The Man Who Would Not Be Superintendent:

Struggling with on-the-job Socialization

By

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ABSTRACT

Some alternative educational leadership literature being written today, based on such theories as feminism, critical theory, and postmodernism, are challenging traditional, hierarchical, patriarchal, and bureaucratic organizational and management models that have been dominant in public education since the turn of the century. Today's beginning superintendents committed to these alternative perspectives may experience struggles during the socialization and role transition periods of their entry into traditionally constructed public school organizations. From this phenomenological investigation of five beginning, outsider superintendents, categories emerged from the observational and interview data that revealed the unique situations of each superintendent and how each constructed his or her social reality. Findings indicated a greater interest in adaptation to rather than construction of a new vision of a superintendency.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Where do I begin to recognize and thank all those who have contributed to the completion of this journey? Do I begin with most recent history and include my dissertation committee, Dr. Glorianne Leck, chair; Dr. Linda Wesson; Dr. Scott Leonard; Dr. Bram Hamovitch, who put much effort into my dissertation before moving on to another university; or Dr. Patricia Hauschildt, who most readily came to my assistance at my time of greatest need? The entire graduate faculty at Youngstown State University has been a constant source of expertise, enjoyment, and support as the program unfolded. I must recognize Dr. Beth Hargreaves, Youngstown State University's first doctoral graduate, for being a source of information and "paving-the-way" for qualitative research at Youngstown State. And how could I forget Ms. Willa Mattern, secretary for the department for her help in de-mystifying the mysteries of a doctoral program?

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I wish to thank the participants in my study who so willingly gave me their time and patience as I "tagged along" and interrupted their busy schedules. More than once I thought I was getting in their way.

I want to finish this acknowledgment by returning to comment about my chair, Dr. Glorianne Leck. Somewhere I was told or read that in order to complete a dissertation, one's chair is the key to completion of the project. Dr. Leck, you were my key. I know that you put as much time into this dissertation as I did. Looking back, I think of your editing and correcting of my words and logic, of your attention to my transitions, of the "green monsters," and of the long, slow, numbing walks back to my car after our meetings on many a cold, raw, dark northeastern Ohio winter evening. You "knew" when to push, when to criticize, when to challenge, when to provoke, and when to give hope. You provided me with that intellectual spark that lit the fire in me to think about life, who I was/am, and how I construct the world. You are the person who caused me to ask why the theories of feminism, critical theory, and postmodernism are not more readily applied to organizational life and relationships. Your description of me as Sisyphus might have been a more appropriate metaphor than we ever imagined as I pushed my rock, time and again, back up the hill. My quest for the application of theory to educational life will never get done. Dr. Leck, I shall be eternally grateful to you for your efforts, and I am thankful our paths crossed one August afternoon.

DEDICATION

Mom and Dad –

I have been abundantly blessed with you.

You are the greatest piece of my life.

In all my dreams, your unconditional love and

Unending support have been the foundation of "my" success.

Wesley and Travis –

A father could not have had two more precious and

Wonderful sons. One day when you look back and read this

Page, I hope you understand how much love I have for you both.

When I am gone, think kindly of me. I will be as supportive of

Your dreams, as my mother and father have been of mine.

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

What is needed is a synthesized and coherent view of what is happening in

the American superintendency. The battles and opportunities often play a

more important role in defining a position than do carefully scribed job

descriptions. This is why it is so important to understand the stories of those

who serve in the role and to understand what it feels like to be a superintendent.

(Carter & Cunningham, 1997, p. 241)

"So now I have the job, what's next?" This question may be asked by the

beginning public school superintendent shortly after appointment and during the initial

days on the job. After reading many different educational leadership texts throughout the

years that have described and defined a position called "the" superintendency, I have often

felt that a limited, positivistic, and scientifically biased explanation of the position of the

public school superintendency has been offered to me as a student of educational

administration. I have seen and read many job descriptions and numerous lists of technical

skills, including the dos and don'ts of public school administration. There are also

suggestions and approaches provided for developing political awareness and savvy

(Blumberg, 1985; Carter, Glass, & Hord, 1993). Stress is often placed on the need for

expertise on a vast number of current issues that a superintendent might encounter when

employed. The examples run from the texts of Cubberley (1922) to the list of

Superintendent Responsibilities from the American Association of School Administrators

(Carter & Cunningham, 1997, pp. 243-244).

These texts, lists of skills, identifications of character traits, and job descriptions begin to establish in an individual's mind a specific perspective about the nature of the position and organization that he or she may enter as a beginning superintendent. This paradigm frames the position, the educational institution, or organization as possessing its own humanity and life.

A survey of representative writing in education administration…

reveals that inquiry in this field has leaned heavily on the belief

that a general science of organizations has provided the needed

theoretical underpinnings for understanding schools and for the

training of administrators who are to run them. (Greenfield, 1975, p. 61)

There are those who say that "today, the dominant paradigm governing the field of educational administration is aligned with the philosophy of logical positivism" (Ikpa, in Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995, p. 175). According to Hargreaves (1995), "the bulk of organizational analysis is positivist" (p. 16). Guba (1995) lists the following "axioms" as constituting positivism: (1) there is a single tangible reality "out there"; (2) the inquirer is able to maintain a discrete distance from the object of inquiry, neither disturbing it nor being disturbed by it; (3) the aim of inquiry is to develop a nomothetic body of knowledge encapsulated in truth statements independent of time and context; (4) every action can be explained as the effect of a cause; and (5) inquiry is value-free (p. 82).

I will not enter into the debate on the use of quantitative or qualitative research methods, because I believe that a diverse mixture of research methodologies is necessary for growth in the understanding of educational organizations and of the public school superintendency. I am writing from a constructivist and phenomenological perspective that

challenges the establishment of quantitative research methods as the primary and preferred

methods of research. Thus, I believe it is important to acknowledge my personal

perspectives and biases for the use of a qualitative method as a more appropriate research

methodology for my study. Greenfield (1975) shares a similar view in this manner: "An

organizational theory based on understanding rejects the emphasis which much

contemporary social science places upon quantification, more complex mathematical

models, and bigger number crunchers in the shape of better and faster computers" (p. 71).

He makes reference to this emphasis by borrowing the term "quantophrenia" from

Sorokin. The attempt at scientization in organizational studies holds that "people occupy

organizations in somewhat the same way as they inhabit houses" (p. 60).

And what might be an alternative to "scientizing" the study of organizations?

Greenfield (1975) defines phenomenology as "an alternative view which sees

organizations not as structures subject to universal laws but as cultural artefacts [sic]

dependent upon the scientific meaning and intention of people within them" (p. 62).

Unfortunately, "phenomenology has yet to influence the study of organizations [and the

superintendency] in the United States despite the existence of a long-standing

phenomenological tradition in some sociological schools of thought in that country" (p.

62).

