GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE COMPENSATION, PROMOTION TRACK, AND PERFORMANCE EVALUATIONS FOR SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENTS

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Gender Differences in the Compensation, Promotion Track and Performance Evaluations

for School Superintendents

Michele Lee Dowell

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Abstract

A pending shortage in the position of public school superintendent is predicted due to retirements and the new accountability standards for public schools. This study was designed to contribute to the body of educational literature in regards to gender differences faced by school superintendents in regards to compensation, promotion track and performance evaluation. The first research question, explored the possibility of continued issues with the gender pay gap for superintendents. The second research question explored the career path of superintendents examining the gender specific paths of women through the elementary principalship and men through the secondary principalship. The third research question explored the role of performance evaluations for school superintendents. A survey developed in 2004 by Montz to study women superintendents was administered to a stratified random sample of female and male superintendents across Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia. Demographic variables of age, race, marital status, education, district typology and alary were collected. Results were analyzed using SPSS Version 20 to compute descriptive and inferential statistics. Significant findings and implications for educational leaders were discussed.

DEDICATIONS

I dedicate this work to my children, Jake and Carly. You are the light in my life and you have made me realize what is truly important in life. I enjoy every moment with you and love seeing life through your eyes, especially Disney World. To my father, Barry, you have given me the confidence to believe that I can do anything that I set my mind to. You have shown me what unconditional love is. I cannot thank you enough for the security that you have provided me in knowing that someone is always there for me. You have been an amazing father. To my sister, Gina, you are my rock. Thank you for helping me to raise my children. Without your love and support I would never have made it through this process. To my friends, Rachel, Isabelle, Cheryl, Kendra, and Kaye, thank you for your countless hours of listening to me complain but encouraging me to continue. I cannot tell you how much I appreciate the long phone calls on the way home from YSU. And finally, to my husband, Rich, your understanding and support is truly what got me through this process. You never complained about taking on the extra responsibilities while I was researching and writing. You have never doubted my ability to finish this piece of work and your encouragement was unwavering. I now hope that I can repay you by giving you the same support and encouragement as you begin your dissertation journey. I love you very much.

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Introduction

The literature in educational administration is replete with warnings about the impending shortage of candidates to fill expected vacancies in educational administration. So from a human resources management and an individual career management perspective, it is important for organizations to fully understand how compensation, promotion track, and evaluations will both attract and retain female and male candidates. This understanding can help organizations avoid the underutilization or loss of talented men and women.

Educational organizations need to be made aware of any issues that may impact women and men in regards to compensation, promotion track, and performance evaluations. In today's litigious society, school districts need to be made aware of potential issues regarding discriminatory practices. Some districts may be unwittingly participating in practices that continue the discrimination of women.

In addition, there is a significant amount of literature on the gender pay gaps in the business world but little is published specifically related to education. This study can provide school districts with insight into the pay practices of women and men who obtain positions as superintendents in public school districts.

Problem Statement

The purpose of this study, then, is to highlight any gender differences in regards to compensation, promotion track, and performance evaluations for superintendents in the public school system. The study has three main objectives:

1. To determine if there are any gender differences in compensation for school superintendents in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio, not only investigating their salaries at the superintendent level, but also previous administrative positions.
2. To determine if there are any gender differences in the promotion track of those individuals who obtain a superintendent's position. The study will specifically address the career track in regards to years of teaching and previous administrative experience.
3. To determine if there is any gender differences in the performance evaluation of school superintendents.

Hypotheses

Based on a review of literature, as noted later in this proposal, three major hypothesis areas will guide the analysis of data. First, in regards to compensation, it will be hypothesized that there will be differences in compensation for male and female superintendents when comparing similar education and work experiences. The second hypothesis will be related to job promotion. It is believed that the data will support that men and women take different routes to the superintendency. The final hypothesis will be that there are gender differences in evaluation for male and female superintendents.

Definition of Key Terms

Agential- social cognition theory perspective: a theory in which people are producers as well as products of social systems.

Compensation: the money received by an employee from an employer as a salary or wages.

Gender: the biological sex of an individual, regardless of the outward manifestation of such characteristics. For the purposes of this study, individuals are described as female or male.

Glass Ceiling: those artificial barriers based on attitudinal or organizational biases that prevent individuals from advancing upward in their organization. (US Dept of Labor. 1991)

Superintendent: an individual who has the executive oversight of a public school district.

Wage Structure: the array of prices set for labor market skills (measured and unmeasured) and the rewards received for employment in favored sectors.

CHAPTER II

Introduction

The most powerful and influential position in a school district is the school superintendent. This position has been predominately held by males. Though women have made great strides, the percentages of women in the top seat of the nation's school districts is the same in 2000 as it was a century ago (Techniques, 2000). The research supports a current percentage of female superintendents to be in the range from 12% to 22%. According to Glass (2000), of the 13,728 school superintendents in the United States, 11,744 are men and 1,984 are women. Data from a study conducted by Glass and Franceschini (2007) indicated that the percentage of female superintendents nationwide increased from approximately 12% in the late 1990s to 22% in 2006. While this statistic is encouraging, it in no way means that the inequity in the gender of superintendents has been solved. Women have a long way to go to achieve parity, equal number of male and female superintendents, in this leadership role. At the current rate of increase, it will not be until the year 2035 that we will see a 50-50-gender ratio in superintendents (Derrington & Sharratt, 2009).

Historically, women have been the majority in the education workforce. "In studying the history of women in the superintendency, Blount found that in 1910, approximately 9% of the school superintendents were women and this increased to 11% in 1930" (as cited in Sharp, Malone, Walter, & Supley, 2004). Women had earned the right to vote in 1920, and feminist groups were promoting equality for all women. However, some women earned these positions because there were no men available due to the war or they were hired because they could be paid significantly less (Shakeshaft,

1989). Women in the superintendency declined back down to 9% in 1950 as it had been in 1910. They hit an all time low in 1971 of 1.3% (Bjork, 2000). The percentage of women superintendents remained in a range less than ten percent until the 1990s when it doubled from 6.6% to 13.2% (Glass, 2000).

According to Sharp, Malone, Walter, and Supley (2004), three different models have been offered to explain the low numbers of women in the superintendency. The first perspective is from the psychological point of view. Estler (1975) coined it the "meritocracy model" while Shakeshaft (1989) refers to it as the "blame the victim" perspective. The crux of this perspective is that the most competent people will be promoted, so if women have a "defect" they must deal with their problem in order to be promoted.

The second perspective centers on the notion that there are a limited number of opportunities for women. Estler (1975) refers to this as the "discrimination model." According to this perspective, there are structural and systemic barriers that work against the advancement of all candidates who are not White males.

The third approach emphasizes, not the individual or the education system, but society as a whole. Estler refers to this as the "woman's place model." Discrimination exists as a reflection of societal role expectations. All three of these different perspectives reflect a deep-seated issue that must be understood at its very core if appropriate remedies are to be applied (Sharp, Malone, Walter, & Supley, 2004).

Legislative responses to gender inequity have encouraged more women to enter into educational administration. While there has been a significant increase in the number of women preparing for careers in educational administration, there continues to be an

underrepresentation of women in these fields. Women constitute more than half of the doctoral students in educational administration, yet they occupy about one-fourth of the administrative positions in the field. Another consideration is that only 10% of the women in doctoral programs are choosing to earn the superintendent certificate along with their specialist or doctoral degree (Glass, 2000).

Administrators have traditionally been recruited from within the education profession, which is predominately female. However, the percentage of female administrators remains relatively low. Approximately 75% of elementary classroom teachers are women, but 75% of the current superintendents did not teach at the elementary level. Women constitute nine to 16% of the current high school principals; however, the position of high school principal is part of a career path that often leads to the superintendency. More women principals are hired at the elementary level than are hired as high school principals, but elementary school principals seldom move up to the position of superintendent (Logan, 2000).

Various researchers offer some perspective into why women are not obtaining superintendent positions. Derrington and Sharratt (2009) conducted a study in 1993 to determine specific barriers to women. They replicated their original study again in 2007. They found an interesting shift in the ranking of the barriers. In the 1993 study, many women perceived their barriers to be institutionalized and rooted in societal discrimination. In the 2007 study, they found that one of the top ranking barriers was "self-imposed." This meant that women were avoiding the superintendency due to family obligations and motherhood. They were choosing not to go into the field so it was "self-imposed" not imposed by society.

Women often have difficulty balancing the work demands of a superintendent, and a wife, and mother. According to Derrington and Sharratt (2009), parenting issues appear to play a particularly crucial role in whether a woman seeks superintendency. Women with children in grades K-8 are rarely superintendents.

Glass lists seven reasons why females still fall behind in top district posts: (1) women are not in career positions that normally lead to advancement; (2) women are not preparing for the superintendency; (3) women are not as experienced nor as interested in fiscal management as men; (4) personal relationships hold women back; (5) school boards are not willing to hire women superintendents; (6) women enter the field of education for different reasons today; and (7) women enter administration at an older age (Glass, 2000).

Pascopella (2008) supports Glass' first and seventh reason. Female superintendents are more likely (nearly 40%) to enter the position from an assistant superintendent position, unlike males, who tend to rise more so from the principal position, with nearly 53% of them having done so. If a woman has to hold a building level principal position and a central office position prior to holding the superintendency, it will take her more years to reach that level of position.

Career Paths to the Superintendency

The career path of a superintendent most often includes holding a high school principal position. However, very few female administrators hold the position of high school principal. While the numbers have increased over the past few decades, a dismal picture is still present. In 1973, women held less than 1% of the high school principal

positions. By 1990, the number of female high school principals had only increased to 16%. Yet, the number of female elementary principals was 40.7%.

Few women are hired for high school principal positions and it is the number one position from which one ascends to the superintendency. Women may not be on the right career path to the superintendency. The literature has pointed to different reasons for this possible dilemma.

First, women spend more time in the classroom teaching before becoming an administrator. There are a higher number of women at the elementary level. Is it logical to think that more women should be in the elementary principal position? However, the converse is not true for the secondary level. About 75% of the total teaching force is women. They are not equally represented at the high school administrative level. Some believe that this is due to gender bias and women are perceived as less able to handle the demands of a high school principal position (Logan, 2000; Glass, 2000). Many school board members do not perceive women as strong managers, which is needed at that level.

Compensation

Gender inequities in pay and compensation have stimulated much research (e.g. Blau & Kahn, 2007; Cohen, 1971; Corcoran & Duncan 1978; England &McLaughlin, 1979; Frank & McKenzie, 2006; Fuchs, 1971; Malkiel & Malkiel, 1973; Oaxaca, 1973). There is solid evidence that the relative economic status of working women in the United States may not have changed as significantly as one would think during the past 70 years, even with such legislative and legal aids as the 1963 Equal Pay Act, the 1964 Civil Rights Act, and the creation of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (Kemp & Beck, 1986).

In 1939, year-round, full-time employed white females earned 60.8% of that earned by white males (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975: 136). This percentage deteriorated to a low of 56.6% in 1973, and had risen to only 60.4% by 1980 (U.S. Department of Labor 1877a: 35; U.S. Department of Commerce, 1982: 24).

During the 1970s, when the Equal Rights Amendment campaign was at its peak, proponents lamented that women earned only 60 cents for every dollar that men earned, implying a "gender pay gap" of 40 cents (or 40%) (Blau & Kahn, 2007). While the Equal Rights Amendment was never passed, the 1980s showed a more rapid decline in the wage gap with a leveling off occurring in the 1990s but a continuation of the decline into the early 2000s.

The Current Population Surveys (CPS) for the selected years of 1979 to 2004 display a wage gap starting at 35% in 1979 with a sharp decline of 8 percentage points over the next decade. The pace continued to slow down with a change of 4 percentage points to 1998. By 2004, the pace increased once again with a 4.5% decline in just six years. By 2004, the wage gap was 18% (Blau & Kahn, 2007).

Prior to 1979, much of the gender pay gap could be attributed by the combined effect of traditional measures of human capital-education and labor market experience, particularly women's lesser amount of labor market experience-today almost none of it can (Blau and Kahn, 2007). The continuation of the gender wage gap raises some important questions: What factors contribute to the wage pay gap? What role does gender discrimination play in determining today's wage gap?

