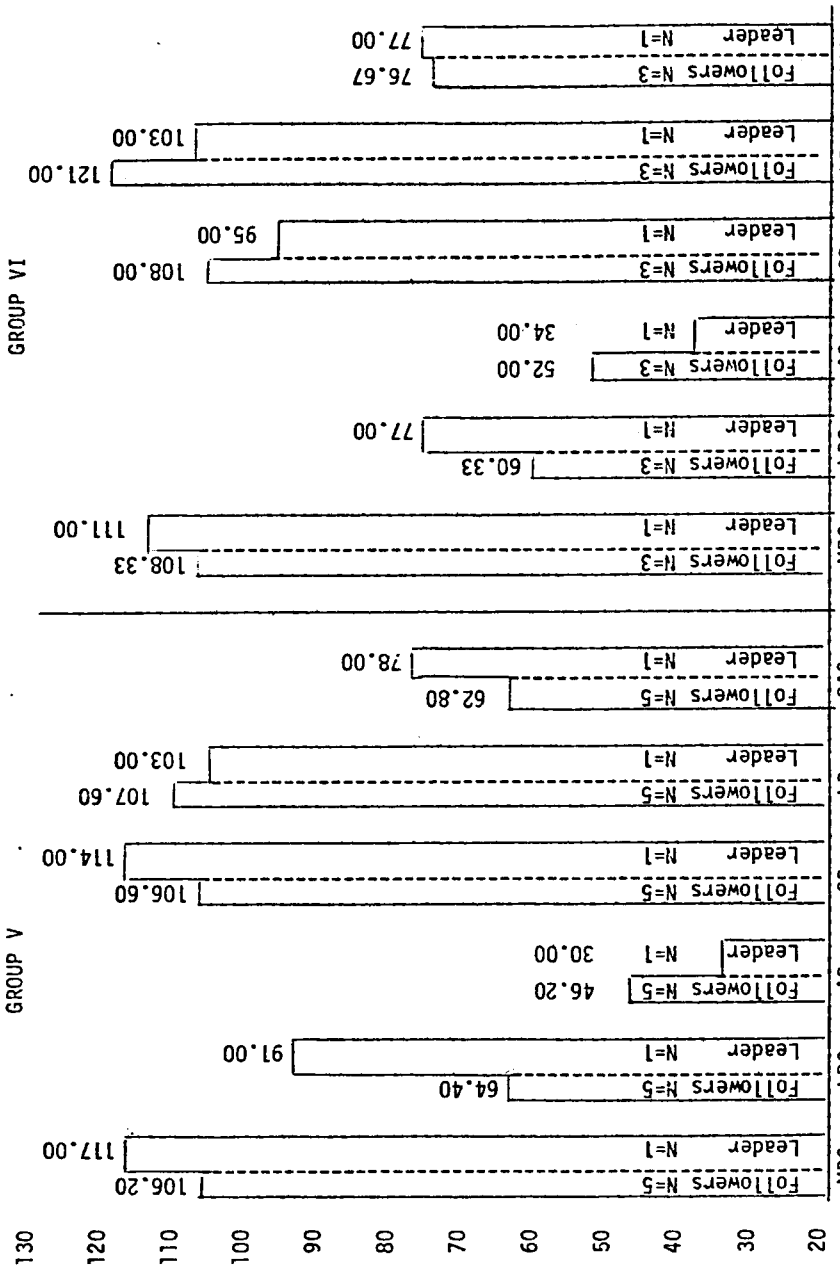


Figure 3. Comparison of leader score and mean scores of followers in Groups V and VI on MPC, LPC, ASo, SR, LR and GAS.