My research is being conducted by using the philosophical perspective of

phenomenology to investigate the role transition experiences of beginning superintendents.

I am suggesting that there is much more to be learned, revealed, and understood about the

initial role transition of a beginning superintendent through a phenomenological

methodology than through laboratory experiments alone. Further justification for using a

phenomenological methodology is provided in the third chapter of this dissertation in the "Design of the Study" section. Suffice it to say now that I did not want to lose any aspects of meaning by reducing the experiences of the beginning superintendents to individual pieces or portions of the total experience.

By identifying organizations and the public school superintendency as social inventions, the phenomenological view identifies organizations and an individual's position within them to include "man's [sic] image of himself [sic] and the particular and distinctive ways in which people see the world around them and their place in it" (Greenfield, 1975, p. 65). One way to gain an understanding of the educational administrative position of the superintendency would be to study the role transition of the beginning superintendent through the individual stories of a specifically targeted group of participants. How do beginning superintendents "see" their world, and how do they "find" their location within that world? Further, what might happen to a beginning superintendent if he or she did not "see" or "find" him- or herself?

"Those who have failed to fit into the prescribed molds generally try to hide the fact. Instead of pride, they experience a shameful anguish, which their liberation -- when it comes -- will teach them is unnecessary" (Nichols, 1975, p. 56). The "shameful anguish" which these individuals experience has been explained by Schmuck (in Regan & Brooks, 1995) as a "strong set of cultural pressures that exist in school organizations to socialize teachers and administrators in the prevailing organizational norms, values, and beliefs" (p. x). Schmuck further states, in a citation credited to Hart, that "it is often difficult to remain true to oneself, to fit into the traditional organizational culture, and to find meaning" (p.

xi). Thus, I ask how beginning superintendents react to the challenges of remaining true to themselves, fitting into the organization, and finding meaning.

Some beginning superintendents may recently have been in graduate school in order to earn a superintendent's license or certificate. In portions of their coursework, they may have encountered a certain new trend in some of the current educational leadership literature. That trend stresses the need for the educational leader to develop collaborative and cooperative professional relationships with his or her constituencies. "The leader's role in creating organizational intelligence is to improve the quality of relationships within the organization" (Pinchot & Pinchot, 1994, p. 394). But my experience tells me that just the opposite is likely to occur in schools because of the structural barriers that are built into their bureaucracies. Referring to structural barriers, Regan (1990) has expanded on a concept of a barrier as a "broken pyramid," a metaphor attributed to McIntosh (1993). The "broken pyramid" describes a fault line located somewhere between the top and bottom of the organizational pyramid. The top exemplifies the traditional patriarchal hierarchy that is prevalent in many organizations, while the bottom represents a location where "caring and nurturing, relationship and community building happen. It is a both/and world" (Regan, 1990, p. 568). Applying this concept to the role transition of beginning superintendents, the reconciliation of these two "worlds" may be difficult. Regan explained that she was initially blind to these barriers. Crossing the fault line "is risky business" (p. 575). Would some beginning superintendents have a difficult time with this "risky business"?

I am assuming that one's cultural constructions influence, if not control, the lenses through which one "sees" the world. What have been those cultural constructions for me?

I have been enculturated as a white, heterosexual, Euro-centric male who has naively enjoyed the power and privilege of being a white male and of holding the position of public school superintendent. I have been in public education for my entire career, spending twenty-three of those years in the classroom, have "successfully progressed" through the traditional bureaucracy, and have achieved the position of public school superintendent after only two and one-half years in other educational administrative positions.

At this time, however, I feel a personal uneasiness about "fitting" into the traditionally constructed role of public school superintendent. The distancing of my personal and professional relationships with individuals with whom I once shared a common bond as a teacher disheartens me. What I have been experiencing are the moments described by Ortiz (1982) as "boundary crossings. The changes increase responsibility, complexity, and breadth of coverage. The individual changes from being concerned with instruction and children to being concerned with an institution and adult groups" (p. 47). In his text on organization careers, van Maanen (1977) would describe my uneasiness in this manner: "When an individual steps into an unfamiliar region for the first time, he [sic] is faced with the problem of creating order from at best vague surroundings" (p. 18).

Shortly after beginning my first superintendency and my return to formal graduate study, I began to wonder if others would share the same role transition anxieties that I experienced. I had questions about my "location" within the organization, how the new conceptual theories of leadership could be applied, and how the role transition changed my relationships with others in the organization.

Researchers, such as Maxcy (1994), have gone so far as to say, "today, the leadership of American schools has collapsed" (p. 1). Maxcy is saying this in reference to his opinion that "efforts to use traditional [,] rational [,] and technical methods to solve problems have failed" (p.10). He feels leadership has collapsed because educational leaders are not solving many of societies' problems. Murphy (1992), in a similar vein, has authored a volume that is intensely and relentlessly critical of educational leadership and educational leadership preparation. I do not agree that the educational leadership in American schools has collapsed. Rather, I believe that the traditional, bureaucratic construction of the public school superintendency and its progeny, the traditional bureaucratic training and certification programs for public school superintendents, may not be addressing the questions about one's location in the organization, about the very nature of the organization, about applying current leadership theories, or about changes in relationships – just a few of the needs of new superintendents. There appears to be a great emphasis on scientific management and bureaucratic models for preparation, at the expense of more individualized and personalized exposures and opportunities for personal constructions of educational administrative positions. I see this devaluing of the phenomenological model for the study of the superintendency to be a critical concern. Further, understanding the potential difficulties of socialization for those individuals just beginning their careers as superintendents may be of special importance both to those who prepare superintendents and to those candidates taking formal coursework at the university.

Traditionally, educational bureaucracies have been modeled on those found in industry, based on patriarchal concepts embedded in and constructed by an American

capitalist version of modernity. These concepts were adapted to educational

administration at the beginning of the twentieth century (Cubberley, 1922; Callahan,

1962). "The modern attitude is part of the Enlightenment tradition. It is concerned with

rational control of our lives, beliefs, values, and aesthetic sensibilities" (Cherryholmes,

1988, p. 10). The hierarchical chain of command appears to have worked well in the

establishment of such institutionalized concepts as specialization by function, clear

responsibility and authority, and accountability to overseers and investors. The context of

the construction of the public school superintendency and the traditional training programs

that an individual experiences in the preparation for the superintendency mirror, for the

most part, this same philosophy. Some proponents of this traditional system of hierarchy

and those responsible for the training and certifying of prospective superintendents

disregard or devalue the importance of other models for interrogating the assumptions

incorporated in the design of the position (Gosetti & Rusch, 1995).

Yet a cacophony of new voices is emerging in the educational leadership literature

that challenges the hierarchical, patriarchal, and modernist organizational models

(Noddings, 1984; Restine, 1993; Beck, 1994; Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995;

Regan & Brooks, 1995; Marshall, Patterson, Rogers, & Steele, 1996; Pounder, 1998).