Potential Causes of the Gender Pay Gap

One model that is used consistently to try and explain the gender pay gap is the human capital model. Mincer and Polacheck (1974) explain gender differences in economic outcomes on the basis of productivity differences between the sexes resulting from the traditional division of labor within the family. As a result of women's' expectations in the home, they are more likely to have breaks within their work experiences and less of an incentive to invest in their formal education. Women were also more likely to work in lower-paying occupations and industries, as teachers, clerical, and service workers, for example, rather than as managers or in high-paying craft or operator jobs (Blau & Kahn, 2007). Simply put, the human capital paradigm posits that workers with greater skills, abilities, experience, and a stronger attachment to the labor force are more productive in their jobs, and their greater earnings reflect this increased productivity (Thurow, 1969).

However, Blau and Kahn (2007) used the CPS data in a study to show that gender differences measured in human capital (education and experience) do not explain much of the gender wage gap. In their study, when controlling for education and actual work experience, the wage gap went from 37 to 29 percent in 1979 and from 26 to 18 percent in 1989. However, in 1998, the wage gap, controlling for human capital and race, was only slightly less than the raw gap; in other words, the traditional human capital measures explained almost none of the raw wage gap. In 1998, women's higher education levels roughly counterbalanced their lower experience levels, so that in the end, the effect of these two factors was more or less negligible.

While the human capital model can account for some disparities prior to the 1990s, it does not explain the continuation of the gender pay gap. Blau and Kahn (1999) conducted research to investigate the additional impact of wage structure, the array of prices set for labor market skills, and the rewards received for employment in favored sectors on the gender pay gap. They felt that wage structure was potentially of considerable importance in determining the relative earnings of groups like women who tend on average to have lower skills or to be located in lower paying sectors of the economy. While they believe that the human capital model and discrimination can account for much of the gender pay gap, they also believe that the wage structure is impacting this gap.

Wage structure itself is determined by a variety of factors, including relative supplies of labor of various skill levels, technology, the compositions of demand, and wage-setting institutions (Blau & Kahn, 1999). Juhn, Murphy, and Pierce (1993), in their work on the U.S. trend, make a strong case that it reflects a rising return to skills, both measured and unmeasured.

In regards to wage structure, systems of centrally determined pay are likely to entail less wage inequality and smaller gender wage differentials. In the U.S., a significant portion of the male-female pay gap has been found to be associated with interindustry or interfirm wage differentials (Blau, 1977; Johnson & Solon, 1986;Sorensen, 1990; Groshen, 1991). Basically, if an institution has a system of centrally determined pay, such as a collective bargaining agreement, the variances in pays are less likely to be found.

The human capital model and the wage structure model use limited controls for occupational placement. Attempts to control this bias include analyses conducted at the level of occupations (England & McLaughlin 1979; Ferber & Lowrey, 1976; Stevenson, 1975;Treiman & Terrell, 1975). Ferber and Lowrey (1976) explicitly examine how the gender composition of an occupation is related to the male-female pay gap and find that "lower earnings in occupations with a higher percent female cannot be ascribed solely to the lower productivity of women" (p. 383).

Both Kemp and Beck (1986) and England and McLaughlin (1979) found that sex composition in an occupation is related to earnings. England and McLaughlin (1979) found that the higher the proportion of female in an occupation, the lower females' overall earnings tended to be. In fields that were predominately male, the pay wage was found to be higher than female dominated fields.

Callahan-Levy and Messe (1979) study the sex differences in the allocation of pay. This study is pertinent to the gender pay gap because it may explain how female characteristics could be attributing to the gender pay gap. Along with the equity theory, (Berkowitz & Walster, 1976), persons are assumed to have, among other criteria of equity, an internal standard by which they judge the adequacy of the compensation that is available for a given level of work input. Females could be more likely to apply the internal standard to the outcomes of others than they are to their own outcomes. This hypothesized weaker sense of own equity would make females more susceptible to the influence of such factors as concerns with impression management, which would tend to affect adversely their judgment about what is appropriate pay for themselves.

Callahan-Levy and Messe (1979) found that males also might come to see money as a symbol of how their work is evaluated. Females, however, may not perceive their pay to have an evaluative component since their traditional tasks of mothering and housekeeping are not "jobs" for which pay is expected. In their study, females, even in the first grade sample, tended to pay themselves less than males did at the equivalent grade level, as did the college student females. The researchers concluded that females are socialized to have a weaker sense of their own equity.

If females are socialized to accept a lower monetary value for their performance, how does one measure the gender discrimination factors versus their own internal factors? Are women paid less because they "allow" themselves to be paid less or are they not promoted as quickly and given opportunities to earn equal monies to men?

Promotion

Much of the current literature on gender differences explores the disparities in wage earnings. A smaller amount of literature focuses on gender differences in regards to promotions. Ultimately, the two topics are linked, since promotions are typically accompanied by increases in wages. (Blau & Devaro, 2007) The empirical literature on gender differences in relation to promotions investigates whether equally qualified men and women with similar observable characteristics have the same chances of receiving a promotion or, more generally, of advancing their careers.

This literature produced mixed results. Some studies have found that promotion rates are lower for women than for men with similar observed characteristics (Acosta 2005; Cabral, Ferber, & Green 1981; Cannings 1988; Cobb-Clark 2001; McCue 1996, Olson & Becker 1983; Ransom & Oaxaca 2005; Spurr 1990). Others, such as Barnett,

Baron, and Stuart (2000), Gerhart and Milkovich (1989), Hersh and Viscusi (1996), Spilerman and Peterson (1999), and Stewart and Gudykunst (1982) have found the reverse. Still others' studies have found no significant gender differences in promotion rates. This was the finding in Hartmann (1987), Lewis (1986), Paulin and Mellor (1996) and Powell and Butterfield (1994). While the studies have shown such mixed results, the reports have brought forth a number of theories as to why women may be promoted less or at a slower rate.

While the research may not be consistent for all women, the numbers of female superintendents is staggeringly low compared to the number of women in educational positions. While the numbers of female superintendents has increased from 12% in the late 1990s to an estimated 18% in 2005, the representation of women at this top position does not match the number of women in teaching positions and administrator preparation programs. (Dana & Bourisaw, 2006) State certification agencies report that a majority of those who are currently certified or licensed to serve as superintendent of schools are women. Both at the school and district level, the entry in the administrative ranks is clearly male dominated. A 2004 Illinois study reported that 2.5 men were hired for every woman, for example, and according to the 2005-06 education directory in Missouri, only one in five superintendents there is a woman (Dana & Bourisaw, 2006).

Why are women not reaching the top rank in education? Does the "glass ceiling" still exist? Research supports a variety of theories. The first theory is the "double bind" theory. This theory posits successful executives have to adapt to a predominately male culture and environment, and deal with the phenomenon often referred to as the male managerial model, in which modes for successful managers incorporate masculine styles

and characteristics. This male model places women in a double bind: if their managerial types are feminine, they run the risk of not being viewed as effective managers, but if they adopt masculine styles viewed as appropriate for managerial roles, they may be criticized for not being feminine (Ragins, Townsend & Mattis, 1998). Dominant behaviors that people associate with leadership are frequently deemed less attractive in women (Ibarra, Carter & Silva, 2010).

Essential to understanding how the female gender stereotype can obstruct women from advancing up the organizational hierarchy is the realization that top management and executive level jobs are almost always considered to be "male" in sex-type. They are thought to require an achievement-oriented aggressiveness and an emotional toughness that is distinctly male in character and antithetical to both the stereotyped view of what women are like and the stereotype-based norms specifying how they should behave (Heilman, 2001).

In order for women to succeed in executive positions, they must develop managerial styles that are not masculine or feminine, but are acceptable to male colleagues, supervisors, and subordinates. This is a daunting challenge that is not faced by their male counterparts (Ragins, Townsend, & Mattis, 1998).

Along with the "double bind" theory, women are also at a disadvantage based on the "lack of fit" model by Madeline E. Heilman. The "lack of fit" model (Heilman, 1983, 1995) is based on the idea that expectations about how successful or unsuccessful a person will be in working at a particular job are a driving force underlying personnel decisions. It further specifies that the perceived fit between the individual's attributes and the job's requirements in terms of skills and abilities determine these performance

expectations. If the perceived fit is good, then success will be expected; if the perceived fit is poor, failure will be expected.

As with the double bind theory, skills and attributes perceived as needed in executive level positions are male sex-typed. Therefore, the perceived lack of fit between the requirements of a traditionally male job and the stereotypic attributes ascribed to women is likely to produce expectations of failure. Moreover, the greater the degree of stereotyping or the more masculine the sex-type the job, the worse the perceived fit, and the more negative the expectations are apt to be. These expectations of failure give rise to a clear bias toward viewing women as ill equipped to perform the job competently (Heilman, 2001).

Research has consistently shown that men are generally seen as more agential and competent, whereas women are seen as more expressive, communal, nurturing, and supportive (cf. Diekman & Eagly, 2000). Women are seen as caretakers, and care giving roles are under rewarded in the labor market and in organizations, and are seen as incongruent with leadership roles (Lewis, 2001; Liff & Ward, 2001; Littleton, 1997). The implication is that women's careers may suffer because of the care giving stereotypes ascribed to them (Hooble, Wayne, & Lemmon, 2009).

According to Lewis (2001), the most fundamental assumptions made in the traditional male model of work are the separation of work and home and the division of labor, which have resulted in greater value placed on male workers and those without active family commitments. One misassumption underlying this is that not all women have care giving responsibilities. In fact, women who are highly focused on their careers are less likely to marry and less likely to have fewer children (Friedman & Greenhaus,

2000). A second misassumption is that work and family are incompatible. Recent research has shown that many workers are finding a balance between the two domains, which allows commitment to both roles (Friedman & Greenhaus, 2000).

Research has shown that women neither make the same earnings as men nor do they attain the higher-level positions at the same rate as men. Is this due to discrimination or is there an inherent barrier preventing women from attaining the same positions? An area in need of exploration is the evaluation of women versus men. Performance evaluations are the primary means by which wage increases and promotions are determined. How does the evaluation of their performance play into their wage earnings and their climb up the career ladder?

Evaluation

Existing literature on gender differences in performance evaluation has produced mixed results. Some studies show significant differences in performance, as well as rewards and punishments (Rosenthal, 1995), while others show essentially no differences (Ritchie, 1996; Wren, 2006).

One of the weaknesses in the existing knowledge is that many of the studies have been conducted in artificial or laboratory environments. Many researchers have used students or hired participants to participate in simulated work environments (Rosenthal, 1995). Many works base conclusions on student samples surveyed on vignettes of hypothetical leaders, attitudes about ideal leaders, or ratings of task leaders in laboratory settings (e.g. Eagly et al., 1992; Garcia-Retamero and Lopez-Zafra, 2006; Heilman et al., 2004; Johnson, et al., 2008; Parks-Stamm et al., 2008).

Within the research that has been conducted, three approaches have emerged in regard to gender differences in performance evaluations. The first approach is the leader-member exchange model (Graen, 1976). Leader-member exchange theory (Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987) proposes that supervisors do not treat or evaluate all their subordinates in the same way. Instead, supervisors broadly categorize their subordinates into two groups, often referred to as "in" groups and "out" groups (Varma & Stroh, 2001). Those in the "in" groups receive more of the supervisors' time, support, and trust, while those in the "out" groups receive comparatively less of the same. As a result, those in the "in" group receive higher performance evaluations. Several empirical tests of the leader-member exchange model have confirmed that supervisors often allot membership to "in" groups and "out" groups based on personal characteristics unrelated to performance (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Dienesch & Liden, 1986; Graen, Liden, & Hoel, 1982).

Most of the research on the impact of liking on the leader-member exchange relationships suggests that one's sex may be a predictor of being liked and, therefore, of being selected for the "in" group. One can conclude, therefore, that the gender of one's subordinates may have an impact on how one rates their performance.

Since men hold the majority of leadership positions, women face the prospect of continuing discrimination in the workplace. Also, the fact that many male managers have a cognitive bias in their promotion decision-making protects their gender's status as an "in-group" (Dencker, 2008). This perspective holds that "boys will be boys" and that male managers will act to protect male interests.

In combination with the leader-member exchange theory is the interpersonal affect theory. Byrne (1971) argued, in developing the "similarity attraction paradigm" that people like people who are similar to them more than they like people who are different. As with the "lack of fit" model by Heilman, if a subordinate does not fit within the perceived congruity of a position, they may be rated lower than someone who has a perceived fit.