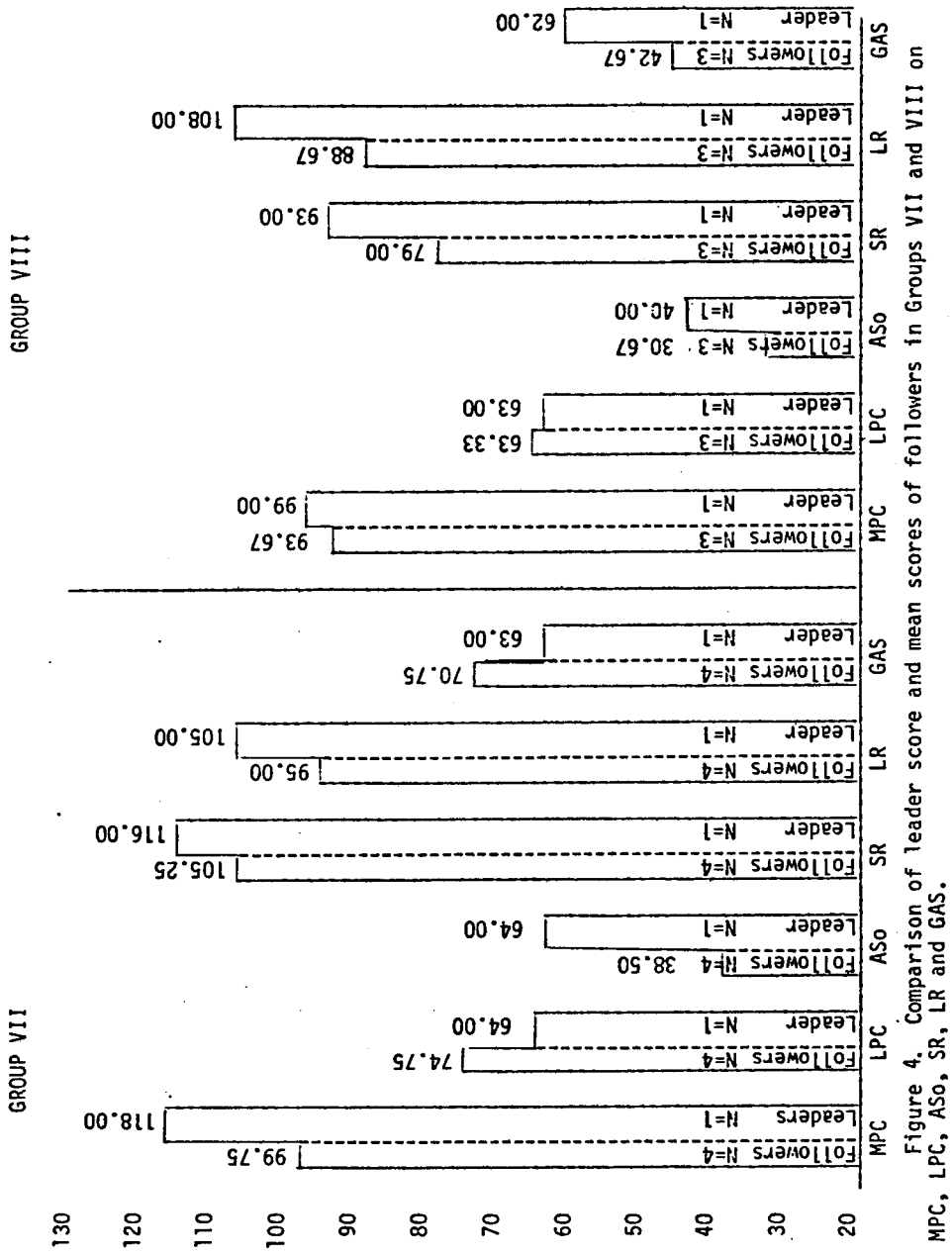


Figure 4. Comparison of leader score and mean scores of followers in Groups VII and VIII on MPC, LPC, ASo, SR, LR and GAS.

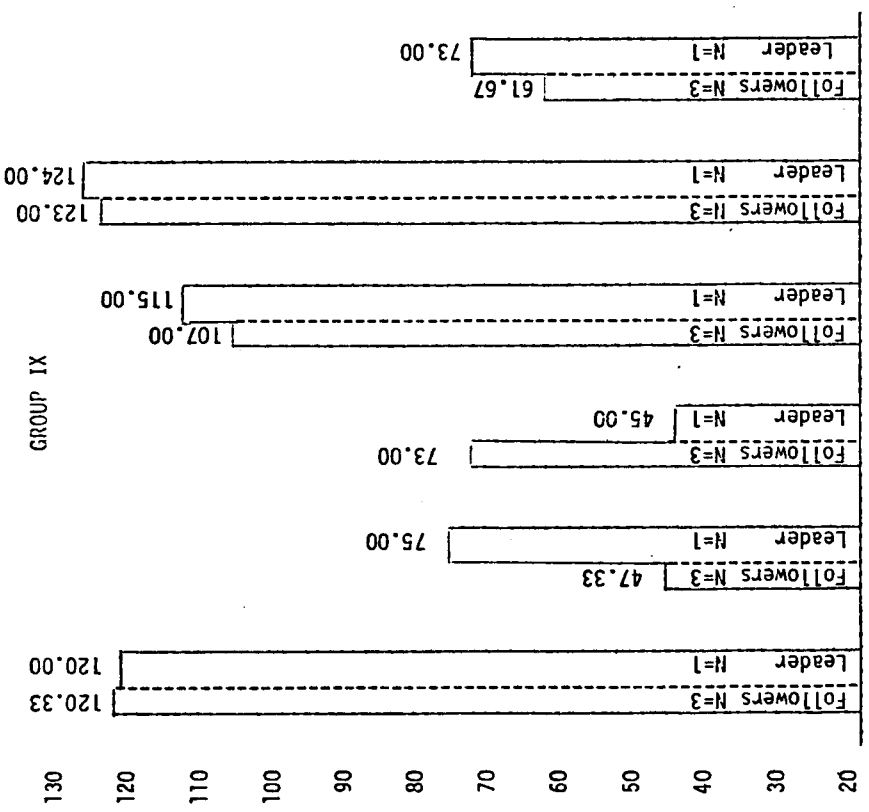


Figure 5. Comparison of leader score and mean scores of followers in Group IX on MPC, LPC, ASo, SR, LR, and GAS.