Wesson and Grady (1994), addressing the educational reform movement of the 1980s,

suggest that "the reform movement calls for educational leaders to move away from the

traditional, hierarchical, control-and-command environment that is pervasive in many

schools today" (p. 413). They suggest two movements that were reactions to this

leadership model: the restructuring- schools movement and the collaboration/consensus-

building leadership movement. I am framing the arguments proposed by these writers as a

critique of power and control. "If we are to understand organizations, we must understand what people within them think of as right and proper to do" (Greenfield, 1975, p. 69).

> Thus the notion of the organization as a necessary order-maintaining
> instrument falls and the notion of organization as the expression of
> particular human ideologies takes its place. In this way, the problem
> of order becomes the problem of control. (Greenfield, 1974, p. 72)

"The problem is not whether order shall be maintained, but rather who maintains it, how, and with what consequences" (Greenfield, 1975, p. 72). The questions may be asked, then, whose ideology has been most used to maintain control over educational institutions, and where do these ideas originate?

Typically viewed as an apex of a hierarchical and bureaucratic structure, the depiction of the public school superintendency denotes levels of authority that a superintendent has over others in a public school organization (see Appendix A). This positionality, by its layering, may create the professional career ladder, the impersonalization of relationships with subordinates, and an unequal distribution of power. For some individuals who have served school districts as teachers for a long time, these types of issues may create problems in the role transition when they make a decision to move into educational administration.

Unfortunately, the hierarchical bureaucratic organizational structure internalized and accepted by those in control has dictated the type of leadership that is most valued and rewarded in public school systems.

> Educational institutions…have taken hierarchical form, displaying
> varying degrees of bureaucratization and emphasizing control and

competition rather than the form and character of collaborative or

cooperative service organizations. The work of administrators who

maintain hierarchical control is valued over that of educators who

view collaboration and cooperation as more suitable in the operation

of schools. (Ortiz & Marshall, in Boyan, 1988, p. 126)

Although previously held positions, such as teacher, assistant principal, and

principal, in the hierarchical arrangement of public education are related to each other and

offer a frame of common reference to those in public education, "teaching and

administration have become separate but mutually dependent professions" (p. 123). Weick

(1982) and Shakeshaft (1989) discuss this concept in terms of the "loose-coupling" that

occurs in the formal structure of schooling in America. One educational example of

"loose-coupling" would be that although there is administrative, bureaucratic control over

a teacher, the teacher has a great deal of autonomy as to how and when certain curricular

items are taught to the students. Even though the superintendent is often traditionally

referred to as the chief executive officer of the district, the superintendent may not know

the daily lesson plans of the classroom teacher. In fact, I see the person who has been

accustomed to close personal and professional relationships with co-workers throughout

his or her teaching career becoming frustrated and disenchanted when placed into

bureaucratic roles that lead to the superintendency. It is indeed ironic that the

collaborative, nurturing, caring, and cooperative skills and attributes that have been part of

an individual's socialization as a teacher may be challenged and may become a source of

personal conflict when one serves in the position of public school superintendent.

This research seeks to understand whether the classroom experiences of career teachers who eventually become superintendents may affect the personal perspectives they use to construct and interpret their position as superintendent. I am investigating how beginning superintendents "see" and "locate" themselves, how they do or do not use current theories of leadership, how they perceive their educational organization, and how the change has affected their relationships. I want to observe how some beginning superintendents construct, adapt, live, or deconstruct the conflicts and evolving expectations surrounding and within their public school superintendencies. It is not my intent to essentialize, generalize, or reduce the behavior of beginning superintendents to fit any prescribed and traditionally constructed role for the public school superintendency. However, comparisons of how beginning superintendents have constructed their "roles" as superintendents may be useful in the preparation of others.

Statement of the Problem

Those who enter teaching as aspiring administrators are able to

maintain a detachment from the rest of the teachers so that when

they do become administrators, their departure from teaching is

non-stressful. Those who decide to become administrators after

they've taught awhile experience stress when departing from teaching

and other teachers. (Ortiz, 1982, p. 31)

Some current literature in educational leadership promotes such necessities as building relationships, nurturing individuals within and without the organization, and working in a collaborative environment (Noddings, 1984; Restine, 1993; Beck, 1994; Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995; Regan & Brooks, 1995, Marshall, Patterson,

Rogers, & Steele, 1996; Pounder, 1998). In a recent article in *Education Week* based on a

Western Michigan University study, Keller (1999, April 14) reports that 85 per cent of

master's degree candidates ranked concern over professional relationships as the most

important consideration among ten options when considering a move into educational

administration. Such concerns conflict with how traditional bureaucratic models of the

superintendency have been constructed. "Heavy emphasis on efficiency and, essentially a

mis-reading of Taylor's scientific management turned schools into competitive

bureaucracies, rather than collaborative service organizations, emphasizing control over

instruction" (Ortiz & Marshall, in Boyan, 1988, p. 123). Greenfield (1975) employs a

service-organization metaphor by conceptualizing schools as a public utility, rather than as

a factory.

Individuals who move into administration, and especially the superintendency, after

a lengthy career in the classroom may have a more difficult time making the transition into

the traditional bureaucratic position of the public school superintendency than do

individuals who have moved into administration after a short tenure in teaching. "They

[those who were committed to moving into educational administration early in their

careers] were never totally committed to teaching, nor did they develop loyalties and

strong attachments for it" (Ortiz, 1982, p. 31). The difficulty in role transition may be

amplified if the movement from the classroom to the superintendency has been done in a

very short period of time.

There is a dearth of socialization research in educational administration literature

specifically addressing the time period immediately prior to employment (Jentz, 1980,

1982; Miklos, 1988). "Networking and socialization are not a formalized part of most

preparation programs" (Henry & Achilles, in Chapman, 1997, p. 238). In addition,

research into the socialization of an individual after he or she has attained the position of

public school superintendent is also not extensive. Peterson and Finn (1985) echo this

statement when they suggest that there is a virtual absence of induction programs for

newly appointed administrators. This specific time period of role transition occurs at a

critical point in the individual's career. The events of this time period may affect the

individual's success and effectiveness in the superintendency, depending upon whose

definition of success or effectiveness one uses, i.e., his or her own, the board's, a

generalized evaluation, or a university's formal training program.

Miklos (1988) makes an assumption that individuals are socialized as educators

regardless of their specific roles in the school district or the types of schools in which they

serve. I am inferring from this comment that he believes that no further socialization will

be encountered. I will argue that, although this may be generally the case with those who

continue as teachers, this assumption may not be an appropriate concept for all individuals

who move into educational administration. Khleif (1975) contends that beginning school

superintendents may face the prospect of resocialization during the transition period.