There is empirical evidence to support the lack-of-fit model as it relates to performance evaluations. The prejudice experienced by women in employment contexts often stems from gender stereotypes and the perceived mismatch between these gender-based expectations and perceptions of what is required to effectively fulfill the job role (Eagly, 2004). According to Eagly (1987), the gendered division of labor gives rise to gender stereotypes; by viewing women and men in particular roles, requiring particular behaviors, people begin to associate traits commonly linked to those behaviors to the person engaging in the behavior. Men's traditional participation in the paid labor force has resulted in them being stereotypically viewed as possessing agential characteristics that emphasize confidence, self-reliance, and dominance. Likewise, women's greater involvement in domestic responsibilities and care-related employment has given rise to the stereotype that women possess communal characteristics that highlight a concern for others (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, & Rosenkrantz, 1972; Deaux & Kite, 1993; Eagly et al., 2000; Williams & Best, 1990).

As a result of these gender stereotypes, women attempting to work in a male dominated field such as educational administration are often at a disadvantage. Performance evaluations can be skewed based on the incongruity between the female

gender role and associated stereotypes and the perceived workplace role requirements (Eagly, 2004). A meta-analysis of laboratory studies indicated that there was a greater gender bias against women in performance ratings on masculine tasks than on feminine tasks (Swim, Borgida, Maruyama, & Myers, 1989).

While the interpersonal affect theory may not bode in favor of women managers in regard to evaluation, research has shown that increased exposure to a particular person results in less stereotyping of that person (Elsesser & Lever, 2011). Individuals may be more likely to stereotype hypothetical or laboratory leaders than leaders they know well. For example, one study found that the less time respondents had to read a vignette about hypothetical male and female leaders, the more likely they were to give the male leaders higher performance rating than the female leaders (Martell, 1991).

The third and final theory to be explored is that despite producing identical work product as a man, a woman's work is often regarded as inferior. In fact, there have been many investigations in organizational psychology that attest to the fact that unless the quality of the work product is incontrovertible, women's accomplishments are undervalued as compared to those of men (Heilman, 1983, 1995; Nieva & Gutek, 1980).

A recent published study by Biernat, Tocci, and Williams (2012) uncovered evidence of subtle but harmful gender bias in the evaluation process at a large Wall Street law firm with a low number of women partners. The research team analyzed the evaluation of male and female associates, comparing numerical ratings and narrative comments. They found that women who received the same narrative comments as men about their competence and partnership material received a lower numerical rating than

men. Similarly, “rave reviews” in narrative comments for men boosted their numerical rating, but the same raves for women produced no benefit.

The disparity between the numerical ratings and the narrative comments is important because the firm relies on the numerical ratings for partnership consideration. On the basis of their data analysis, the researchers concluded that men in the firm are three times more likely to be promoted to partnership.

While this is only one study in one particular field, the findings are interesting to note the devaluation of women’s work performance. Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky (1992) report the tendency for men to be more favorably evaluated than women was greater for roles occupied mainly by men than for roles occupied equally by both sexes, or for roles where the sex distribution was unclear. These findings are consistent with the conclusions of earlier reviews highlighting the less favorable evaluations that women receive when they violate gender-role expectations by working in male-typed jobs (Landy & Farr, 1980; Nieva & Gutek, 1981; Ragins & Sundstrom, 1989). Areas such as athletics, law, business, manufacturing, and educational administration are considered to be male dominated fields.

Summary

Superintendents are expected to work actively to transform, restructure, and redefine schools, yet they hold an organizational position that is historically and traditionally committed to resisting change and maintaining stability (Sharp, Malone & Walter, 2001). Consequently, superintendents are quitting, being dismissed or retiring early because they have failed to deliver the quick educational fixes demanded of them (Daley, 1990; Sherer, 1995). Within the potential for a significant amount of openings in the

superintendent position, school boards are going to have a difficult time filling all of these positions.

While approximately 75% of the teaching population, 50% of the educational administration program candidates and 50% of the doctoral program candidates are made up of females, only a small percentage end up in the superintendency (Brunner & Kim, 2010). School boards need to find a way to entice their already large supply of females to enter administrative positions.

> Women sometimes don't think of themselves in the next leadership role, according to Ms. Jerome, the superintendent of the 5,000 student Arlington Heights, Illinois school district. But with the prompting, that then begins their thinking about it and their preparations (Samuels, 2007).

School districts need to mentor and provide opportunities for women to become leaders. Equalizing the salaries, promotion rates, and job performance expectations may provide females with the necessary tools to meet the ever-increasing demands of a superintendent position.

In today's education society, schools are held to a higher standard of performance. According to the No Child Left Behind Act, all schools should have 100% proficiency in the areas of reading and math for all students in grades three to eight, and 11 by 2014. In order to attain this lofty goal, school districts have had to vastly change the organizational structure of schools. Several researchers suggested that women should fill higher administrative positions because women's leadership styles often better support current democratic/participative organizational reform/development (Fresher & Fresher, 1979;

Gross & Trask, 1976; Mandell & Pherwant, 2003) and in particular, the teacher empowerment required for organizational learning (Marks & Seashore-Louis, 1999).

In the past, the job was structured and predictable because schools were required to maintain the status quo. The job today demands the superintendent to be a change agent who is constantly adapting to a myriad of social, economic, and political conditions (Malone, 1999). The most effective leadership style in contemporary organizations to bring about change is transformational leadership (Conger& Hunt, 1999; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Hunt, 1999; Kirkpatrick & Locke, 1996; Lopez-Zafra & Morales, 1999, 2007; Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Transformational leadership involves establishing oneself as a role model by gaining the trust and confidence of followers (Bass, 1985, 1998). This leadership style is in clear contrast to transactional leadership, where management is performed in a more conventional way and the leader rewards or punishes a follower depending on the adequacy of the follower's performance (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

Transformational leaders motivate their followers to improve their performance (Conger & Kanungo, 1998; House, 1977; Lowe et al, 1996). Thus, transformational leaders, for instance, generally use emotional support; that is, they are able to spread their own emotions and they understand their followers' emotions (Avolio & Bass, 2002; Bass, 1996, 2002; Lopez-Zafra, 2001). Supportive and considerate behaviors are also typical of transformational leaders and are related to feminine gender roles. These behaviors thus may be advantageous for women (Porterfield & Kliener, 2005) and may allow them to be outstanding leaders (Eagly, 2003), as female leaders are often more

transformational than male leaders (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly & Johannensen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly et all, 2003; Garcia-Retamero & Lopez-Zafra, 2002, 2006a, 2006b).

If school districts know that transformational leadership is required to reach the almost unreachable requirements of the No Child Left Behind Act, why are they not recruiting more women into superintendent positions? School districts need to step out of their traditional thinking of what a superintendent should be and look at the changing needs of the 2012 superintendent position. They need to fill the position with the most capable candidate for the position, which just might be a female.

CHAPTER III

Research Design

This study was a quantitative survey designed using SPSS Version 20 to explore any correlation between gender differences in compensation, promotion track, and evaluation. This study employed a survey to gather data about superintendents. Surveys provide numeric description of "trends, attitudes, or opinions of a population" and are frequently used to gather quantitative data (Creswell, 2003). Surveys are widely used as they are inexpensive and useful in collecting large amounts of data in short periods of time (Creswell, 2003; Fraenkel & Wallen, 2006; Johnson & Turner, 2003; Montz, 2004). While multiple choice questions do not allow participants to expand or react to certain questions, open- ended or free response questions do.

Two major benefits of utilizing an on-line survey are the scalability and the data collection function. Unlike telephone or postal mail surveys, on-line surveys can reach thousands of people in the same time it takes to reach ten people. The survey employed in this study was sent to 500 participants at one time. The scalability also assists with the low cost feature of an on-line survey.

The second feature that is beneficial is the data collection function. Survey Monkey is able to collect all of the responses and download them into a usable format such as an Excel worksheet, which can be directly imported into SPSS-20. A postal mail format of this length of survey would take a significant amount of time to enter into the system by hand.

The survey used in this study was originally one of the instruments designed for a 2004 study of women superintendents in a Midwestern state (Montz, 2004). The

instrument was replicated in 2006 for a study of Missouri women superintendents (Miller, 2006). Though both Montz and Miller utilized a mixed-methods design, the quantitative survey portion of each of their studies contained enough questions that could be used in a solely quantitative study with more participants (Askren-Edgehouse, 2008).

The researcher located this particular survey through Dr. Melissa A. Askren-Edgehouse who utilized it for her doctoral research. Permission was obtained from Dr. Askren-Edgehouse via email correspondence in October, 2011.

A pilot of the survey was conducted with twelve participants. Each participant was given a hard copy of the survey. They were asked to complete the survey taking into consideration the following questions:

1. How long did it take you to complete the survey?
2. Were there any questions that were confusing or ambiguous?
3. What do you think were the overarching issues that the survey was trying to glean?

Of the 12 surveys, the average time for completion was 18 minutes. The range of times was from seven minutes to thirty-seven minutes. The only comments regarding confusing or ambiguous questions were in regards to the comments requested on open-ended questions. Four of the participants were not sure what information was desired under the comments. Even though some of the participants in the pilot expressed confusion on the open-ended questions, the researcher chose not to make adjustments to the questions because the purpose of the questions was to allow free response and analyze what the participants chose to write about.

In answering the questions regarding the purpose of the study, nine of the participants felt that the study was trying to explore the hiring practices or expectations for superintendents. The other three participants noted the study was exploring the compensation rates and educational experience of superintendents.

Population and Sampling Plan

The subjects consisted of a stratified random sample of public school superintendents from Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio. The sample was selected from the Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio Department of Educational Directories. Once the superintendents were identified, their individual contact information was confirmed via their school district's website. If the contact information could not be confirmed, the researcher moved on to the next listing. Once a listing of 200 female and 300 male superintendents was identified, the search was complete.

Data Collection Procedures

Prior to the administration of the questionnaire for the participants, the researcher received approval from the Youngstown State University Institutional Review Board, after having submitted an application along with the survey and consent letter.

From the list of 200 female and 300 male superintendents, an email listing was created. Each potential participant was sent an invitation to participate in the study via email with a code for a Survey Monkey electronic survey. The potential participants were asked to complete the survey by entering the code which took them directly to the Survey Monkey website. The researcher sent a follow-up email two weeks after the initial mailing to any potential participants who had not responded to the survey. After one more additional week, the researcher sent a third invitation to 333 potential

participants who had not responded. After one more additional week, the researcher made personal phone calls to those potential participants who had not responded resulting in a final response of 221 respondents: 95 females and 126 males.

Psychometric Manipulations

Two of the questions contained in the survey required a way to quantify the responses. The first question was in regard to the career path of the individual. Numerical values were assigned to each particular response to quantify the responses. According to Stevens (1951), measurement consists of rules for assigning numbers to attributes of objects based upon a set of established rules. The values of each number were chosen based on the hierarchy of the position. For example, an assistant principal was given a lower numerical value than a principal. The same numerical value was assigned for each attribute for each respondent. Table 1 provides the numerical values used to create a Career Path Code to be input into SPSS Version 20.

Table 1 *Career Path Code*

Position	Numerical Value
Administrative Asst.	0.5
Elementary Asst. Principal	1.5
Elementary Principal	2
Secondary Asst. Principal	2
Asst. Principal/Athletic Dir.	2.25
Secondary Principal	2.5
ESC/IU Position	3
Central Office	3
Asst. Superintendent	4

The second question was related to evaluation and bonus. A numerical value was assigned to each response to quantify if a respondent received a formal evaluation or not and if they received a bonus or not. As with the previous question, the numerical values

were assigned to each respondent to create a bonus/evaluation code to be input into SPSS Version 20. Table 2 represents the numerical values given to the responses.

Table 2 *Bonus/evaluation code*

Response	Numerical Value
No evaluation/no bonus	0
No evaluation/bonus	1.5
Evaluation/no bonus	1
Evaluation/bonus	2

Data Analysis

After the completion of the data collection, all data was imported into Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS)-Version 20 for further descriptive and inferential analyses.

Significance

It is expected that the study will make three contributions to the areas of gender differences in regards to compensation, promotion track, and evaluation for school superintendents. First, the study will provide specific information in regards to the compensation rates for male and female superintendents in Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio. This information will expand the knowledge of gender pay gaps specifically related to education.

Second, the study will provide more knowledge into the area of promotion tracks for women in educational administration. While some research has been conducted on the barriers to women in education, very little research is available comparing the promotion tracks of men and women leading to the same level of positions: the superintendency.