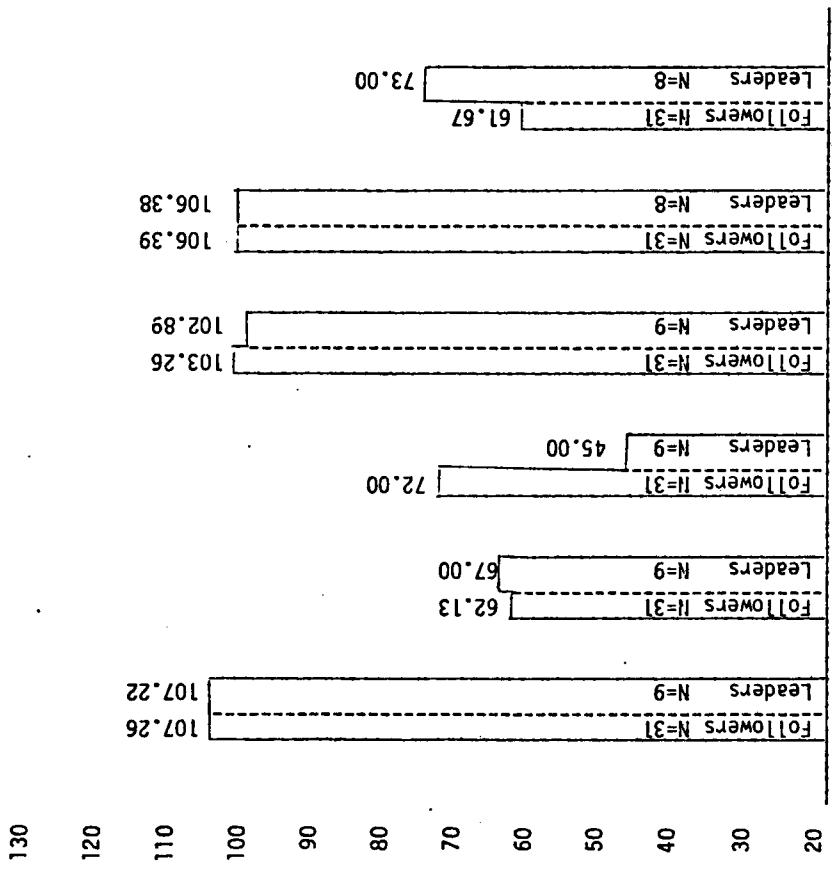


Figure 6. Summary of total mean scores for all followers and leaders.

TABLE 3

T-VALUES FOR LEADER COMPARISONS

Comparisons	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	t-Value	2-Tail Probability
Most-Preferred Coworker	9	107.22	10.17	1.92	0.092
Self-Rating		102.88	9.99		
Most-Preferred Coworker	8	109.50	8.05	0.94	0.376
Leader Rating		106.38	8.94		
Self-Rating	8	103.75	10.32	-0.70	0.509
Leader Rating		106.38	8.94		
Self-Rating	8	103.75	10.32	8.62	0.000
Group Atmosphere		70.75	7.70		

TABLE 4

T-VALUES FOR FOLLOWER COMPARISONS

Comparisons	N	Mean	Standard Deviation	T-Value	2-Tail Probability
Most-Preferred Coworker	31	107.26	10.59	1.84	0.075
Self-Rating		103.26	11.08		
Most-Preferred Coworker	31	107.26	10.59	0.50	0.619
Leader Rating		106.39	15.02		
Least-Preferred Coworker	31	62.13	15.63	-11.34	0.000
Leader Rating		106.39	15.03		
Self-Rating	31	103.26	11.08	-1.26	0.219
Leader Rating		106.39	15.03		
Self-Rating	31	103.26	11.03	16.74	0.000
Group Atmosphere		65.71	13.92		

TABLE 4. Continued

t = 2.30 necessary for significance at .05 with eight df (N = 9).

t = 2.36 necessary for significance at .05 with seven df (N = 8).

2. Are descriptions of the Most-Preferred Coworker similar to self-ratings or different?

Participant responses to the instrument yielded data for analyses to determine if there were significant differences among descriptions of the Most-Preferred Coworker and self-descriptions. T-values outlined in Tables 3 and 4 indicate no significant differences for leaders or followers at the .05 level of significance. Thus, people tend to see themselves much in the same way as they see their MPC.

3. How are group descriptions of the MPC like group descriptions of their leaders?

Leaders as a group described their leaders (immediate superiors) and followers' described the target population. Results of analyses revealed highly similar total mean scores and no significant differences, as was the case with the MPC descriptions discussed in Question 1. There was some diversity in ranges. It should be noted that eight (8) leaders instead of nine (9) described their immediate superiors. Likenesses in total mean scores and diversity in ranges for Leader Ratings are summarized below. Refer to Question 1 for similarities in MPC descriptions.

	Followers	Leaders	Total Group
Total $\bar{X}$	106.39	106.38	106.39
Range	88.00 to 123.67	93.00 to 124.00	93.50 to 123.25

Findings indicate similarities among the leader group and the follower group in their perceptions of MPC and LR.

4. What is the consistency of leaders' reactions to the MPC and their self-perceptions?

T-values computed for mean differences on leader reactions to MPC and self-ratings (SR) revealed no significant relationships (.05). Table 4 reports the results of this data analysis.

5. How do group descriptions of the MPC compare with their perceptions of group atmosphere?

Data analyses established that followers as a group saw the MPC and group atmosphere differently. Thus, at the .05 level of significance there were significant relationships. For leaders as a group there were also significant differences. Tables 5 and 6 present the t-test results.

Least-Preferred Coworker

Treatment of the LPC score resulted in a score which Fiedler (1967) identifies as the Assumed Similarity of Opposites score (ASo). This is the measure which predicts group performance based on the difference perceived between the most- and least-preferred coworker an individual has.

Fiedler's procedure (1967) was followed in order to obtain the ASo. A total mean score and range (Table 7) were obtained for the follower group, the group of leaders and the total group of leaders and followers. Fiedler (1967) indicates that a high LPC score denotes perceptions of the LPC as one who derives major satisfaction from successful interpersonal relations. A low LPC score denotes perceptions of one who derives most satisfaction from task performance.

Questions 1 and 2 ask for comparisons of leaders' and followers' perceptions of differences between their most- and least-preferred coworkers. The questions were worded,

TABLE 5

T-VALUES OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN LEADER GROUP ON SCALES IN LPC

	Mean	Number of Cases	S.D.	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
MPC	107.22		10.17			
		9		8.54	8	0.00
LPC	67.00		15.81			
MPC	109.50		8.05			
		8		11.54	7	0.00
GAS	70.75		7.70			
LPC	67.00		15.81			
		9		-6.06	8	0.00
SR	102.00		9.99			
ASo	43.88		15.22			
		8		-10.67	7	0.00
LR	106.38		8.94			
SR	103.75		10.32			
		8		8.62	7	0.00
GAS	70.75		7.70			
LR	106.38		8.94			
		8		9.53	7	0.00
GAS	70.75		7.70			

TABLE 5. Continued

t = 2.30 necessary for significance at .05 with eight df (N=9).

t = 2.36 necessary for significance at .05 with seven df (N=8).