> This means not only discontinuity with the past but an unlearning
>
> of its cherished sentiments: the trainee [beginning superintendent]
>
> must first realize the moral irrelevance - nay, absurdity - of his [sic]
>
> old occupational self as a precondition for identification with his [sic]
>
> new occupation. (p. 301)

I have used Khlief's contention to accent two points. One is that the role transition of a

beginning superintendent into his or her new occupation may come as a culture shock for

some individuals. Secondly, Khlief's thinking would be typical of those individuals who

view organizations from a traditional bureaucratic perspective. From a constructivist

perspective, however, this prescription is too harsh. Some individuals may wish to keep a

part of their past experiences and histories as a basis for their own interpretations of the

superintendency. Indeed, this desire to keep one's own history appears to be another

challenge to traditional perspectives in superintendent's training. For some of the current

literature that stresses nurturing, caring, relationship-building, and cooperating with others

would take exception to Khlief's viewpoint.

<div style="text-align:center">Purpose of the Study</div>

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the role transition of career

teachers who left the classroom after lengthy tenures to become public school

superintendents. The study investigates how these individuals construct the role of

superintendent, adapt to their specific contexts, and create meaning for themselves in their

position as beginning superintendents. Like van Maanen (1977), I want to ask "what must

people know to be able to locate themselves within an organization such that they can

operate in a manner that is viewed as appropriate, if not desirable, by other members?" (p.

18). Or, conversely, I want to know what happens when people are unable to locate

themselves within an organization? I will show how the various participants in the study

construct understandings of their organizations and position within it, develop their

relationships with others, and identify key issues, problems, frustrations, successes, and

challenges that they have encountered during the beginning period of their

superintendency.

Significance of the Study

The average length of tenure for a superintendent in large school districts in the

United States is less than three years (Carter & Cunningham, 1997, p. xviii) and an

average of 6.5 years for all superintendents (Kowalski, 1995b). While Cuban (1998)

argues that "short tenure for superintendents is largely a myth manufactured out of media

reports of 'turnstile' superintendencies on short tenure in urban posts" (p. 43), these

average lengths of tenure still appear to be short. One of the reasons for this short tenure

may be that some individuals who have entered the public school superintendency have a

difficult time with the transition into a role of public school superintendent because of the

juxtaposition between their personal experiences, values, beliefs, and interpretations that

they bring to the position and the formal, bureaucratic structure that they encounter. The

application of one's personal experiences, values, and beliefs will serve as the lens through

which the district context is interpreted. "Indeed, socialization settings do not have

unambiguous, natural properties beyond those which individuals attribute to them" (van

Maanen, 1977, p. 18).

One of the ways we can increase our understanding of role transitions of beginning

superintendents may be the recognition of differences between social roles that were

internalized when an individual "became" a teacher and when one now "becomes" a public

school superintendent. These differences may be exacerbated among superintendents who

have achieved the position in a rapid fashion after a long career in the classroom. A rapid

progression through the "steps" to the superintendency may have additional implications

for the preparation and mentoring of beginning and future superintendents because these

individuals have not had the opportunity to "see" and "locate" themselves in the position or organization.

Research has identified two significant paths to the public school superintendency: (1) teacher, principal, superintendent, and (2) teacher, principal, central office, superintendent (Carlson, 1972; Ortiz, 1982; Carter, Glass, & Hord, 1993; Glass, 1997). Although these two distinct paths to the superintendency are dominant, preparation programs may need to take into consideration the fact that educational administrators bring a variety of past experiences, both professional and personal, to the superintendency. It is a realization that "one size does not fit all" when it comes to administrative preparation and early career support. Many talented men and women who do perceive difficulties due to the lack of adequate preparation or early career support may not desire to move into administration. Further, a study of the role transition experience of public school superintendents may help in the development of support mechanisms from state educational agencies or universities for beginning superintendents who fit these career patterns.

Another issue of importance is the possibility that both men and women who enter administration later in their teaching careers share similar experiences in their role transitions. Research supports that women usually enter the career path to educational administration later in their teaching careers (Gaertner, 1981; Ortiz, 1982). Some women may face particularly difficult social, professional sponsorship, and stereotypical gender issues when crossing the patriarchal barriers into educational administration. Feminist critiques of organizational careers could be used to explain and understand potential challenges and issues generated during role transition. They may face some of the same

challenges in role transition as men who have had extensive teaching careers. Yet,

dedicated, long-term male teachers, who had no initial intention of leaving the classroom

to pursue an administrative career or the superintendency, may also be uncomfortable with

this transition. It is possible that many women who "know" that administrative careers are

probably not part of their future and men who have committed themselves to careers as

teachers may have similar transition difficulties.

<div align="center">Limitations and Delimitations</div>

I investigated a narrowly targeted group of individuals who have followed a very

specific career path on their way to the superintendency. The career pathway that I

examined was teacher - building administrator - superintendent. This particular career path

most closely resembles the "normal" path to a superintendency in small- to medium-sized

districts (Ortiz, 1982). In larger school districts the career path has an extra "central

office" position between the building administrator level and the superintendency,

according to the research of Gaertner (1981) and Ortiz (1982). Ortiz (1982) reports that

94.1% of superintendents in larger districts, those with 100,000-plus-student populations,

followed the teacher-building administrator-central office staff career path to the

superintendency. Individuals who have obtained the superintendency in larger districts

usually have had a lengthy career within that same district (Ortiz, 1982). Thus, it is likely

that these individuals have had more time to be socialized into the culture of that specific

district.

Carlson (1972) differentiates between two types of superintendents by identifying

them as either "place-bound" or "career-bound." He states that place-bound

superintendents have worked in their home school systems until such time as they are

appointed as superintendents. They ascend through the hierarchy of only one school system, and they are promoted from within their districts. In contrast, career-bound superintendents are identified as not having waited to be promoted from within one system. Career-bound superintendents spread their careers over at least two systems, having never served the new district in any other capacity other than that of superintendent and making a career of the superintendency rather than as making a career as a single-district public school employee.

Carlson further states that "superintendents place themselves in these categories through their actions" and that "to be one or the other are major decisions in an individual's career" (p. 41). He found an approximate ratio of two career-bound superintendents to one place-bound superintendent (1972, p.46). Glass (in Chapman, 1997, p. 29) found in his 1992 American Association of School Administrators' study that 64 per cent of the superintendents were outsiders [career-bound].

Because I am interested in the role transition of the beginning outsider superintendent, and because outsider superintendents will comprise approximately two-thirds of beginning superintendents, this study investigates those individuals that we might consider career-bound. The term "outsider" for this study will mean a superintendent who was never a teacher in the district in which he or she is now serving as a beginning superintendent.