Finally, the study will highlight any issues with evaluations of men and women in the superintendent's position. School boards looking to examine any possible discriminatory practices can utilize the significance of this information.

Limitations/Delimitations

The instrument used was a survey that required participants to self-report on their perceptions and experiences. As with any self-report, there is little control for participants giving what they might feel are socially desirable answers; answers may be distorted because of personal bias about the topic of the survey, or for results which must rely heavily on the willingness of people to participate (Fowler, 1993; Fuqua, Harman, & Brown, 1977). Hallinger and Murphy (1985) found that self-report data are often idiosyncratic and should be carefully analyzed.

Due to the fact that there are a limited number of female superintendents, this small population is noted as delimitation, as well.

CHAPTER IV

Introduction

The survey results from all the respondents were collected by the on-line survey and questionnaire tool, Survey Monkey. Once the data collection was completed, the results were transferred into a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet and then imported and analyzed using SPSS Version 20. A total of 221 completed surveys were received for a return rate of 44.2%. According to Hamilton (2003) and Sheehan (2001) an adequate response rate for on-line surveys is 30%. The return rate for this study exceeds this rate by 14.2%.

Superintendents (*n* =221) who responded were from Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia. There was not an equal representation from each of the states. Pennsylvania had the highest representation with 152 total respondents: *n* =102 males (67%) and *n* =50 females (33%). Ohio had the second highest representation with 66 total respondents: *n* =24 (36%) males and *n* =42 females (64%). West Virginia had a poor representation as only 3 superintendents responded, all of which were female.

Demographics

Descriptive data were aggregated from the responses. Demographic variables of gender, age, ethnicity, marital status, educational level, current degree working towards, school classification, school size, schools' AYP status, years as superintendent, current salary, formal evaluation, and whether a bonus was received were charted and analyzed. A copy of the survey responses is included in Appendix A.

The various demographic factors requested in the survey were examined in an effort to understand the participants included in the sample and to determine if the

demographic data were representative of nation-wide statistical data for superintendents. The respondents of each survey were asked to indicate their gender. Table 3 provides a summary of the responses by gender.

Table 3. *Gender*

Gender	*f*	%
Male	126	57
Female	95	43

As indicated in the table, the gender comparison was similar between males and female superintendents. In contrast, according to the U.S Department of Education in a recent survey from the National Center for Education Statistics, 82% of Pennsylvania public school superintendents are male, 67.9% of West Virginia public school superintendents are male, and 79% of Ohio public school superintendents are male.

Next, respondents were asked to give their age by selecting from ranges outlined in seven choices. Table 4 represents the ages of the respondents.

Table 4. *Age*

Age	*f*	%
30-39	11	5
40-49	64	29
50-59	104	47.1
60-69	40	18.1
70-79	1	0.5
Chose not to answer	1	0.5

The data in Table 4 reveal that the median age range was 50-59. This demonstrates that the sample of participants in the current study are fairly representative of the age of all public school administrators nationwide as found in a 2003 research study supported by the Wallace-Reader's Digest Fund which indicated that the average

age for administrators nationwide was 49.3. Table 5 summarized the ethnicity of the participants.

Table 5. *Ethnicity*

Ethnicity	*f*	%
American Indian/Alaskan Native	1	0.5
Black/Non-Latino	4	1.8
Asian/Pacific Islander	0	0
Latino	1	0.5
White/Non-Latino	214	96.8
Chose not to answer	1	0.5

In this data set, 96.8% of the survey participants were white, which compares favorably to 89% at the national level as reported in the 2003 Wallace Foundation research study. With few non-White respondents, this category did not lend itself to further analysis. The next category requested of the respondents was marital status. Table 6 summarizes the marital status of the respondents.

Table 6. *Marital Status*

Marital Status	*f*	%
Married	188	85.5
Single	10	4.5
Divorced	16	7.3
Widowed	2	0.9
Chose not to answer	4	1.8

As indicated in Table 6, the majority of the respondents, n =188 (85%) of the 220, reported being married resulting in 85.5 percent of the sample. This percentage of married respondents is much higher than the national average. According to the Census Bureau, married couples represented just 48 percent of American households in 2010 (Tavernise, 2011). Table 7 summarizes the educational level of the participants.

Table 7. *Educational Level*

Educational Level	*f*	%
Master's Degree	87	39.4
Education Specialist	16	7.2
Doctorate	118	53.4

In order to become an administrator in the states of Pennsylvania, West Virginia, or Ohio, a person must have a minimum of a master's degree. The survey did not include information related to bachelor's degree only because superintendents must have a minimum of a master's degree. As indicated in Table 7, 39.4% of those responding had a master's degree while 53.4% had earned their doctorate. This percentage is representative of the national average. According to a study conducted by the American Association of School Administrators in 2007 (Glass, 2007b), slightly more than 50 percent of the nation's superintendents have earned a doctoral degree. Table 8 indicates the respondents who are currently working towards another degree:

Table 8. *Working Towards a Degree*

Degree	*f*	%
Yes	18	8.2
No	201	91.8

In this data set, only 8.2% of the respondents are working towards an additional degree. This small percentage represents those current superintendents who are working towards doctoral degrees, with the exception of one respondent who is currently pursuing a master's degree. The next category requested of the respondents was district typology. This information is summarized in Table 9.

Table 9. *District Typology*

District Typology	*f*	%
Rural	122	55.2
Suburban	89	40.3
Urban	10	4.5

The overwhelming majority of the districts represented by the respondents, *n* =221, were from rural areas, *n* = 122, and suburban areas, *n* =89. In contrast, according to the U.S. Department of Education in a survey from the National Center for Education Statistics, 22.7% of schools are classified as urban, 64.3% as suburban, and 13% as rural.

While the results of Table 9 are not indicative of national data, they are slightly more in line with the states represented. The states of Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio have an urban population of 10.2%, 17.8% and 10.7% and a rural population of 23%, 53.9%, and 21%, respectively. West Virginia's rural population and Pennsylvania's urban population are closest to the study participants. The subsequent category requested was district size. Table 10 summarizes the district size for the respondents.

Table 10. *District Size*

School Size	*f*	%
0-499	5	2.3
500-999	37	16.7
1000-1499	34	15.4
1500-1999	25	11.3
2000-2499	29	13.1
2500-2999	29	13.1
3000-3499	15	6.8
3500-3999	8	3.6
4000-4499	13	5.9
4500-4999	8	3.6
5000 or higher	18	8.1

The data in Table 10 revealed that the median district size was 2000-2499.

Next, the respondents were asked to report whether their school districts were making adequate yearly progress (AYP). Their responses were summarized in Table 11:

Table 11. *Adequate Yearly Progress*

AYP	*f*	%
Made AYP	181	81.9
Did not make AYP	40	18.1

The data in Table 11 revealed that 81.9% of the respondents' school districts made adequate yearly progress in 2011. In comparison, an estimated 48% of U.S. public schools failed to make adequate yearly progress (AYP) under the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) in 2011, according to a new report by the Center on Education Policy (Diallo, 2011). Of the 221 districts represented in this survey, Pennsylvania, West Virginia, and Ohio are making AYP more than the national average.

The respondents were asked to provide the number of years they have served as a school superintendent, excluding any years as an interim superintendent. Table 12 summarizes this information.

Table 12. *Years as School Superintendent*

Years	*f*	%
less than one	9	4.1
1	34	15.7
2	30	13.8
3	23	10.6
4	15	6.9
5	23	10.6
6	11	5.1
7	11	5.1
8	19	8.8
9	9	4.1
10	5	2.3
11	4	1.8
12	5	2.3
13	4	1.8
14	3	1.4
15	2	0.9
16	2	0.9
18	2	0.9
20 or more	6	2.8

The data in Table 12 reveal that the median years that the participants had served in their current position is 4 years.

Next, respondents were requested to report their current salary as a superintendent. Table 13 summarizes their report.

Table 13. *Current Salary*

Salary	*f*	%
65,000-74,999	1	0.5
75,000-84,999	3	1.4
85,000-94,999	23	10.4
95,000-104,999	41	18.6
105,000-114,999	29	13.1
115,000-124,999	26	11.8
125,000-134,999	36	16.3
135,000-144,999	24	10.9
145,000-154,999	12	5.4
155,000-164,999	9	4.1
165,000-174,999	11	5
175,000-184,999	2	0.9
185,000 or higher	4	1.8

The median salary range was $115,000-$124,999. In comparison, according to the American Association of School Administrators, the mean average salary for a superintendent with a school enrollment of 300-2,499 was $108,218 and for a school enrollment of 2,500-9,999 was $146,402. The American Association of School Administrators also reported the mean of average salaries by geographic region and for the Mideast it was $156,880 (ERS Report, 2006).

Finally, the respondents were asked two questions in regards to evaluations. The respondents were first requested to report if they have been formally evaluated in their current position. The results of this question are reported in Table 14.

Table 14. *Formal Evaluation*

Formally Evaluated	*f*	%
Yes	175	79.2
No	46	20.8

In this data set, 79.2% of the survey participants had received a formal evaluation. This number is lower than the national average as reported in a study conducted in 2006 by the American Association of School Administrators (Glass, 2007a). In this study, 95% of the nation-wide, randomly selected 1, 338 participants reported receiving a formal evaluation.

The final demographic question of the survey requested the participants to respond if they had ever been given additional compensation or a bonus as a result of their evaluation. Table 15 summarizes the results.

Table 15. *Bonus*

Bonus	*f*	%
Yes	58	26.4
No	155	70.5
Declined to answer	7	3.2

According to the information presented in Table 13, only 26.4% of the respondents received a bonus as a result of their formal evaluations. While some districts are using formal evaluations to determine bonuses, some of the respondents in this survey responded that they were not formally evaluated yet received a bonus. Superintendent positions are contracted positions; therefore, some superintendents could have negotiated a bonus as a part of their contract that was not a part of their formal evaluation.

Preliminary Analysis

A number of preliminary analyses were conducted in an effort to understand where gender differences existed across various items. These analyses included non-parametric Pearson's Chi-Square analysis and an independent samples t-test. Table 16 lists those variables that were found to be significant.

Table 16. *Pearson Chi-Square*

	Value	d*f*	Asymp. Sig. (2-sided)
Marital Status	23.186	3	.000
Did you make AYP?	9.657	1	.002
Hired from within or new to district	5.185	1	.023
Who had input into your eval.	16.559	2	.000

The first variable to be found to be significant was marital status ($p < .001$). A significantly higher percentage of females (16.1%) reported being divorced relative to males (.8%). Only 75.3% of the female respondents were married as compared to 95.9% of the male respondents.

The second variable found to be significant was making adequate yearly progress (AYP) ($p = .002$). A significantly higher percentage of male respondents (88.9%) made AYP as compared to female respondents (72.6%).

A question on the survey asked the respondents to best describe how they obtained their current superintendency: were they hired from within the district or were they new to the district. A significantly higher percentage of female respondents (57.9%) were hired from within their district as compared to male respondents (42.4%).

The final variable analyzed was assessing who had input into the respondents' evaluations. The respondents were given three choices: not evaluated, school board members, school board members and subordinates. Female respondents were much more likely to be evaluated by only school board members (83.7%) as compared to male respondents (62.9%). However, a larger discrepancy occurred between those evaluated by both school board members and subordinates. Both evaluated only 2.2% of female respondents while both evaluated 19.4% of male respondents.

After examining all the Pearson's Chi Square results, independent sample t-tests were used to assess the gender variable on two continuous variables: salary and years in the classroom. These results are presented in Table 17.

Table 17. *T-Tests*

	t	d*f*	Sig. (2-tailed)
Salary Range	2.233	214	.027
Years in classroom	4.291	218	.000

The t-test for salary range displayed a significantly higher category of income for male respondents relative to female respondents. The median salary range for males was $125,000-$134,999 as compared to the median salary range for females which was $115,000-$124,999. This analysis supports the literature that supports gender pay gaps for women.

When salary was further analyzed against school topography, female respondents were found to have lower salaries than male respondents in all three categories: rural, suburban, and urban. However, a greater difference was found in urban areas. These results are reported in Table 18.