TABLE 6

T-VALUES OF SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES IN FOLLOWER GROUPS ON SCALES IN LPC

	Mean	Number of Cases	S.D.	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
MPC	107.26		10.59			
		31		12.54	30	0.00
LPC	62.13		15.63			
MPC	107.26		10.59			
		31		14.59	30	0.00
GAS	65.71		13.92			
LPC	62.13		15.63			
		31		-13.22	30	0.00
SR	103.26		11.08			
LPC	62.13		15.63			
		31		-11.34	30	0.00
LR	106.39		15.02			
SR	103.26		11.08			
		31		16.74	30	0.00
LR	65.71		13.92			
LR	106.39		15.02			
		31		14.03	30	0.00
GAS	65.71		13.92			

TABLE 6. Continued

	Mean	Number of Cases	S.D.	t-value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
MPC	107.26		10.59			
		31		23.74	30	0.00
ASo	49.03		16.63			

TABLE 7

LEADER SCORES, MEAN SCORES OF FOLLOWERS AND TOTAL GROUP SCORES ON MPC, LPC, ASO, SR, LR, AND GAS

Category	Group	Followers	Leader	Total Group	Category	Followers	Leader	Total Group
Most-Preferred Coworker	1	106.00	104.00	105.50	Self-Rating	100.67	97.00	99.75
	2	105.75	89.00	102.40		107.75	96.00	105.40
	3	118.33	104.00	114.75		110.67	107.00	109.75
	4	110.67	103.00	108.75		100.00	93.00	98.25
	5	106.20	117.00	108.00		106.60	114.00	107.83
	6	108.33	111.00	109.00		108.00	95.00	104.75
	7	99.75	118.00	103.40		105.25	116.00	107.40
	8	93.67	99.00	95.00		79.00	93.00	82.50
	9	120.33	120.00	120.25		107.00	115.00	109.00
	Total	107.26	107.22	107.25		103.26		
	Range	93.67-120.33	89.00-120.00	79.00-110.00		79.00-110.00	93.00-116.00	82.50-109.75
Least-Preferred Coworker	1	59.00	66.00	60.75	Leader Rating	98.67	112.00	102.00
	2	52.00	58.00	53.20		103.75	---	103.75
	3	78.33	34.00	67.25		123.67	103.00	118.50
	4	57.33	75.00	61.75		100.00	93.00	98.25
	5	64.40	91.00	68.83		107.60	103.00	106.83
	6	60.33	77.00	64.50		121.00	103.00	116.50
	7	74.75	64.00	72.60		95.00	105.00	97.00
	8	63.33	63.00	63.25		88.67	108.00	93.50
	9	47.33	75.00	54.25		123.00	124.00	123.25
	Total	62.13	67.00	66.23		106.39	106.38	106.39
	Range	47.33-78.33	34.00-91.00	54.25-72.60		88.00-123.67	93.00-124.00	93.50-123.25

TABLE 7. Continued

Category	Group	Followers	Leaders	Total Group	Category	Followers	Leader	Total Group
Assumed Similarity of Opposites	1	50.33	38.00	47.25	Group Atmosphere	71.33	72.00	71.50
	2	55.75	45.00	53.60		71.00	---	71.00
	3	43.33	70.00	50.00		76.33	80.00	77.25
	4	54.67	30.00	48.50		56.67	61.00	57.75
	5	46.20	30.00	43.50		62.80	78.00	65.33
	6	52.00	34.00	47.50		76.67	77.00	76.75
	7	38.50	64.00	43.60		70.75	63.00	69.20
	8	30.67	40.00	33.00		42.67	62.00	47.50
	9	73.00	45.00	66.00		61.67	73.00	64.50
	Total	49.03	44.00	47.90		65.71	70.75	66.74
	Range	30.67-73.00	30.00-70.00	33.00-66.00		42.67-76.67	61.00-80.00	64.50-77.25

1. Do leaders perceive differences between their most- and least-preferred coworker?

2. Do groups perceive differences between the MPC and LPC?

Of 31 respondents in the follower group the range of scores on the ASo was from 30.67 to 73.00 with a total mean of 49.03. A similar pattern was indicated in the leader group where the range was from 30.00 to 70.00 with a total mean of 44.00. There was one high ASo, six in the mid-range and two low ASo's among the follower group. In the leader group there were two high ASo's, three in the mid-range and four low ASo's.

Data analyses (Table 7) indicate a high differentiation between the MPC and LPC for the follower group and the group of leaders. Studies have supported the finding that individuals who differentiate highly between the MPC and LPC tend to be more task- than relationship-oriented.

3. Do followers rate their LPC differently from the way they rate their leaders?

It was established as a result of data analyses that followers did differ significantly at the .05 level of significance in response to ratings of the LPC and ratings of their leaders. Tables 3 and 4 present the t-values.

4. Are there similarities or differences between perceptions of the LPC and perceptions of self?

The ASo score is the final score used to define the Least Preferred Coworker (Fiedler, 1967). Therefore, this score was used to analyze the data in response to question 4.

Comparison of the means on the ASo and the SR revealed similarities in total mean scores on self-perceptions. The total mean for followers

was 103.26, for leaders it was 102.89 and for the total group it was 103.18. A somewhat different pattern was indicated in perceptions of the ASo. For followers it was 49.03, for leaders it was 44.00 and for the total group it was 47.90.