I am also cognizant that individuals obtaining superintendencies after lengthy teaching careers may be at the point in their careers when qualification for retirement is close. It is possible that if an individual has a difficult time with the role transition into a superintendent's context and qualifies for a retirement pension during the transition

period, he or she may leave the superintendent's position out of a sense of discomfort, desperation, and/or frustration. Because turnover in the leadership position in any institution is a major event in the history of that organization, it is hoped that this research may help to lengthen the tenure of these beginning superintendents who have become superintendents late in their careers. Experience is valuable in such a top-level position; if some help can be provided in the role transition process, this superintendent's experience may not be lost to retirement.

Traditional textbook constructions of the superintendency posit that the superintendent exhibits three types of leadership: educational, political, and managerial (Johnson, 1996). Cuban (1998) lists the types of leadership as instructional, managerial, and political. Generally, the educational and instructional leadership role concerns curricular issues, while the political leadership role deals with responses to legislative agendas. The managerial leadership role deals with the daily management of a district. Although there is an attempt by these authors to address each area equally, most discussions of the traditionally designed bureaucracy of a public school superintendency tend to focus on the managerial aspects of leadership. But managerial skills are just one part of educational leadership. The educational, political, and managerial processes should flow together and should not be isolated from one another.

This dissertation will not address whether or not being socialized into the traditional patriarchal bureaucracy is the best condition for individuals in educational administration, although the research may have implications for such a question. It is my assumption that beginning superintendents will be struggling with their role transitions into the bureaucratic structures of public schools because they will need to develop their own

personal constructions and theories about leadership in public school organizations. I

expect that some beginning superintendents will base their constructions on some of the

more current educational leadership literature that is used in university leadership-

preparation programs. Indeed, "individuals must actively construct definitions to describe

features of their organizational situation" (van Maanen, 1977, p. 18). Assuming that these

individuals would have been recently involved with graduate studies in educational

leadership, I felt confident that there would be definite concerns, anxieties, and objections

to traditional bureaucratic constructions of the public school superintendency by these

participants.

<center>Definition of Terms and Theoretical Orientation</center>

I wish to differentiate the term "role transition" from the concept of

"socialization." Role transition represents an interactive process in the learning and

constructing of a new position, i.e., superintendency. The role transition time period

studied for this dissertation was five months. The participants selected for the study were

located at different points of experience within a one-year time frame. I made this one-

year- maximum-experience limit because the beginning of a second-year would bring a

semblance of routine and familiarity to the process. van Maanen (1977) would consider

this first year time period as "social time." "It [social time] refers not to the simple running

of sand through the hourglass, but to the marking of interludes or benchmarks in one's

life" (p. 30).

What, then, do we mean by socialization? As will be further discussed in Chapter

2, the definition of socialization is extremely broad and encompasses a wide array of

concepts. For the purpose of this dissertation, socialization will be defined as "those

changes which occur in persons as they participate in organizational settings" (Ortiz, 1982, p. 2).

It is assumed that being a new member of an organization, engaging in organizational activities, and fulfilling organizational expectations may impose fundamental and continuing personal changes (Ortiz, 1982). Further, Miklos (1988) states that the socialization or enculturation of administrators focuses "on the ways in which the values, norms, rules, and operating procedures that govern the practice of administration are communicated and learned" (p.65). This new learning may place an individual in conflict with the various beliefs and value structures to which he or she has grown accustomed. As mentioned above, the beginning superintendent will be experiencing pressures to resocialize (Khleif, 1975) as he or she learns the expectations placed on a new public school superintendent.

A lengthy tenure in the classroom will be defined as a period of at least ten years during which an individual served as a teacher prior to entering educational administration. This amount of time has been selected because it is assumed that the person who spent this much time in the classroom would be highly socialized into the role of teacher. Ortiz (1978) uses a time frame of five to nineteen years to identify what she refers to as mid-career individuals who are attempting to gain entry into educational administration.

A person who moves into the administrative career path soon after entering the teaching profession will be considered exemplary of the short tenure as defined by this dissertation. Short tenure generally coincides with the minimum amount of classroom experience that is needed to qualify for an administrative license or certificate, usually a period of three to five years.

Ortiz (1982) suggests that short-term classroom-teaching individuals may have less stress when departing teaching in favor of educational administration. I am further suggesting that this short-term career path may have similar characteristics to the career paths for business and industry. For example, it appears that some businesses and corporations often recruit individuals for management trainee programs immediately upon their graduation from baccalaureate or master's programs. Typically during the spring, many colleges and universities hold job fairs that serve a "head-hunting" purpose for businesses offering entry-level management positions to new graduates. These trainee programs socialize these individuals into a management mentality right at the beginning of their careers. These individuals may generally know of no other way to understand their roles within a company than those of administration or management (see Appendix B; G. Price, personal communication, June 15, 1998). Blumberg (1985) states that, "most corporate executives have never been assembly line workers. There are very few of the latter who even faintly aspire to being the executive" (p.143).

During the transition period of the beginning superintendent, the individual may experience new and different professional relationships. What will be the nature of these important relationships? Some current leadership literature (Regan & Brooks, 1995) promotes less formal and structured approaches to professional relationships in the workplace. Critics of traditional bureaucratic hierarchies suggest that positive professional relationships cannot occur when a positional hierarchy exists that bestows power and privilege upon certain individuals over others. The superordinate/subordinate relationships that are characteristic of traditional bureaucracies results in an asymmetry of power. "Submission destroys initiative, creativity, self-esteem, and judgment. It increases

dependency and apathy" (Pinchot & Pinchot, 1994, p. 245). Subordinates may be

discouraged from expressing any real dissatisfaction with the present state of affairs for

fear of retribution, humiliation, embarrassment, indifference, and greater loss of access to

power. Negative criticism of upper-management individuals or initiatives might endanger

the subordinate's position within the bureaucracy. The subordinate might be construed as

desiring more power or might be considered to be a troublemaker, or might be construed

as a threat to the traditional bureaucratic organization.

Healthy, productive relationships imply a free flow of information that is of

importance to the organization (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994). However,

traditional "bureaucracies restrict upward and lateral flow of information" (Pinchot &

Pinchot, 1994, p. 278). Again, the free flow of information could be considered a threat to

those in power. Some individuals in power positions within an organization may consider

that if subordinates know as much as the superordinate, they may have the potential to

destroy their privileged power positions. Equal access to critical information is more likely

to place individuals on an even plane.

More equal professional relationships, therefore, require a more equal distribution

of power between and among individuals (Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, & Smith, 1994).

These more equal professional relationships need to provide opportunities and freedom for

diversity, disagreement, and dissent (Pinchot & Pinchot, 1994). In a less bureaucratic

organization, individuals would need more open and free information and communication

channels. All individuals involved in these relationships would need to know that these

arrangements are different from the traditional hierarchical power relationships to which

they are accustomed.