Table 18 *School Typology Salary Comparisons*

	rural	suburban	urban
male	$105,000-$114,999	$135,000-$144,999	$135,000-$144,999
female	$95,000-$104,999	$125,000-$134,999	$105,000-$114,999

The final variable found to be significant across genders was the years as a classroom teacher (p =.000). The mean years as a classroom teacher for female respondents were 11.77 while they were 8.67 for male respondents. This analysis supports the literature that women spend more years in the classroom prior to seeking administrative positions.

Assumptions

In considering assumptions for this study, independence must be established. Field (2009) stated, "In some cases it means that data from different participants are independent, which means that the behavior of one participant does not influence the behavior of another" (p. 133). The participants in this study were contacted individually via email and were not made aware of the other participants. Interference was highly unlikely since the survey was delivered electronically and individually.

Second, interval data are assumed for parametric tests. The response choices to rate each of the 47 questions met this assumption as each increment from one selection to the next had equal value on each instrument (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). Additionally,

all of the responses were summed to obtain a score for each construct resulting in interval data for statistical analysis.

The third assumption relates to zero-order correlations. Zero-order correlations demonstrate how the variables are related to the dependent variables. The salary range and career path factors were both found to be significantly correlated to the dependent variable, and less correlated to each other. For this survey, the bonus/evaluation factor was not significantly correlated but was analyzed because of the purpose of this study, which entailed exploring the gender differences in performance evaluations.

The fourth assumption relates to meeting the requirement of at least 20 participants for each independent variable in the model if the intent of the research is to examine the data with the use of a regression model. This assumption was satisfied with a sample size of n =221.

The Hosmer and Lemeshow Test (H-L Statistic) is a test that demonstrates the linearity of the logic for a logistic regression analysis. If the Hosmer and Lemeshow goodness of fit test is greater than .05, the assumption is tenable. This assumption test was conducted in order to assess if a binary logistic regression model would be supported by the data. For the current model, the H-L statistic has a significance of p =.265 which dictates that it is not statistically significant and therefore the model is a good fit.

The final assumptions required the data to be examined for multicollinearity and influential outliers prior to conducting the logistical regression. A check for multicollinearity is indicated when one has independent variables that are too highly correlated to each other. According to the zero-order correlations, this is not a concern.

Additionally, a Z residual test (z =-2.644), indicates that there were no case data outside of three standard deviations; therefore influential outliers were not a concern.

Sequential Binary Logistical Regression

Zero-order correlations were examined between the primary variables in an effort to understand what relationships were at work between these variables. The zero-order correlations are reported in Table 19.

Table 19. *Model 1*

Variables	1	2	3	4
Gender (1)	–	0.167*	0.146*	.002
SalaryRange_r2 (2)	–	–	0.247**	0.259**
Career Path Code (3)	–	–	–	0.176*
Bonus/Evaluation Code (4)	–	–	–	–

Note: *Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).
**Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

Based on the results of the zero-order correlations and the assumptions tests which were found to be tenable, it was determined that a sequential binary logistical regression was the most appropriate analysis for addressing the research questions. A logistical regression determines the impact of multiple independent variables simultaneously to predict membership of one of two dependent variable levels (Cook, Dixon, Duckworth, Kaiser, Koehler, Meeker, & Stephenson, 2000).

Model 1 includes a sample size of n =185 due to non-response of the participants to the evaluation/bonus questions. The variables in the Equation Table (Table 20) have several important elements.

Table 20. *Variables in the equation table*

		B	S.E.	Wald	d*f*	Sig.	Exp(B)
Model 1	Constant	-.272	.148	3.358	1	.067	.762
Model 2	Constant	-.282	.136	4.32	1	.038	.754

As seen in Table 19, the first model demonstrates a marginal fit. This is further revealed in Table 20, where it is demonstrated that the bonus/evaluation factor is contributing nothing to the model (p = .976). This result reflects the earlier zero-correlation analysis.

Model 2 (n =221), however, indicates a good fitting logistical regression model (p = .038) as indicated in Table 20. This model eliminated the bonus/evaluation factor resulting in both salary range (p =. 013) and career path (p =. 030) factors being significant predictors of the dependent variable: gender. Therefore, Model 2 is the working model for the current research.

Table 21. *Model Summary*

Model Summary		
Model	2 Log likelihood	Nagelkerke R Square
2	287.056a	.088

a. Estimations terminated at iteration number 4 because parameter estimates changed by less than .001

As seen in Table 21, the Model Summary indicates a Nagelkerke R Square R^2 = .088. This indicates that a weak but significant relationship of 8.8% exists between the predictors and the dependent variable.

Table 22. *Hosmer and Lemeshow Test*

Hosmer and Lemeshow Test			
Model	Chi-Square	df	Sig
2	12.822	8	0.118

The Hosmer and Lemeshow test is a test of sampling adequacy. The H-L Statistic has a significance of *p* =.118, which is not statistically significant and therefore indicates that the model has a good fit.

The Variables in the Equation Table (Table 20) provide the following statistical model for predicting participant gender from salary range and career path responses.

$$\boldsymbol{p = \frac{\ell\{(-.197\ x\ SalaryRange) + (1.077\ x\ CareerPath) - 1.971\}}{1 + \ell\{(-.197\ x\ SalaryRange) + (1.077\ x\ CareerPath) - 1.971\}}}$$

As indicated above, this weak yet significant model improves the prediction of gender 8.8% above what would be predicted by chance.

Summary

A detailed review of the demographics revealed that 221 superintendents from Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia were represented in this study. A majority of the 221 *(n* =221) survey respondents were 50-59 years old, white/non Latino, married, working in either a rural or suburban school, earning a median salary of $115,000-$124,999, and received a formal evaluation. These data were consistent with data collected and analyzed nationwide for demographic purposes compared to other public school systems (The Wallace Foundation, 2003).

In examining the assumptions for this study, independence between the participants was established. Interval data were assumed for parametric tests as each of the 47 questions on the instrument had equal value. The assumption of meeting the requirement of at least twenty participants for each independent variable in the model was met with a sample size of 221 (n =221).

The assumption of good fit was measured through the Hosmer and Lemeshow Test. The H-L statistic has a significance of p =. 265 that is not statistically significant and therefore the model was a good fit.

The initial zero-order correlations revealed variables significantly related to gender, salary, career path, and bonus/evaluation. As these areas were related to the original hypothesis, the examiner determined a sequential binary logistical regression was the most appropriate analysis. The first model conducted only portrayed a marginal fit with bonus/evaluation not being a contributing factor.

It was necessary to remove the bonus/evaluation factor from the model as it did not support good model fit. By removing this factor, salary and career path became good predictors of the dependent variable gender. This logistical regression model improves the prediction of gender 8.8% above what would be predicted by chance.

Chapter V

Introduction

The current investigation is the first known study to examine compensation, promotion track, and performance evaluation simultaneously in regard to gender. While previous research has been done to some degree in all three areas examining gender differences, no study has linked all three variables into one study.

The first area explored in this study was gender differences in compensation. This study found that there continues to be a gender pay gap between female and male superintendents in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia. The median salary range for a male superintendent was $125,000-$134,999 while a female superintendent's median salary range was $115,000-$124,999. For the research sample there were significant differences across the income ranges for females relative to males, with males displaying a significantly higher category of income. Of the superintendents who reported making $145,000 or more per year, 26 of the 38 were male.

The second focus of this study was to investigate gender differences in the career path of public school superintendents, specifically looking at years in the classroom and previous administrative positions. These findings confirm that there continue to be differences in the career path of women to the superintendency relative to men. This study supports the proposition that men generally take a direct career path to the superintendency through the high school principal position while most females transition through the elementary principal position. Historically, research has shown that the clearest path to the superintendency is through the high school principal position (Bjork et al., 2000; Farmer, 2007).

The male superintendents who responded to this study were significantly more likely to have held high school assistant principal or principal position (n =53) versus an elementary assistant principal or principal position (n =20). Female superintendents had the opposite career path as 28 (n =28) of the respondents went through the elementary assistant principal or principal position and only 17 (n =17) went through the high school assistant principal or principal position.

This study also supported the current research that women have more years of classroom experience before moving into administration (Glass, 2000). The mean years in the classroom for a female was 11.77 while only 8.67 years for a male.

Finally, the third area to be explored was to determine if there were gender differences in the performance evaluations of public school superintendents. This study did not reveal any gender differences in regard to evaluations and bonuses. However, this study did uncover issues related to performance evaluations that could be further examined. These will be discussed in detail later in this chapter.

Discussions

This current study found significant differences in the salaries of female and male superintendents. The female respondents were at least one salary range below their male counterparts, while those female superintendents in urban areas were three salary ranges below the male superintendents. This information should be reviewed with caution as a lower number of respondents was from urban areas; however, it does raise significant concerns.

The gender pay gap has been studied for years. Researchers have tried to determine the causes of the gender pay gap by leveling the education and work

experience components. To further examine possible contributors to the salary discrepancies of this study's respondents, years as a superintendent and educational degrees were taken into account. The median years as a superintendent for the male respondents were four years, while the median years as a superintendent for the female respondents were also four years. For the purposes of this study, length of time in the position did not have an impact on explaining the salary differences. The same was true for educational degrees. There was not a significant difference in regard to the number of doctoral degrees held by males (56.3%) versus females (49.5%).

If years of experience and educational degrees are not impacting the gender pay gap, what factors are causing up to a 6% difference in salaries? Are women willing to accept a lower salary for the same position? Studies conducted by both Callahan-Levy and Messe (1979), and Berkowitz and Walster (1976) found that women might be more susceptible to influences that would adversely affect their judgment about what is appropriate pay for them. They may feel that they will not be paid the same salaries as their male counterparts.

The position of superintendent in the states of Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia is a contracted position. This position is not part of a collective bargaining group; therefore, the salaries are negotiated between the superintendent and the school board. What impact does negotiation have on these salaries? Are women not as proficient at negotiating and, therefore, less likely to receive a higher salary?

A recent study conducted by LinkedIn, the world's largest professional network with over 175 million members, found that of the 2,500 people queried, only 26% of women felt comfortable negotiating as compared to 40% of the men (Casserly, 2012).

Women reported that their relationship with their managers was more important than their own agenda of getting a raise.

In a study conducted by Christie et al. (2007), 66% of women reported that they felt that their salary was competitive and based on their years of experience; however, 33% felt that their salary was not based on their expertise nor was it competitive with male superintendents in the area. While the majority of the responses indicated the gender pay gap is closing, they also indicated that this has been a direct result of preparation, negotiation, and perseverance on the part of women.

If women are self-imposing a barrier that prolongs the gender pay gap, how does society assist with changing this dilemma? Should the art of negotiating be taught in superintendent preparation classes? Should the pay scales for superintendents be a part of a school district's collective bargaining agreements so that regardless of their gender, they would receive the same pay?

According to Glass (2000), of the nation's 13, 278 superintendents, 1,984 today are women. Yet, 72% of all K-12 educators in this country are women. Why are so few women heading our public school systems? Besides the disparity in pay, are women not positioning themselves to hold this top leadership position? Research has supported that the top position leading to the superintendency is the high school principal position (Bjork et al., 2000; Farmer, 2007). The women in this study had more experience at the elementary level versus the high school level. Only 17% of the female respondents had their first administrative experience at the secondary level as compared to 42% of the male respondents.

Glass (2000) reported that 75% of the elementary classroom teachers are women, yet, nearly 75% of superintendents did not teach at the elementary level prior to moving into administration. Since the majority of women are at the elementary level, they do not have the same access to the administrative pipeline as do the males that work at the high school level.

Nearly all the superintendents in Glass's (2000) study had previously worked as a building principal or assistant principal. Therefore the ladder to the superintendent's position often begins as an assistant principal. Most elementary schools do not have assistant principal positions; so women are at an initial disadvantage moving from the classroom into administration.

A sizable majority of the superintendents in Glass's (2000) study had reported experience as a coach. Few elementary teachers have the opportunity to coach due to conflicting time schedules between elementary and high school. Classroom teachers at the secondary level are afforded more opportunities for advancement than elementary teachers are by being given the opportunity to showcase leadership skills as a department chair or athletic coach.

This study supports the current research in regard to compensation and career path gender differences. By identifying a respondent's salary and career path code, the model was able to identify the respondent's gender with an 8.8% increase above chance. In other words, the model was able to predict with 58.8% accuracy one's gender based on those two variables.

It is disheartening to believe that the data continue to indicate that women are still at a disadvantage despite their levels of education, years in the field, and the sheer number of open positions.