At the .05 level of significance, the analyses resulted in a relationship between perceptions of the LPC and perceptions of self for both the follower group and the leader group. Table 7 presents a thorough analysis of leader scores and follower scores by group.

Self Perceptions

1. Do leaders' self-perceptions differ from followers' perceptions of the leaders?

According to data resulting from analyses of ranges and total mean scores, followers do perceive leaders differently from leader self-perceptions. The range for leader perceptions of self was from 93.00 to 116.00. For followers, the range was from 88.00 to 123.67. At the bottom of the range followers perceive leaders somewhat lower than leaders perceive themselves. At the top of the range followers perceive leaders somewhat higher than leaders as a group perceive themselves. The total mean for followers' perceptions was 102.89.

Fiedler (1967) indicates that the Group Atmosphere Scale (GAS) measures the leader's and the follower's feeling about self in relation to the group. Utilization of a Leader Rating Scale served to double check the GAS.

Results of t-tests indicated significant differences in leaders' self-perceptions and their perceptions of their groups. The same holds true of group perceptions as reported in Table 7. Fiedler (1967)

asserts that leader assessments of how much they are liked often differ from group assessments.

2. Do followers' self-perceptions differ from leaders' perceptions of their work group?

Table 6 denotes t-values between followers' self-perceptions and their perceptions of their work group. The t-values indicated significant differences. A total mean for leaders' perceptions of their work groups was 70-75. The total mean for followers' perceptions of self was 103.26 and 65.71 on follower perceptions of their work groups. These latter follower perceptions answer question 3 which is stated:

3. Do followers perceive their Group Atmosphere as they perceive themselves?

There is a significant difference as indicated by t-values. Data resulting from both the GAS and the Self-Rating indicated five follower groups perceived self highly, three perceived self in the mid-range and one group rated itself low. Table 7 highlights the differences by follower groups.

4. Are there differences between leaders' self-perceptions and their perceptions of those who lead them?

Eight leaders responded to the LR and nine responded to the SR. Data analyses indicated no significant relationships between leader self-perceptions and leader perceptions of their leaders. A slight difference was observed in total mean scores of 102.89 for leader self-perceptions and 106.38 for leader perceptions of their immediate superiors. Patterns were noted in the spread of the range for each scale. Table 7 presents further details.

5. How do leaders perceive themselves in relation to their perceptions of their work groups?

In response to this question, data were gathered on the total group of nine leaders who completed the Self-Rating and eight who responded to the GAS. Data analyses established that leaders as a group perceive significant relationships between perceptions of self and perceptions of their work groups as noted in Table 7.

6. Can comparisons be made between followers' self-perceptions and perceptions of their leaders?

The data which follow indicate no significant relationships between followers' self-perceptions and perceptions of their leaders.

	Number of Cases	Mean	S.D.	T-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
SR	31	103.26	11.08	-1.26	30	0.219
LR		106.39	15.04			

Notice that the self-rating is lower on the leader rating but is not significantly lower.

Group Atmosphere

1. Is group atmosphere consistent with what groups prefer in leaders?

Findings growing out of comparisons of the MPC scores with the GAS scores indicated significant differences for both groups, the leaders and the followers. Total group scores for the MPC and GAS were analyzed and the spread of ranges indicated that group atmosphere was not consistent with what groups prefer in leaders. Five out of the nine groups rated their group atmosphere high and only two groups had high expectations for the MPC. Three groups responded that group atmosphere was in the

mid-range, but six groups rated the MPC in the mid-range. One group rated MPC and GAS low. Table 7 reports the data discussed here.

2. How do leaders who feel positive about their groups assess themselves?

GAS scores and SR scores were compared to answer this question. The highest score to be made on the GAS was 80. The range for leader GAS scores was from 61.00 to 80.00. Five leaders assessed their group atmosphere positively, i.e., between 72 and 80. Of the five, three were very positive in assessment of self; the other two were somewhat less positive, but nonetheless, positive. The range of the SR for leaders was from 93-116. The most positive ratings were 107, 114, and 115. Ratings for the other two were 95 and 97. This data is also reported in Table 7.

3. How do leaders who feel negative about their group assess themselves?

Five leaders were accounted for in question One leader did not respond to the Group Atmosphere. The remaining three leaders responded negatively about their group through ratings which place all three groups at the bottom of the range for the GAS, i.e., 61, 62, and 63. Self-ratings of the three leaders were 93, 93, and 116. Two leaders had rated themselves at the bottom of the range for the SR and one had rated self so that she placed at the top of the range. Findings indicate that leaders who feel negative about themselves rate their groups negatively.

III. SUMMARY

Data collected for the study have been presented and analyzed in this chapter. The population from which the sample originated was identified,

Data obtained from the Least-Preferred Coworker Scale were presented and analyzed. Data analyses supported a number of significant relationships, however, in some cases there were no significant differences. Significant differences were found at the .05 level of significance among leaders as a group and followers as a group in their perceptions of the following:

Most-Preferred Coworker and Least-Preferred Coworker

Most-Preferred Coworker and Group Atmosphere

Least-Preferred Coworker and Self-Rating

Least-Preferred Coworker and Leader Rating

Self-Rating and Group Atmosphere

Leader Rating and Group Atmosphere

There were no significant relationships between leader group or follower group responses to perceptions of

Most-Preferred Coworker and Self Rating

Most-Preferred Coworker and Leader Rating

There were no significant relationships between follower perceptions of self and leaders.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS, REFINED ASSUMPTIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

Institutions of higher education seem to automatically favor men for chief executive administrative positions. Thus, a lack of visibility of women in top-level management positions poses a problem for aspiring women administrators who look for female role models.