Another term that is used throughout this dissertation is "traditional bureaucracy" as it has been applied to public education. Since the work of Cubberley (1922), public school districts throughout the country have used a similar hierarchical design (see Appendixes A1, A2, A3). Today, the reader could easily locate these types of organizational charts in almost all of the Ohio public school district's board policy books.

Johnston (in Maxcy, 1991) claims that the source of the assumptions about the nature of organizations comes from Weberian analyses of bureaucratic authority and domination. Johnston delineates several of the assumptions inherent in traditional bureaucracy. One is that organizations are technical systems and that a formal description of structure and function is sufficient to account for primary organizational dynamics. This formal description intends not to allow for any "irrationality" to occur within the organization, exemplifying the Weber's "rational grounds" of legitimate authority as cited by Pugh (1990, p.3). A second assumption is that organizational participants should be treated as functionaries. This means that any personal or unique desires of the individual will become subordinate to the demands of the position. Finally, a third assumption about bureaucratic organizations is that rational task execution is required to insure predictable division of labor and predictable results. Obviously, these images create a vision of the organization as machine-like, controllable, and value-neutral.

Current writers on organization theory, such as Peters and Waterman (1982), have attempted to incorporate the recognition that organizations are social as well as technical systems. My research is designed from a perspective which does not assume that individuals are or need to be force-fit into a rather uncritical acceptance of a traditional bureaucratic system.

Current literature will be defined as that literature about educational leadership that has been written during the last several decades (Murphy, 1992). Any exact dating would clearly be arbitrary. The particular type of literature to which I am referring may be recognized as related to constructivism, critical theory, and/or feminist critiques. I believe that the many events causing social turmoil experienced in the United States during the decade of the sixties were watershed events for social reform and for the raising of popular political consciousness. Although social criticism has existed as long as societies have been in operation, the 1960s, 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s spawned widespread social consciousness and critique of traditional bureaucratic rationalism. Social institutions of all types and the philosophical foundations of their beliefs were and are being challenged. Voice has been given to many previously disempowered social groups and their causes, and education has not escaped this inspection. Alternative discourses have emerged in all areas of education, such as the critiques in curriculum (Apple, 1979; Slattery, 1995), in standardized testing (Darling-Hammond, Ancess, & Falk, 1995), in gender issues (Shakeshaft, 1989, 1995), and in school governance (Sarason, 1995).

Educational administration, too, has become subject to new critiques (Murphy, 1992; Regan & Brooks, 1995). These new discourses on power relations will help us understand how individuals are socialized to accept traditional bureaucratic power arrangements along their career pathways and also allow for critical thought on how these inequities might be overcome. From my research, I will attempt to identify articulations of themes about organizations and their challenges to inequity in power relations.

School leadership may be defined broadly to include all the formal and many of the informal roles that serve education. For instance, school leadership could include the

teacher in a classroom, the work of the Board of Education, a student leading an activity, the work of a community group on behalf of a school building or the school district, or a simple activity, such as an administrator picking up a piece of litter in front of students. However, for the purposes of this dissertation, the specific person and position of school leadership that will be the focus is that of the public school superintendent. Although there is a specific position called the public school superintendency, it is my belief that each individual constructs his or her own understanding of the position, using autobiography to create meaning in each specific context. Thus, "the" public school superintendency becomes a position that encompasses a wide range of possibilities for interpretation and meaning. I will assume that the reader has a general understanding of the traditional functions, designs, and expectations that have been historically imposed on the public school superintendency.

In the study of school leadership, the superintendency has often been combined as a part of a general presentation on educational administration. Glass (1998) argues that the position of the superintendency unfortunately has been combined under a blanket term that includes all levels of educational administration. He further argues that "lumping together superintendents, assistant superintendents, directors, business managers, and principals into one generic group under the same set of professional standards is inappropriate" (p. 4). Glass suggests that the literature of educational administration should separate the superintendency from other areas in educational administration in order to gain a greater understanding of the position.

The concept of "relational leadership" will be introduced at this time. Regan and Brooks (1995) define relational leadership as "the creative integration of masculinist and

feminist attributes of leadership" (p. 4). The authors name and define five attributes of

relational leadership: "collaboration, caring, courage, intuition, and vision" (p. 2). Regan

and Brooks call these qualities the "feminist attributes of leadership" (p. 2). The concept

of relational leadership is contrasted to "traditional leadership," which is based in the

masculinist valuing of "control, hierarchy, authority, and division of labor" (Schmuck, as

cited in Regan & Brooks, p. xi). Theirs is "not an argument against traditional male-based

formulations of leadership" (p. 3) but an argument *for* bringing a balance to the discussion

of school leadership.

By now, the reader has noticed the use of the term "patriarchy," and that several

times it has been placed in combination with the word "bureaucracy." There are several

reasons for this. "Solutions to such problems [assumed organizational pathologies] cannot

be found simply by changing structures. The root of the problem lies in people's beliefs

and the ability to act upon these beliefs" (Greenfield, 1975, p. 74). The use of the word

"patriarchy" brings to mind, for this white, middle-class, second generation American male

of European ancestry, the image of the benevolent father, administering from the top of a

family hierarchy. It has been placed with "bureaucracy" purposely to remind the reader

that traditional organizational literature tends to have a masculine bias.

In a 1952 study by Carol (in Cunningham & Hentges, 1983), 6.7 percent of the

superintendents in the United States were women (p. 31). By 1980 this percentage had

dropped to less than one per cent (Ortiz & Marshall, in Boyan, 1988, p. 127). It is

interesting to note that in Ellwood Cubberley's (1922) classic text on public school

administration, he uses only masculine pronoun forms throughout the text, although he

states in a footnote, "What is said, however, is equally applicable to women" (p. 131).

Unfortunately, the use of the term "schoolmen" throughout both this text and many others has merged the superintendency with the male gender. "Patriarchy is so taken for granted it is often invisible" (Leck, 1990, p. 383). The traditional bureaucratic models of the public school superintendency share in this invisibility. Leck defines patriarchy as "an ideological system that by definition holds as its central notion that there are two sexes and that male persons and their activities are to be more highly valued than female persons and their activities" (p. 383). The traditional role transition of a public school superintendent involves the assimilation of these patriarchal assumptions with very little recognition that they even exist.

Shakeshaft (1989) shows that male-biased samples, attitudes, methods, and theories have served to create a masculine-biased body of knowledge in educational administration. O'Toole (1995), speaking about leadership in general, identifies some of these masculine assumptions as "there can be only one leader, any sign of weakness will undercut the leader's authority, might makes right, and dominance is based on levels of testosterone" (p. 87). It is important to note that these assumptions are connected to traditional concepts of hierarchy and the distribution of power. I will attempt to determine if some of these assumptions affect the role transition of an individual into the role of superintendent.