Implications for Educational Leaders

The continued differences in salary for female superintendents regardless of their educational degrees and years of service is an ongoing issue for women going into this top leadership position and for school boards.

The reported pending shortage of qualified candidates in filling the top leadership position in public school districts is going to be an issue for many school boards. While men have historically held this top position, there are increasing numbers of women entering the superintendency. However, school boards need to examine their practices of negotiating salaries in order to level the playing field. School districts need to be vigilant in providing equal pay to candidates of equal ability.

In today's society of accountability for school districts, fewer people are going into educational administration. Many do not feel that the amount of work is worth the amount of pay. Women are especially disadvantaged if they are earning a lower salary for the same amount of work. If school boards want to attract and retain strong female candidates, they must be willing to offer the same benefits they offer to men.

In line with offering competitive salaries, school boards need to make sure that they are providing ample opportunities for women to enter the administrative pipeline. The continued existence of the "good ol' boys' network" is not going to benefit today's public schools. School boards need to be hiring candidates for the superintendency who can manage the paradigm shift of extremely high accountability standards in education.

This study points to two particular areas that need to be addressed to help facilitate a pipeline for women to the superintendency: years in the classroom and hiring from within the school district.

The mean years in the classroom for the female respondents for this study were 11.77 years, which was 3.1 more years than the male respondents. This is comparable to national studies that show that women administrators typically spend 7 to 10 years as a teacher, while men spend about 5 to 6 years in the classroom (Glass, 2000). The 2000 AASA study reported that 21.1% of female superintendents had obtained their first administrative position before the age of 30 as compared to 53% of their male counterparts (Glass et al., 2000).

Are women choosing to stay in the classroom longer or are they having difficulty with entering the administrative ranks? The results of this study do not support difficulty in finding an initial administrative position. The median years it took a female to find her first administrative position after being certified was one year, which was the same as for males. It does not appear that once these female respondents were fully certified there were obstacles that delayed employment into their first administrative position.

As with the gender pay gap, if women are choosing to enter the administrative pipeline at a later date, is this really an issue for women? Is the gender pay gap skewed correctly because women are entering this top leadership position at a later age in life?

Or, can the educational gender pay gap be attributed to the simple fact that women are paid less than men for comparable work across all areas of employment? According to Coy and Dowoskin (2012), in the first three months of 2012, women still only made 82.2% of what men earned when comparing the usual median weekly earnings

of full-time employees. In 2010, women earned 77% of what men earned, which shows a significant decline in the gender pay gap. However, it still exists in every employment arena.

How does the gender pay gap fare specifically in the states of Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia? According to the American Community Survey (2012) developed by the United States Census Bureau, women earned 77% of what men earned in the states of Pennsylvania and Ohio. However, the rate was even lower in the state of West Virginia at 70% (AAUW, 2012).

While researchers have tried to explain the reasons for the gender gap, such as taking time off for child bearing, or career ladder choices, not all of the gap could be "explained away." After accounting for college major, occupation, industry, sector, hours worked, workplace flexibility, experience, educational attainment, enrollment status, GPA, institution selectivity, age, race/ethnicity, region, marital status, and number of children, a 5 % difference in the earnings of male and female college graduates one year after graduation was still unexplained (AAUW, 2012). Simply put, women continue to be paid less than men for comparable work.

This study highlights interesting information in regard to females being hired from within their own school districts versus being hired outside of their school district. In the 2000 American Association of School Administrators (AASA) study, superintendents were not usually hired from within and they had three superintendencies during their career of some 15 to 17 years as the school district CEO.

The results of this study highlight a significant difference between the number of female superintendents who were hired from within (57.9%) versus male superintendents

(42.4%). If national studies report superintendents are being hired outside of their districts, how does this work for women candidates searching for a superintendent position?

One explanation could be that school boards are less likely to hire a woman as an unknown rather than a man. Most school boards are still composed of a majority of men and, as with the Leader Member Exchange Theory, they may be more willing to look favorably upon candidates of their same characteristics (Graen, 1976; Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Scandura, 1987).

Along these same lines, the position of superintendent has been historically linked to being male dominated. Madeline Heilman's (1995) Lack of Fit Model could have an impact on male school board members' willingness to take a "risk" by hiring an unknown woman for a traditionally male held position. Are school boards concerned that the stereotypical characteristics of a woman will not meet the needs of the demanding school superintendent position? Again, the 2000 AASA study reports that 82% of the women superintendents surveyed indicated that school board members do not see them as strong managers, and 76% felt that school board members did not view them as capable of handling district finances.

If school board members do not believe that women can handle district finances as well as their male counterparts, the nation could see a negative shift in the number of female superintendents in the coming years because of the current economic status of schools. School districts are in economic trouble and require superintendents who can creatively address the financial issues of the school district.

It is interesting to note that more women are hired from within their own district. Does this support the premise that women must prove themselves more than men to be promoted? Or, does less stereotyping occur with women because school board members have had increased exposure to them resulting in the women being a known entity and no longer a risk (Elsesser & Lever, 2011)?

The findings of the current investigation support the continued concerns with compensation and career path for female superintendents. However, the performance evaluation and bonus factor remain an unknown. There were no significant findings when comparing the gender of superintendents in regard to being formally evaluated or receiving a bonus. The results of this study indicate that 80.4% of females and 78.2% of males were formally evaluated. As for a bonus, 28.7% of the females earned a bonus as compared to 25.4% of the males. Again, no significant differences were found.

One area of this study that did reveal an interesting fact was who had input into the formal evaluation of the superintendents. The respondents were asked to indicate if school board members only, or school board members and subordinates, had input into their evaluation. A significant result was uncovered. For the female respondents, 83.7% were evaluated by school board members only, but only 62.9% of male respondents were evaluated solely by the school board. The male respondents had a significantly higher percentage, 19.4% versus 2.2% of formal evaluations conducted by both school board members and subordinates.

Is this factor related to the "good 'ol boy network" of a predominately male school board wanting control of a female superintendent's evaluation? Is this one more method of discrimination since those whom they actually lead are not evaluating female

superintendents? Or, could these results be attributed to the policies of the school districts where the female respondents are working?

This study has provided additional information to support existing research in the areas of compensation and promotion track for female superintendents. It has also highlighted interesting information in regard to evaluation and bonus, which are fairly new components to the role of the superintendent.

Recommendations for Future Research

While this study has provided insight into the gender differences in compensation, promotion track, and performance evaluations for school superintendents, it also highlighted areas in need of future research.

While the gender pay gap has been decreasing over the years, it still exists. Further research needs to be conducted to determine the root of the gender pay gap for superintendents. In the states of Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia, public school teachers are typically part of a collective bargaining agreement; teachers with the same years of experience are paid the same salary regardless of their gender. As a result, the number of years in the classroom does not contribute to the gender pay gap. Does the initial administrative position dictate an administrator's future pay? If it does, do school districts provide lower salaries for elementary administrators versus secondary administrators, and does this begin the gender pay gap? A longitudinal study to examine women's versus men's pay timelines would be beneficial to determine where the gender pay gap begins. If the root of the problem is at the initial stages of an administrator's career, women could be educated on ways to negotiate a better salary with their first administrative position.

Along with determining the root of the gender pay gap, another area in need of research is how school typology plays a role in determining the salaries of superintendents. This study indicated that women were at least one salary range behind their male counterparts in rural and suburban areas, but, they were up to three salary ranges below in urban areas. As stated before, these results need to be considered with caution as there were a low number of urban school respondents.

Since urban schools typically have larger numbers of students per district, are women not being offered these positions because of the belief that women do not have the financial or managerial background to handle a larger district? This study showed no significant results in regard to gender differences in school size. Overall, the distribution of female and male superintendents was equal except in those schools with over 5,000 students which had a higher rate of male superintendents (11.9%) versus female superintendents (3.2%).

If women are being passed over in large urban districts for their perceived lack of ability to manage, school board members need to consider that many rural districts place more demands on a superintendent, as superintendents must perform the duties of multiple people because of small budgets. Many rural districts have only one or two people in the central office to complete the duties of curriculum, special education, transportation, finances, and human resources. Large districts have budgets that allow them to hire more people to fill these positions.

Numerous studies have been conducted to determine the career path to the superintendency (Bjork et al., 2000; Farmer, 2007). The fastest route to the superintendency is through the high school principal position. More women are

obtaining secondary principal positions; however, the years to the superintendency do not appear to be diminishing for women who take this route. Further research needs to be conducted into the career path of women superintendents and the impact of not only their initial administrative positions, but also their years in central office positions prior to obtaining the superintendency. Research shows that more women hold positions such as Director of Curriculum or Special Education. How do these positions impact their path to the superintendency? Do they slow the progress or are they necessary hurdles for future superintendents? The respondents to this study indicated that females were more likely to hold a Director of Curriculum or Special Education position. Six of the eight (75%) Directors of Curriculum and seven of the nine (78%) Directors of Special Education were female.

One other area of research in regard to promotion track would be the interim superintendent's position. In higher education, more women serve as interim deans than their male counterparts (Richardson & King, 1991). In this study, there was not a significant difference in regards to females (28.4%) versus males (21.4%) in holding an interim position. However, only 24.4% of the total respondents (n =54) have served as an interim superintendent; therefore, this sample is too low to make any generalizations. More research is needed with a larger sample.

Of the three research questions analyzed in this study, the performance evaluation/bonus question was the largest unknown and the area most in need of further research. Many of the respondents for this study did not answer the bonus/evaluation questions. While research has shown that women are consistently rated lower than their

male counterparts for the same workplace performance, this study was unable to determine these same results.

The Pennsylvania Department of Education (PDE) is currently field-testing a new teacher evaluation system. As a part of the new evaluation process, a percentage of the teacher's rating will be based on either their individual class's or their school's AYP results. PDE is also in the process of creating a new administrative performance evaluation system, which will include a component for AYP status. Future research will need to be conducted in this area to determine how AYP status is impacting the performance evaluations of superintendents and what (if any) impact it is having on bonuses. One of the interesting components of this study was that some superintendents received bonuses regardless of making AYP or not.

The final area recommended for future research is taking this particular study and conducting it in various geographic regions. Pennsylvania and Ohio are very conservative states in regard to education. They are states that are dominated by strong teacher unions and it would be interesting to determine if similar results would be found in other geographic areas. Would more progressive areas have less of a gender pay gap? Some states have formal observation systems in place for superintendents; would that assist with examining gender differences in performance evaluations since it is a formalized process for all superintendents?

Summary

While the picture is brightening for females desiring to go into the superintendency, there are still concerns that need to be addressed. More women are

obtaining the top school district position; however, the compensation and promotion track continue to provide obstacles. The majority of female superintendents are still being paid less money than their male counterparts in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia . While the gender pay gap appears to be getting smaller, it is still present.

The career path to the superintendency has not changed much in the past years. The high school principal position still appears to be the most direct route. While more women are obtaining this position, they are still underrepresented as compared to the number of female teachers at the secondary level. Further research needs to be conducted to determine exactly where the gender pay gap begins and how to improve the access to the administrative pipeline for women.

The area in need of the most additional research is the evaluation and bonus components. Performance evaluation is a relevant topic in educational administration. In the past, superintendents were not formally evaluated, and raises were based on negotiated contracts. Many states are creating formalized processes for evaluations of all administrators. In the coming years, the factors of Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) and high stakes testing will likely be used as an indication of a successful administrator. Educational researchers need to continue to explore this area to determine if more women or men are making AYP and how this plays a role in their evaluation or bonus.

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Appendix A

Youngstown
STATE UNIVERSITY

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December 14, 2011

Dr. Karen Larwin, Principal Investigator
Ms. Michele Dowell, Co-investigator
Department of Educational Foundations, Research, Technology & Leadership
UNIVERSITY

RE: HSRC Protocol Number: 070-2012
Title: Gender Differences in Compensation, Promotion, and Job Expectations for Public School Superintendents

Dear Dr. Larwin and Ms. Dowell:

The Institutional Review Board has reviewed the abovementioned protocol and determined that it is exempt from full committee review based on a DHHS Category 2 exemption with the condition that the Investigator ensure that no participant can be identified based on any demographic variable.

Any changes in your research activity should be promptly reported to the Institutional Review Board and may not be initiated without IRB approval except where necessary to eliminate hazard to human subjects. Any unanticipated problems involving risks to subjects should also be promptly reported to the IRB.