The problem of this study concerned career paths that women administrators follow and perceptions of their leadership effectiveness in higher education. The study was exploratory and its purpose was to use a field study approach to analyze and describe career paths and perceived leadership effectiveness of nine selected women administrators in coeducational institutions of higher learning. Additionally, the study sought to make female role models visible by providing case material on women administrators in top-level positions in higher education.

To probe the problem identified for this study, procedures were established for identifying the target women, administering the Least-Preferred Coworker scale, and conducting interviews. Women who met one or more of the following criteria qualified for participation in the study.

1. A formal position title which is indicated in the upper echelon of an institution's formal organizational chart.
2. A position which has a span of control over other individuals enabling the leader to oversee others.

3. A position which has a major relationship to policymaking and requires or includes memberships on review committees, governance boards and commissions.
4. A position of influence which controls economic resources.
5. A position of power which gives the leader the ability to control resources valued by members of the organization such as controlling promotions, salary increases, terminations of employment or suspensions.

Nine top-level women administrators in colleges and universities responded to requests for participation and comprised the non-random, purposive, voluntary sample of target women. Thirty one individuals who worked over, under and around the 8 Black and 1 White administrators completed the Least-Preferred Coworker Scale as did the nine administrators. During interview sessions, impressions and perceptions of leadership effectiveness were expressed by the target women as they responded to a structured interview guide.

Data from participant responses to the Least Preferred Coworker Scale formed the basis for comparisons between the target leaders (nine women administrators) and groups of followers comprised of individuals who worked over, under and around the women administrators. Appropriate mathematical and statistical techniques, resulting in establishment of means and t-values, were used.

Vitae were collected to provide background data which supplemented information in other documentary materials such as organizational charts, job descriptions and procedures manuals. Interviews were taped and a journal was kept to record field notes.

I. SUMMARY OF FINDINGS

Utilization of a field study approach to this research negated the development of hypotheses. Instead, tentative assumptions, based on the literature review, were made and refined to correspond with the interviews and the empirical results from the Least-Preferred Coworker Scale. The eight assumptions which served as guides for this study were:

1. Organizations have sex labels as do people
2. Top-level female administrators need a support system.
3. Leadership effectiveness hinges on whether or not the group allows the leader to lead.
4. The organization is as responsible for a leader's success or failure as is the leader.
5. Effective women leaders are role breakers.
6. Black female leaders are influenced by the organizational behavior of mainstream society.
7. The use of an instrument to secure baseline data provided an empirical reference against which socialized answers from the interviews could be compared.
8. Black female leadership has been ignored in the literature because of the absence of theories guiding any female leadership.

Demographic data provided by participants' vitae resulted in these findings:

1. The largest number of top-level administrators in this sample was between 40 and 59 years of years.
2. Marital status of the women administrators varied such that two were single; one was widowed; four were married and two were divorced.

3. Diversity existed in degrees acquired by the target women. Two had masters degrees; four had a Doctor of Philosophy degree; two had Doctorates of Education and one had earned the Doctor of Jurisprudence Degree.
4. The women administrators worked for various types of institutions of higher learning. Four worked in private colleges, four worked in public institutions and one worked for an educational foundation.
5. The older participants in the study had held their current top-level administrative posts for a maximum of six years and a minimum of five years.
6. The number of prior positions held by the target women ranged from a high of 13 plus to a low of three.
7. Six of the nine women administrators had published.
8. Seven of the nine women had done consultant work.

Additional findings which grew out of the case studies are listed below.

1. The target women were predominantly Black top-level female administrators in higher education.
2. The female administrators worked at a level where their peers were predominantly male.
3. The women studied seemed to be role-breakers in the sense that they had followed the male model for moving up through the ranks, producing publications, and doing consultant work.
4. Risk taking behaviors, that required stepping out of traditional female roles, were a prerequisite for qualification for top-level administration.

5. There seemed to be high competence among the target women in task-related activities. Less emphasis was placed on competence in human relations.
6. A majority of these women administrators had worked their way up the hierarchical ladder to top-level administration.
7. The target women seemed to rely on professional organizations as a type of support system.
8. A sizeable number of the women administrators identified male mentors who had helped them climb to top-level administration in higher education.
9. Few of the administrators were "outsiders," most were "insiders" who moved up within the organizational structure.
10. Advanced training and continuing education were significant in each administrator's preparation for top-level administration.

Tests of significance were computed on the various scales in the LPC resulting in t-values which are presented in Table 4, page 78.

For the participants of this study, the following were statistically substantiated:

1. There were no significant relationships between leaders' and followers' perceptions of their most-preferred coworkers.
2. There was no significant relationship between group ratings of the most-preferred coworker and self.
3. There were no significant differences between group descriptions of the most-preferred coworker and group descriptions of their leaders.
4. There was a significant relationship between followers' perceptions of their Most-Preferred Coworker and Group Atmosphere.

5. There was a significant relationship between perceptions of the MPC and LPC.
6. There was a significant difference in how leaders perceive themselves and how they perceive their work group.
7. There was a significant difference between followers' perceptions of self and perceptions of the group in which they work.
8. There was a significant relationship between leaders' perceptions of self and perceptions of the group in which they work.
9. There was a significant difference in followers' perceptions of self when compared with perceptions of their Least Preferred Coworker.
10. There was a significant difference in followers' perceptions of leaders and perceptions of the Least-Preferred Coworker.