Feminist perspectives may provide theoretical insights for developing a broader understanding of the role transition experiences for beginning superintendents that could balance the traditional, patriarchal approaches to the definitions of the superintendency. Some feminist theorists use a critical approach to gender issues. Leck (1990) states it this way: "It has been feminism, by definition a maverick within patriarchy, that has created

space and audience for voicing views that challenge the central notion of the patriarchal ideology" (p. 384). Although there can be many types of oppression, feminist positionality allows us to evaluate the sexist oppression that is at the root of many forms of domination, including the hierarchy that has evolved in educational administration. Feminist perspectives permit us to visualize the struggle over power that is waged in traditional bureaucratic institutions. The steps in the transition from teacher to superintendent have a similarity to gender struggles that are – and ought not to be – the basis for assigning social contexts that limit possibilities for social worth (Leck, 1990).

I perceive education and its administrative hierarchy as political – i.e., decisions are based on power relationships – and I view education and its administrative hierarchies as systems that dispense, authorize, or limit power. As Flax (in Nicholson, 1990) argues, "in order to sustain domination, the interrelation and interdependence of one group with another must be denied" (p. 54). Feminist theories attempt to understand the broader workings of power, and how it is constituted, and to rewrite the narratives of subordinate groups not merely in reaction to the forces of domination but in response to the construction of alternative versions and futures (Giroux, 1991).

Feminism attempts to understand how differences are to be understood in order to change rather than reproduce prevailing power relations.

> I see Euro-patriarchy-by-privilege as the controlling definition
> of social hierarchy in the U. S. schooling system at the present
> time. The system is not neutral. It is through patriarchal public
> institutions that the interactive arranging of hierarchies is ritualistically
> performed. (Leck, 1990, p. 385)

I believe that some feminist critique can be used to provide a systematic criticism of the operations of categorical differences, such as hierarchies, and these critiques can be used for a refusal to accept the totalizing narratives of "the ultimate truth." Feminists have provided a powerful challenge to the privileged and limited construction of masculine discourses and have provided analyses of the ways by which reason, language, and representation have produced and reproduced knowledge and power relations, legitimated the discourse of science and objectivity, and have silenced, marginalized, and misrepresented feminist ways of knowing (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1986).

This discussion is not meant to oversimplify and essentialize individuals into masculine and feminine definitions based on biology or stereotypical gender lines. I briefly suggest that to espouse absolute statements about an individual being only "male" or "female" would not be how I perceive individuals to be. Rather, I would suggest that humans are complex organisms that possess qualities of "maleness" or "femaleness" which have been socially constructed during genderization. Individuals will play many roles during their lifetimes, and not all of these roles will be determined by biology or stereotypical gender lines.

In his work on feminism and postmodernism, Giroux (1991) suggests that feminists frame the issue of difference in terms that give it an emancipatory grounding. I suggest that this emancipatory grounding identifies these differences as being political acts. These political acts may also be related to the traditional patriarchal culture of the public school superintendency. Feminist critique may help in redefining the knowledge and power relationships in order to develop a theory of difference that could be applied to organizational structures.

The previous several paragraphs have discussed some feminist perspectives toward the privileged, white, male-constructed models of the public school superintendency. Ikpa (in Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995) calls these traditional models the "race-gender exclusive" (p. 175) models and argues for an expansion of the discussion of the knowledge base in educational administration and leadership to be more inclusive of other voices.

Not only women but also racial and ethnic minorities are underrepresented in the public school superintendency. Ikpa (in Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995) cites an *Executive Educator* study for 1988 in which only three percent of superintendents across the nation were racial or ethnic minorities. By 1992 this percentage had risen to "3.9 per cent" (Glass, in Chapman, 1997, p. 26). "The disproportionate number of white males in administrative roles suggests a closed system, which is not open to diverse skills, perspectives, and belief systems of minorities and women" (Ikpa, in Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995, p. 177). As feminist writers have given voice to the discussion of power and privilege in the discussion of educational leadership, so, too, does this discussion require listening to the voices of racial and ethnic minorities and "others"? "The entrenched biases in dominant paradigms must be addressed in an effort to develop a [n] inclusive knowledge base" (Ikpa, in Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995, p. 175). This is one of the reasons why the search for "a" single knowledge base in educational administration is a search for "fool's gold" (Bates, 1980, p. 7).

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Introduction

Contemporary portrayals of the theoretical knowledge base in educational

administration de-emphasize functionalism and embrace alternatives that

argue that (a) we are active agents in constructing our world; (b) knowledge

and power are related inextricably; (c) facts are embedded in and interpreted

through social, value-laden processes; and (d) social structures and hierarchies

conceal as much as they reveal. The metaperspectives leading the field toward

a more comprehensive and complicated knowledge base include critical theory,

feminist theory, pragmatism, and postmodernism. (Clark, in Murphy & Forsyth,

1999, p. 233)

Hmmm…but "…there are some powerful counterbalancing forces that suggest that the

traditional knowledge base is not only alive and well but is the dominant perspective held

in the 'real world' of practice" (p. 233).

What a perplexing way to begin a literature search! Let's see: contemporary

portrayals - critical theory, feminist theory, and postmodernism - active construction,

knowledge and power bound together, social and value-laden nature of facts, and

hierarchies that conceal. Well, I've got it. This is so simple. If I study contemporary

educational leadership literature in a cutting-edge educational leadership program, I shall

undoubtedly encounter an educational organization that will not be open to these

leadership perspectives. What? My, this is confusing. But let's pause for a moment and

think about this confusion that may occur for some educational leaders.

If "leadership is always exercised in a cultural context" (Slater, 1994, p. 97), then

what might be "the" culture of educational leadership at the present time? As I reflected

upon that question, the very first thoughts that came to me were "change - changing -

changed," and then, "How do I make sense of events that are currently taking place in

schools?" I specifically pondered the school violence that most recently occurred at

Columbine High School in Littleton, Colorado. I do not desire to drift from my focus on

the beginning school superintendent, but I simply am trying to stress the point that it is

sometimes very difficult to make sense out of the confusing and changing world in which

we live. I suggest to those who may be attempting to return to "the good old days" of

yesteryear (modernity) and educational leadership in such a context, that those days are

gone, and these kinds of perplexing events are suggestive of the presence of a different

historical context. "Called 'postmodern,' 'post structural,' 'postliberal,' or by any one of a

number of terms, this emerging culture is profoundly unsystematic, unstructured, and

disorienting'" (Maxcy, 1995, p. 477). This disorientation and confusion affects most of us,

and I am suggesting that some difficulties in the role transition and socialization for a

beginning superintendent are created because of this postmodern social phenomenon. I am

further suggesting that the directions of current educational leadership literature are

equally disorienting, and that those who prepare educational leaders at the university have

choices in the philosophical directions that they present to their students.

Before I leave this introduction, I have some comments to make about leadership.