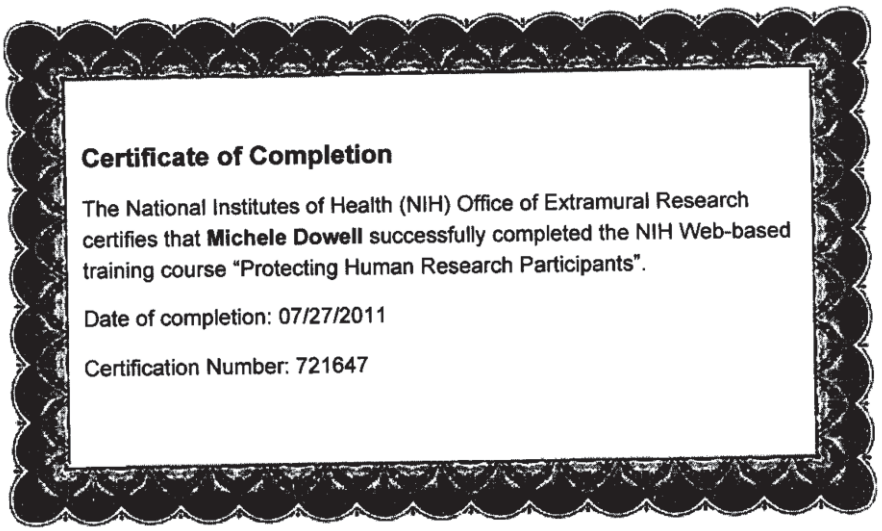
The IRB would like to extend its best wishes to you in the conduct of this study.

Sincerely,

Peter J. Kasvinsky
Dean, School of Graduate Studies and Research
Research Compliance Officer

PJK/cc

c: Dr. Richard McEwing, Chair
Department of Educational Foundations, Research, Technology & Leadership



Certificate of Completion

The National Institutes of Health (NIH) Office of Extramural Research certifies that **Michele Dowell** successfully completed the NIH Web-based training course "Protecting Human Research Participants".

Date of completion: 07/27/2011

Certification Number: 721647

Superintendent Survey

SurveyMonkey

1. What is your gender?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Female	43.0%	95
Male	57.0%	126
answered question		221
skipped question		7

2. What is your ethnic background?

	Response Percent	Response Count
American Indian/Alaskan Native	0.5%	1
Black/Non-Latino	1.8%	4
Asian/Pacific Islander	0.0%	0
Latino	0.5%	1
White/Non-Latino	96.8%	214
Choose not to answer	0.5%	1
answered question		221
skipped question		7

3. What is your age?

	Response Percent	Response Count
20-29	0.0%	0
30-39	5.0%	11
40-49	29.0%	64
50-59	47.1%	104
60-69	18.1%	40
70-79	0.5%	1
Choose not to answer	0.5%	1
	answered question	221
	skipped question	7

4. What is your marital status?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Married	85.5%	188
Single	4.5%	10
Divorced	7.3%	16
Widowed	0.9%	2
Choose not to answer	1.8%	4
	answered question	220
	skipped question	8

5. What is the highest earned degree you hold?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Master's Degree	39.4%	87
Education Specialist	7.2%	16
Doctorate	53.4%	118
Other		15
answered question		221
skipped question		7

6. Which of the following was your major field of study in your highest graduate degree?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Education Administration	91.8%	190
Curriculum and Instruction	3.4%	7
Elementary Education	1.4%	3
Middle Childhood Education	0.0%	0
Secondary Education	1.9%	4
Humanities or Fine Arts	0.5%	1
Science or Engineering	0.0%	0
Mathematics	0.0%	0
Business	1.0%	2
Other (please specify)		18
answered question		207
skipped question		21

7. Are you currently working toward an academic degree?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Yes	8.2%	18
No-Go to question 9	91.8%	201
answered question		219
skipped question		9

8. Please indicate the academic degree you are currently working toward.

	Response Percent	Response Count
Master's Degree	10.5%	2
Education Specialist	0.0%	0
Doctorate	89.5%	17
Other (please specify)		1
answered question		19
skipped question		209

9. How many years were you a classroom teacher? (Do Not count your years as an administrator.)

	Response Count
	221
answered question	221
skipped question	7

10. Other than as a superintendent, how many years were you in administrative/supervisory positions? Do Not count years as a superintendent.)

	Response Count
	221
answered question	221
skipped question	7

11. How is your current position classified?

		Response Percent	Response Count
Rural School District Superintendent		55.2%	122
Suburban School District Superintendent		40.3%	89
Urban School District Superintendent		4.5%	10
	answered question		221
	skipped question		7

12. How many students were enrolled in your district as of December 2011?

	Response Percent	Response Count
0-499	2.3%	5
500-999	16.7%	37
1000-1499	15.4%	34
1500-1999	11.3%	25
2000-2499	13.1%	29
2500-2999	13.1%	29
3000-3499	6.8%	15
3500-3999	3.6%	8
4000-4499	5.9%	13
4500-4999	3.6%	8
5000 or higher	8.1%	18
	answered question	221
	skipped question	7

13. Did your school district make Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP) for the 2010-2011 school year?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Made AYP	81.9%	181
Did not make AYP	18.1%	40
	answered question	221
	skipped question	7

14. What group/individuals managed the search process for your current superintendency? (Please check all that apply.)

	Response Percent	Response Count
Professional search team	16.8%	32
State school board association	17.8%	34
Local school board members	**69.1%**	**132**
Team of local administrators and teachers	8.9%	17
Other (please specify)		34
answered question		**191**
skipped question		**37**

15. During the search and selection processes, school leadership was actively involved with... (Please check all that apply.)

	Response Percent	Response Count
Identifying criteria for selection	43.8%	92
Screening applications and credentials	38.6%	81
Contacting/checking references	32.9%	69
Interviewing	**57.1%**	**120**
Selecting participants of staff/community groups	21.0%	44
Uncertain	35.7%	75
answered question		**210**
skipped question		**18**

16. Regarding item 16, what school leadership was involved in the search and selection process?

	Response Count
	164
answered question	164
skipped question	64

17. Which of the following best describes how you obtained your current superintendency position?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Hired from within the district	49.1%	108
New to the district	50.9%	112
answered question		220
skipped question		8

18. How have other high level positions within your district been typically hired?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Hired from within the district	35.5%	77
New to the district	58.1%	126
Not sure	6.5%	14
answered question		217
skipped question		11

19. What would you change about the hiring practices within your school district?

	Response Count
	166
answered question	166
skipped question	62

20. What do you believe is the most important reason you were employed by your present board of education? Please rank your responses on a scale of 1=Least Important and 6=Most Important. Select each rank only one time. You may also respond "Does not apply".

	1	2	3	4	5	6	Does not apply	Response Count
Personal Characteristics (honesty, tact, etc.)	2.7% (6)	2.3% (5)	1.8% (4)	6.3% (14)	22.2% (49)	**64.3% (142)**	0.5% (1)	221
Potential for change agent	2.3% (5)	4.1% (9)	10.5% (23)	16.4% (36)	32.7% (72)	**33.2% (73)**	0.9% (2)	220
Ability to maintain the status quo	**33.3% (73)**	16.9% (37)	18.7% (41)	14.6% (32)	5.9% (13)	6.4% (14)	4.1% (9)	219
Ability to be an instructional leader	2.3% (5)	2.7% (6)	2.7% (6)	13.2% (29)	31.4% (69)	**47.3% (104)**	0.5% (1)	220
Racial/ethnic group(s) I represent	**53.2% (117)**	9.5% (21)	5.0% (11)	1.8% (4)	1.4% (3)	1.4% (3)	27.7% (61)	220
Gender group I represent	**55.0% (120)**	8.3% (18)	7.3% (16)	2.8% (6)	0.9% (2)	1.4% (3)	24.3% (53)	218
							answered question	221
							skipped question	7

21. Which of the following educational experiences best describe your career path to the superintendency?

		Response Percent	Response Count
Teacher>Elementary Principal>Central Office> Assistant/Associate Superintendent		9.5%	18
Teacher>Elementary Principal> Central Office		7.9%	15
Teacher>Elementary Principal>Assistant/Associate Superintendent		3.2%	6
Teacher>Assistant Principal>Elementary Principal>Central Office> Assistant/Associate Superintendent		4.2%	8
Teacher>Assistant Principal>Elementary Principal> Central Office		4.2%	8
Teacher>Assistant Principal>Elementary Principal>Assistant/Associate Superintendent		3.7%	7
Teacher>Secondary Principal>Central Office> Assistant/Associate Superintendent		4.7%	9
Teacher>Secondary Principal> Central Office		4.7%	9
Teacher>Secondary Principal>Assistant/Associate Superintendent		4.7%	9
Teacher>Assistant Principal>Secondary Principal>Central Office> Assistant/Associate Superintendent		11.6%	22
Teacher>Assistant Principal>Secondary Principal> Central Office		6.8%	13

Teacher>Assistant Principal>Secondary Principal>Assistant/Associate Superintendent	**13.2%**	**25**
Teacher>Elementary Principal	2.6%	5
Teacher>Assistant Principal>Elementary Principal	0.5%	1
Teacher>Secondary Principal	3.7%	7
Teacher>Assistant Principal>Secondary Principal	7.4%	14
Principal only	1.6%	3
Central Office only	3.7%	7
Assistant/Associate Superintendent only	2.1%	4
	Other (please specify)	51

answered question	**190**
skipped question	**38**

22. In which of the following positions have you had ONE full year or more of experience? Plea that apply. Check under the number of years you held that position.

	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	1
Elementary teacher	**28.2%** **(37)**	4.6% (6)	7.6% (10)	4.6% (6)	6.1% (8)	8.4% (11)	5.3% (7)	7.6% (10)	2.3% (3)	5.3% (7)	19 (2
Middle school/junior high teacher	**17.8%** **(26)**	11.6% (17)	11.6% (17)	7.5% (11)	6.8% (10)	8.9% (13)	9.6% (14)	4.8% (7)	2.7% (4)	4.1% (6)	14 (2
High school teacher	**25.0%** **(39)**	6.4% (10)	5.1% (8)	3.8% (6)	6.4% (10)	12.2% (19)	6.4% (10)	4.5% (7)	2.6% (4)	2.6% (4)	**25** (3
Counselor	**84.7%** **(72)**	2.4% (2)	4.7% (4)	2.4% (2)	1.2% (1)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	1.2% (1)	1.2% (1)	0.0% (0)	2. (
Elementary assistant principal	**69.6%** **(64)**	9.8% (9)	5.4% (5)	7.6% (7)	3.3% (3)	1.1% (1)	1.1% (1)	1.1% (1)	1.1% (1)	0.0% (0)	0. (
Elementary principal	**32.2%** **(37)**	7.8% (9)	7.8% (9)	6.1% (7)	7.0% (8)	11.3% (13)	5.2% (6)	2.6% (3)	5.2% (6)	3.5% (4)	11 ('
Middle school/junior high assistant principal	**49.6%** **(57)**	11.3% (13)	13.0% (15)	14.8% (17)	3.5% (4)	2.6% (3)	3.5% (4)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	0.9% (1)	0. (
Middle school/junior high principal	**45.1%** **(51)**	7.1% (8)	5.3% (6)	13.3% (15)	4.4% (5)	6.2% (7)	2.7% (3)	2.7% (3)	1.8% (2)	1.8% (2)	9. ('
High school assistant principal	**42.7%** **(53)**	8.1% (10)	13.7% (17)	12.9% (16)	4.0% (5)	8.9% (11)	4.8% (6)	4.0% (5)	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	0. (
High school principal	**33.8%** **(48)**	5.6% (8)	9.2% (13)	8.5% (12)	4.2% (6)	6.3% (9)	5.6% (8)	4.2% (6)	4.9% (7)	4.9% (7)	12 ('
Curriculum coordinator	**49.5%** **(52)**	7.6% (8)	5.7% (6)	11.4% (12)	7.6% (8)	7.6% (8)	3.8% (4)	1.9% (2)	1.0% (1)	0.0% (0)	3. (
Supervisor or consultant	**61.6%** **(53)**	4.7% (4)	5.8% (5)	8.1% (7)	2.3% (2)	1.2% (1)	2.3% (2)	3.5% (3)	3.5% (3)	0.0% (0)	7. (
College or university professor	**61.4%** **(54)**	11.4% (10)	9.1% (8)	3.4% (3)	1.1% (1)	1.1% (1)	4.5% (4)	3.4% (3)	1.1% (1)	1.1% (1)	2. (
Associate/assistant superintendent	**25.8%** **(40)**	12.9% (20)	11.6% (18)	15.5% (24)	10.3% (16)	11.6% (18)	1.3% (2)	3.9% (6)	3.9% (6)	0.0% (0)	3. (
Director/supervisor of special education	**70.0%** **(63)**	2.2% (2)	2.2% (2)	4.4% (4)	1.1% (1)	7.8% (7)	1.1% (1)	2.2% (2)	2.2% (2)	0.0% (0)	6. (

answered quest	
skipped quest	

23. How long did it take you to obtain your first administrative/supervisory position once you were certified/licensed and actively sought such a role?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Less than one year	57.9%	128
1 year	14.9%	33
2 years	7.7%	17
3 years	5.4%	12
4 years	2.7%	6
5+ years	4.5%	10
I did not seek the position and was appointed	6.8%	15
answered question		221
skipped question		7