II. REFINED ASSUMPTIONS

Based on the empirical findings of this study and other data collected, the tentative assumptions were refined to reflect conclusions that encompass results of the cases and the LPC. They are:

1. Leaders who assess themselves positively tend to assess their work group positively.
2. Leaders and followers perceive their most-preferred coworker similarly.
3. Groups of followers and leaders tend to assess their group atmosphere in a manner that reflects feelings about their leaders and themselves.

4. Role models do exist in traditionally male top-level positions in higher education.
5. Female leaders are role breakers.
6. Top-level female administrators lean on professional organizations as support systems.
7. More theories are needed to guide research in female leadership.

III. IMPLICATIONS

The implications of this study are centered around leadership effectiveness on the part of women administrators as it relates to task-structure. The exploratory nature of the present study and the small sample do not allow broad generalizations. However, the findings should serve as a catalyst for further research.

While the instrument seemed adequate to test perceptions of leadership effectiveness, the case studies suggest that another feature of leadership effectiveness among women at this level deserves more study. Seven out of nine of the cases presented revealed that the positions held by the target subjects were executive-type positions. This may mean that because of the level the women worked on, institutional skills such as report writing, negotiating, presenting speeches were more important than human relations. Thus, the people who worked under and around the administrators seemingly were individuals with whom the leaders interfaced least. The question might then be asked, would not a broader dimension of leadership effectiveness be presented if the problem addresses task-structure coupled with human relations so that a more relevant follower group is studied? Another recommendation

proposed for future research includes investigations of relationships between measures of both women's individual behaviors and attitudes and organizational performance.

An important issue in higher education administration concerns accountability which necessitates a task-orientation. Several questions arise concerning training women for task-oriented positions. Should departments of educational administration and supervision use the male model for training or would another model best serve this purpose? Should training programs provide different experiences for women than those provided for men?

Leadership effectiveness is complex and difficult to measure objectively for, forces are constantly changing. Effectiveness is limited by the situation, the leader, the organization, the work group and other dynamics. The women studied represent a minute segment of the population and their unique cases. Case evidence clearly demonstrated the need for more studies like this one. Since women are just entering posts in higher education administration in numbers, the subject of women and leadership effectiveness has not been tapped, so this also represents an area for further research. The idea of theory building of women and administrative decisionmaking further offers opportunities for research.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

LETTER TO TARGET WOMEN

Various types of organizations highlight the need to provide more visibility of women in leadership roles who can serve as role models for women who aspire to become managers in business, industry and education. In all of these areas, the doors have been traditionally closed to women seeking management positions, primarily, because our culture adheres to a value system that expects certain behavior of females that differs from that expected of males.

Research on women administrators is virtually non-existent, to say nothing of the leadership effectiveness of women administrators in higher education.

You have been recommended as an administrator who is perceived as highly effective. Since I am conducting a research study on "Perceived Leadership Effectiveness of Selected Women Administrators in Higher Education and Institutional Variables," I would like to invite you to participate in this study.

Should you decide to participate, I will need a copy of your vita and your signature on the enclosed Informed Consent Form. The vita will be used to document career paths and stepping stones to your present position. Please return both, the vita and the Informed Consent Form in the self-addressed stamped envelope.

With your permission through the Informed Consent Form, I will be contacting you by telephone to make an appointment for a time that is mutually convenient for an informal interview.

A final report of the study will be available for each participant who requests one.

Thank you for allowing me to share these thoughts with you.

Sincerely,

Shirley Napier

APPENDIX B

INFORMED CONSENT FORM

I understand the information which I have voluntered is being developed, analyzed and evaluated. I volunteered to participate in this project, respond to questionnaires, allow tape recording and notetaking during interviews, allow my vita to be read and analyzed, allow institutional documents, e.g. organizational charts to be reviewed, and provide my reactions to the analyses without inducement or any element of force.

I understand that only the researcher and her doctoral committee chairperson will review the raw data, and tapes will be destroyed after three years.

I understand that participation in this study may benefit me and others like me in the conduct of education, and especially in helping to promote equity for women in top-level administrative positions in higher education.

I understand that any inquiries I have concerning the procedures of this study will be answered immediately.

I understand that no personal identification of any sort will appear in written reports or summaries of the study, although references may be made to individual leadership styles and to institutions (e.g., two year, four year, public or private).

I further understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and to discontinue participation in the project at any time without prejudice toward me by anyone.

Signed:

_____ _____

Respondent or legally authorized representative Date

APPENDIX C

LEAST-PREFERRED COWORKER SCALE

Personal Data:

Sex — Length of time in job

Race

Position

INSTRUCTIONS FOR LPC AND GROUP ATMOSPHERE SCORES AND SAMPLE SCALES

People differ in the wyas they think about those with whom they work. This may be important in working with others. Please give your immediate, first reaction to the items on the following three pages.

On the following sheets are pairs of words which are opposite in meaning, such as Very Neat and Not Neat. You are asked to describe someone with whom you have worked by placing an "X: in one of the eight spaces on the line between the two words.

Each space represents how well the adjective fits the person you are describing, as if it were written:

Very Neat:									:Not Neat
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
	Very Neat	Quite Neat	Some-what Neat	Slightly Neat	Slightly Untidy	Some-what Untidy	Quite Untidy	Very Untidy	

For example: If you were to describe the person with whom you are able to work least well, and you ordinarily think of him as being quite neat, you would put an "X" in the second space from the words Very Neat, like this:

Very Near:		X							:Not Neat
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
	Very Neat	Quite Neat	Some-what Neat	Slightly Neat	Slightly Untidy	Some-what Untidy	Quite Untidy	Very Untidy	

If you ordinarily think of the person with whom you can work least well as being only slightly neat, you would put your "X" as follows:

Very Neat:				X					:Not Neat
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
	Very Neat	Quite Neat	Some-what Neat	Slightly Neat	Slightly Untidy	Some-what Untidy	Quite Untidy	Very Untidy	

If you would think of him as being very untidy, you would use the space nearest the words Not Neat;

Very Neat:								X	:Not Neat
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	
	Very Neat	Quite Neat	Some-what Neat	Slightly Neat	Slightly Untidy	Some-what Untidy	Quite Untidy	Very Untidy	

Look at the words at both ends of the line before you put in your "X". Please remember that there are no right or wrong answers. Work rapidly; your first answer is likely to be the best. Please do not omit any items, and mark each item only once.

LPC

Now think of the person in your work group with whom you can work least well. s/he does not have to be the person you like least well, but should be the person with whom you had the most difficulty in getting a job done. Describe this person as s/he appears to you.

Pleasant	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Unpleasant
Friendly	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Unfriendly
Rejecting	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Accepting
Helpful	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Frustrating
Unenthusiastic	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Enthusiastic
Tense	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Relaxed
Distant	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Close
Cold	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Warm
Cooperative	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Uncooperative
Supportive	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Hostile
Boring	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Interesting
Quarrelsone	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Harmonious
Self-Assured	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Hesitant
Efficient	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Inefficient
Gloomy	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Cheerful
Open	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Guarded

Think of yourself on the job. Describe how you think you portray yourself at work.

Pleasant	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Unpleasant
Friendly	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Unfriendly
Rejecting	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Accepting
Helpful	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Frustrating
Unenthusiastic	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Enthusiastic
Tense	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Relaxed
Distant	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Close
Cold	: 1 : 2 : 3 : 4 : 5 : 6 : 7 : 8 :	Warm
Cooperative	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Uncooperative
Supportive	: 8 : 7 : 6 : 5 : 4 : 3 : 2 : 1 :	Hostile

Boring	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Interesting
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Quarrelsome	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Harmonious
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Self-Assured	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Hesitant
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	
Efficient	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Inefficient
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	
Gloomy	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Cheerful
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Open	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Guarded
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	

MPC

Think of the person in your work group with whom you can work best. S/He should not necessarily be the person you like best, but should be the person with whom you have been able to work best. Describe this person as s/he appears to you.

Pleasant	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Unpleasant
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	
Friendly	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Unfriendly
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	
Rejecting	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Accepting
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Helpful	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Frustrating
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	
Unenthusiastic	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Enthusiastic
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Tense	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Relaxed
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Distant	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Close
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Cold	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Warm
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Cooperative	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Uncooperative
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	
Supportive	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Hostile
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	
Boring	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Interesting
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Quarrelsome	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Harmonious
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Self-Assured	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Hesitant
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	
Efficient	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Inefficient
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	
Gloomy	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Cheerful
		1		2		3		4	5		6		7		8	
Open	:	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	___	:	___	:	___	:	___	: Guarded
		8		7		6		5	4		3		2		1	

Think of _____ (Leader) in your work group. Describe this person as s/he appears to you.

Pleasant	:	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	: Unpleasant
Friendly	:	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	: Unfriendly
Rejecting	:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	: Accepting
Helpful	:	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	: Frustrating
Unenthusiastic	:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	: Enthusiastic
Tense	:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	: Relaxed
Distant	:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	: Close
Cold	:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	: Warm
Cooperative	:	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	: Uncooperative
Supportive	:	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	: Hostile
Boring	:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	: Interesting
Quarrlesome	:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	: Harmonious
Self-Assured	:	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	: Hesitant
Efficient	:	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	: Inefficient
Gloomy	:	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	: Cheerful
Open	:	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1	: Guarded

Group Atmosphere Scale

Describe the atmosphere of your work group by checking the following items:

1. Friendly	:								: Unfriendly
2. Accepting	:								: Rejecting
3. Satisfying	:								: Frustrating
4. Enthusiastic	:								: Unenthusiastic
5. Productive	:								: Nonproductive
6. Warm	:								: Cold
7. Cooperative	:								: Uncooperative
8. Supportive	:								: Hostile
9. Interesting	:								: Boring
10. Successful	:								: Unsuccessful

APPENDIX D

INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. Can you identify experiences that have contributed to your success in a male world?
2. Do you have a support system within the organization?
3. Have you had a mentor or sponsore to help you in your climb to the top?
4. How do you describe your leadership style, as task-oriented or relationship-oriented?
5. Have you had a role model, someone whose style you considered patterning your leadership style after?
6. What coping mechanisms do you use to deal with pressures resulting from the "old boy" network?
7. What is your definition of leadership effectiveness?
8. What career paths do you think a woman should follow to reach top-level administration?

CRANES CREST

VITA

Shirley Rita Napier was born in Easton, Maryland on December 6, 1932. She attended elementary and high schools in that city and was graduated from Moton High School in 1949. She entered Morgan State College on a Senatorial Scholarship, and in June, 1953, she received a Bachelor of Arts Degree in English. After ten years of teaching experience in the Baltimore Public Schools, she attended Loyola College and was granted a Master's degree in Education with a major in Reading in June, 1970.

In September 1974, she was awarded a federal grant to enter the Graduate School at The University of Tennessee and to pursue the Doctor of Education degree with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision. She received her degree in June 1979. She is a member of Phi Delta Kappa, the American Association of School Administrators, the American Association of University Women, National Association of Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors. She is listed in the 1979-80 edition of Who's Who of American Women.

Shirley has one son, James Roscoe Chambers, Jr.