24. What was the nature of your first administrative/supervisory position?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Elementary Principal	11.8%	26
Elementary Assistant Principal	10.0%	22
Middle School/Junior High Principal	3.2%	7
Middle School/Junior High Assistant Principal	20.4%	45
High School Principal	5.4%	12
High School Assistant Principal	**26.2%**	**58**
District Office (other than Associate/Assistant Superintendent)	2.3%	5
Associate/Assistant Superintendent	1.4%	3
Curriculum Coordinator	3.6%	8
Director/Supervisor of Special Education	4.1%	9
Other (please specify)	11.8%	26
	answered question	**221**
	skipped question	**7**

25. Have you ever held the position of Interim Superintendent?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Yes	24.4%	54
No	75.6%	167
	answered question	**221**
	skipped question	**7**

26. If yes to #25, how many years did you serve as an interim superintendent?

	Response Count
	58
answered question	58
skipped question	170

27. Counting this year, how many years have you been a school superintendent? (exclude any years that you served as an interim superintendent)

	Response Count
	220
answered question	220
skipped question	8

28. How many school superintendencies have you held?

	Response Count
	219
answered question	219
skipped question	9

29. Have you spent your entire career in one school district?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Yes	10.9%	24
No	89.1%	197
answered question		221
skipped question		7

30. How long did it take you to obtain your first superintendency once you were certified/licensed and actively sought such a position?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Less than 1 year	43.2%	95
1 year	13.6%	30
2 years	11.8%	26
3 years	7.3%	16
4 years	1.4%	3
5+ years	14.1%	31
I did not seek the position and was appointed	8.6%	19
answered question		220
skipped question		8

31. Please provide comments regarding the time it took for you to obtain your first superintendency.

	Response Count
	130
answered question	130
skipped question	98

32. In your opinion, which of the following is your Board's primary expectation of you as a superintendent? Please check all that apply.

	Response Percent	Response Count
Educational leader	87.7%	193
Managerial leader	59.1%	130
Community leader	59.1%	130
Political leader	25.0%	55
Leader of school reform initiative	41.4%	91
Public relations leader/organizer	57.7%	127
Moral leaders	40.5%	89
Other (please specify)	9.5%	21
answered question		220
skipped question		8

33. Regarding the superintendent you replaced, what was their gender?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Female	17.6%	39
Male	82.4%	182
answered question		221
skipped question		7

34. Regarding the superintendent you replaced, how long had they held the position?

	Response Count
	216
answered question	216
skipped question	12

35. What is your current salary as a superintendent?

	Response Percent	Response Count
$55,000-$64,999	0.0%	0
$65,000-$74,999	0.5%	1
$75,000-$84,999	1.4%	3
$85,000-$94,999	10.4%	23
$95,000-$104,999	**18.6%**	**41**
$105,000-$114,999	13.1%	29
$115,000-$124,999	11.8%	26
$125,000-$134,999	16.3%	36
$135,000-$144,999	10.9%	24
$145,000-$154,999	5.4%	12
$155,000-$164,999	4.1%	9
$165,000-$174,999	5.0%	11
$175,000-$184,999	0.9%	2
$185,000 or higher	1.8%	4
	answered question	**221**
	skipped question	**7**

36. Please provide comments/opinions regarding compensation in your current position.

	Response Count
	112
answered question	**112**
skipped question	**116**

37. What was the salary of your last administrative position prior to the superintendency?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Lower than current salary	87.6%	191
Same as current salary	2.3%	5
Higher than current salary	10.1%	22
answered question		218
skipped question		10

38. How strongly do you agree that you were selected by the Board of Education to be the superintendent of your district because the Board of Education believed the following characteristics applied to you?

	Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Mildly Agree	Agree	Response Count
Assertive	1.4% (3)	6.0% (13)	42.2% (92)	**50.5% (110)**	218
Career Oriented	9.7% (21)	15.2% (33)	**37.8% (82)**	37.3% (81)	217
Competent	0.0% (0)	0.0% (0)	5.5% (12)	**94.5% (207)**	219
Competitive	4.6% (10)	14.8% (32)	39.4% (85)	**41.2% (89)**	216
Concerned about personal relationships	4.6% (10)	8.3% (18)	28.0% (61)	**59.2% (129)**	218
Confident	0.5% (1)	1.4% (3)	16.9% (37)	**81.3% (178)**	219
Cooperative	0.0% (0)	0.5% (1)	18.3% (40)	**81.3% (178)**	219
Decisive	0.0% (0)	3.2% (7)	22.4% (49)	**74.4% (163)**	219
Fair, firm, and consistent	0.0% (0)	2.3% (5)	14.7% (32)	**83.0% (181)**	218
Family oriented	3.7% (8)	14.2% (31)	36.1% (79)	**46.1% (101)**	219
Flexible	0.0% (0)	5.9% (13)	43.8% (96)	**50.2% (110)**	219
Goal/task oriented	0.9% (2)	1.8% (4)	25.6% (56)	**71.7% (157)**	219
Intelligent	0.9% (2)	1.4% (3)	24.7% (54)	**73.1% (160)**	219
Motivated by power	**63.8% (139)**	28.4% (62)	5.5% (12)	2.3% (5)	218
Nurturing/supportive/approachable	0.0% (0)	9.7% (21)	35.9% (78)	**54.4% (118)**	217
Politically aware	4.1% (9)	20.7% (45)	**52.5% (114)**	22.6% (49)	217
Proactive	0.0% (0)	1.8% (4)	32.4% (71)	**65.8% (144)**	219
Problem solver	0.0% (0)	0.5% (1)	20.3% (44)	**79.3% (172)**	217
Resilient	0.9% (2)	4.1% (9)	31.8% (69)	**63.1% (137)**	217
Risk taker	6.5% (14)	19.4% (42)	**50.2% (109)**	24.0% (52)	217
				answered question	**219**

skipped question	9

39. Please provide comments/opinions regarding characteristics of superintendents.

	Response Count
	67
answered question	67
skipped question	161

40. How strongly do you agree that you were selected by the Board of Education to be the superintendent of your district because the Board of Education perceived that you demonstrated and possessed the following knowledge, skills and abilities?

	Disagree	Mildly Disagree	Mildly Agree	Agree	Response Count
Create a vision for the district	0.0% (0)	1.8% (4)	25.3% (56)	**72.9% (161)**	221
Strategic/long range planner	0.0% (0)	3.7% (8)	36.5% (80)	**59.8% (131)**	219
Model core values of the organization	0.0% (0)	3.2% (7)	24.1% (53)	**72.7% (160)**	220
Data driven decision making to improve student achievement	0.9% (2)	7.2% (16)	39.8% (88)	**52.0% (115)**	221
Ability to bring about change	0.0% (0)	6.8% (15)	35.7% (79)	**57.5% (127)**	221
Human relations skills/interactions	0.0% (0)	1.8% (4)	18.6% (41)	**79.5% (175)**	220
Knowledgeable in budgeting and finance	1.4% (3)	12.7% (28)	**45.7% (101)**	40.3% (89)	221
Positive public image	0.0% (0)	1.8% (4)	23.1% (51)	**75.1% (166)**	221
Ability to motivate others	0.0% (0)	1.8% (4)	26.2% (58)	**71.9% (159)**	221
Ability to in control of emotions	1.4% (3)	14.5% (32)	**43.9% (97)**	40.3% (89)	221
Involve other in decision making	0.9% (2)	3.7% (8)	37.6% (82)	**57.8% (126)**	218
Knowledge of facilities, maintenance, and operations	3.2% (7)	20.0% (44)	**41.4% (91)**	35.5% (78)	220
Knowledge about curriculum and instruction	0.0% (0)	3.2% (7)	33.5% (74)	**63.3% (140)**	221
Collective bargaining	3.2% (7)	19.1% (42)	**46.8% (103)**	30.9% (68)	220
Knowledgeable in legal/personnel issues	1.4% (3)	11.8% (26)	**45.9% (101)**	40.9% (90)	220
Knowledgeable of innovative educational practices	0.5% (1)	2.7% (6)	39.4% (87)	**57.5% (127)**	221
Effective school board relations	0.5% (1)	5.5% (12)	40.5% (89)	**53.6% (118)**	220
Knowledgeable of assessment/testing practices	0.9% (2)	11.3% (25)	**47.5% (105)**	40.3% (89)	221

Effective in promoting parent involvement	0.5% (1)	11.4% (25)	**49.8% (109)**	38.4% (84)	219
Knowledgeable of state and federal programs	1.4% (3)	14.2% (31)	**49.1% (107)**	35.3% (77)	218
				answered question	**221**
				skipped question	**7**

41. Please provide comments/opinions regarding characteristics of superintendents.

	Response Count
	39
answered question	**39**
skipped question	**189**

42. To what extent have you experienced the following barriers during your career as a school leader?

	Never	Hardly Ever	Sometimes	Frequently	Response Count
Personal anxieties about effect of career on family	12.3% (27)	18.7% (41)	**58.0% (127)**	11.0% (24)	219
Personal level of assertiveness	23.6% (52)	**38.6% (85)**	35.9% (79)	1.8% (4)	220
Personal level of motivation	**49.1% (108)**	34.5% (76)	14.1% (31)	2.3% (5)	220
Discrimination based on personal appearance	**70.5% (155)**	18.2% (40)	10.5% (23)	0.9% (2)	220
Lack of professional network and/or mentoring	**52.3% (115)**	35.5% (78)	10.9% (24)	1.4% (3)	220
Lack of family support	**73.1% (160)**	19.6% (43)	6.8% (15)	0.5% (1)	219
Hiring and promotional practices of board members/search consultants	**42.5% (93)**	32.9% (72)	19.6% (43)	5.0% (11)	219
Inability to relocate	**63.2% (139)**	16.8% (37)	12.7% (28)	7.3% (16)	220
Perceived as lacking skills in managing facilities/grounds, and building projects	**67.7% (149)**	26.8% (59)	4.5% (10)	0.9% (2)	220
Perceived as not being able to achieve organizational goals	**71.4% (157)**	25.5% (56)	3.2% (7)	0.0% (0)	220
Conflict or confusion regarding career goals	**70.5% (155)**	25.0% (55)	4.5% (10)	0.0% (0)	220
Perceived as not being able to manage staff	**70.9% (156)**	26.4% (58)	2.7% (6)	0.0% (0)	220
Personal level of self-confidence	**67.7% (147)**	25.8% (56)	6.5% (14)	0.0% (0)	217
				answered question	**220**
				skipped question	**8**

43. Please provide comments/opinions regarding barriers you have experienced.

	Response Count
	49
answered question	49
skipped question	179

44. Have you been formally evaluated in your current position?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Yes	79.2%	175
No	20.8%	46
answered question		221
skipped question		7

45. Who had input into your evaluation? Please check all that apply.

	Response Percent	Response Count
School board members	83.7%	185
Subordinates	11.8%	26
Not evaluated	16.3%	36
Other (please specify)		13
answered question		221
skipped question		7

46. If you were evaluated, did your performance evaluation include items in the following categories? Please check all that apply.

	Response Percent	Response Count
Instructional	90.5%	172
Managerial	99.5%	189
Moral	52.6%	100
answered question		190
skipped question		38

47. Have you ever been given additional compensation or a bonus as a result of your evaluation?

	Response Percent	Response Count
Yes	26.4%	58
No	70.5%	155
Decline to answer	3.2%	7
answered question		220
skipped question		8