Earlier, I identified leadership with the position of public school superintendent. I realize

that this is a narrow definition of leadership, essentially merging the "office with the

broader notion of leadership" (Foster, 1986, p. 177). I wanted to avoid a lengthy

philosophical discussion of leadership (see Foster, 1986, pp. 169-188; Hoy & Miskel,

1987, pp. 270-315). Slater (1995) addresses what I believe to be some of the problems

with such a discussion. He suggests that the three most often asked questions about

leadership are: (1) "What is leadership?"; (2) "Why is it important?"; and (3) "What are

the conditions of its existence and effectiveness?" (p. 449). I believe the most important

aspect of this discussion lies in Slater's ensuing thoughts about these questions. Slater

explains that the answer to these questions depends on one's ideological social viewpoint

(i.e., structural-functionalist, political-conflict, constructivist, or critical humanist). An

individual's ideological perspective, or some hybrid combination of these perspectives,

affects how one would answer these questions, and the arguments about the definition of

leadership would be heard from those who espouse these various perspectives. I would

suggest that it is important for educational leaders to identify their own ideological

perspectives as they construct their own definitions of leadership.

<div align="center">Superintendency Literature</div>

Ideological perspective is an important aspect of this review of literature on the

superintendency. The perspectives of the author or authors place the literature into

"camps" that reflects the philosophical lenses through which they view the world. It would

be ludicrous for me to attempt to review and document all of the texts that have been

written about the public school superintendency. For those individuals desiring such a

comprehensive review of public school superintendency literature, Glass (1986) has edited

an excellent volume for that purpose, with over a hundred texts in educational

administration reviewed, representing time periods from 1820 - 1985. Nor am I attempting

to suggest another simplistic dualism between the rational (modern) and the more recent

critiques (postmodern) of the public school superintendency. My objective here is to present some of the diverse current directions of the scholarly work about educational administration and/or leadership in general, and the superintendency in particular.

Some scholars (Peterson & Finn, 1985; Murphy, 1992; Griffiths, 1998) suggest that the reform movements in public education that have swept across this country neglected educational administration prior to the mid-1980s. Although these authors were referring to the time period since the 1960s, public education has been deluged with reform efforts for a long time (Olson, 1999, April 21). Glass's volume presents some argument to the opinions presented in Peterson and Finn, Murphy, and Griffiths about when reform efforts in educational administration occurred, but it may be said that there are definitely many texts about educational administration available that have been written over the past two decades (Campbell, Corbally, & Nystrand, 1983; Blumberg, 1985; Foster, 1986; Hoy & Miskel, 1987; Boyan, 1988; Murphy, 1992; Beck, 1994; Johnson, 1996; Carter & Cunningham, 1997; Chapman, 1997; Murphy & Forsyth, 1999).

What may have been some of the reasons for this renewed interest in educational leadership? Murphy (1992) suggests that two specific events created an interest in the preparation of school leaders during the 1980s: (1) the work of the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration (NCEEA) in 1987; and (2) the report of the National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) in 1989.

Subsequently, the University Council of Educational Administration (UCEA),

one of the National Policy Board's member organizations, accepted the National

Policy Board's challenge and began a ten-year effort to identify 'the knowledge

essential for school leaders to solve critical contemporary problems of practice'

(UCEA, 1992, 13). (Donmoyer et al, 1995, p. 1)

The first phase of the UCEA project resulted in seven general categories of knowledge

that were in the form of a set of documents called *Primis* (Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich,

1995). It is not my intent to review and/or evaluate this project, but I do question the

"assumption about the existence of a body of knowledge that, when learned and

understood, conferred on the knower a level of expertise not available to

nonprofessionals" (p. 2). This assumption about the existence of a privileged knowledge

base would point to reinforce traditionally constructed patriarchal power positions within

the framework of public education. I would also be concerned about the implications of

presenting this limited perspective as the dominant one for future educational leaders to

internalize during their university course work.

Another problem with the belief in an exclusive and privileged knowledge base is

that it may create further distance between the academic and field-of-practice worlds. An

elitist treatment of "a" knowledge base may increase the distance between the two worlds

by the elevating of the academic study of educational administration and the devaluing of

the practical experience of those in the field. Research and writing, either from those

interested in educational administration as an academic discipline or from the in-the-world

practitioners, are necessary for growth, but each world has its own focus and demands. It

appears to me that unless an individual practitioner is committed in his or her quest for a

greater understanding of leadership beyond minimal certification or licensure

requirements, he or she will not pursue this deeper investigation of educational leadership,

and this deeper understanding will not be experienced. What should happen is that

"...administrators of schools should develop a ready view about the theory of

organization, both to develop deeper understanding and to see the organization as a man-

made [sic] institution amenable to change" (Foster, 1986, p. 117). Unfortunately, this

deeper reflection on leadership and organization is not generally taking place, and the

traditional knowledge base is replicated as the "norm."

And what might these "norms" be? Michael Imber (in Donmoyer, Imber, &

Scheurich, 1995) frames the discussion in terms of three overlapping categories of

knowledge: (1) theoretical, consisting of specialized theory-based knowledge for

accomplishing fundamental goals of education; (2) technical, consisting of information

relating to the running of a school or school system; and (3) career, consisting of

knowledge that enhances the quality of the administrator's work life. By framing the

discussion in terms of these three categories, Imber may aid researchers in understanding

the role transition of beginning superintendents into the traditional bureaucratic structure

of public school administration. In fact, for those individuals comfortable with the status

quo in educational administration, Imber's thoughts are supportive.

Interestingly, although some researchers suggest that university preparation

programs were useless (Blumberg, 1985; Murphy, 1992), Imber's research stated that

"almost all of the administrators I talked to claimed that their training had been very useful

to them" (in Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995, p. 115).

Why, then, has a trend developed toward negative criticism of educational

leadership preparation? The answer may lie in the realm of Imber's tri-chotomy. I am

suggesting that formal university training programs socialize and acquaint future

superintendents fairly well in Imber's "technical knowledge" realm (i.e., traditional school

administration). Courses such as school law, finance, facilities, collective bargaining, and personnel are generally part of a future superintendent's formal study prior to certification or licensure, and these courses give an aspiring administrator an academic introduction to these technical areas.

Case studies, such as those presented by Marshall and Kasten (1994) and by Kowalski (1995b), are useful for presenting some of the dilemmas that one might encounter as one pursues a path through positions in educational administration. These types of experiences, dominated by the white male perspective, may enhance the technical knowledge realm for the candidate, providing he or she accepts this privileged viewpoint. Unfortunately, the rational, calm, critical, and clinical discussion and reflection that takes place in an academic setting fails to give the candidate or beginning superintendent a sense of the passion, emotion, immediacy, ownership, and tension that occurs when these are personally experienced in their first "in-the-world" setting. These human experiences cannot be taught, but must be lived. van Maanen (1997) says it this way: "As James (1896) observed long ago, 'knowledge about' and 'experience of' a phenomenon imply quite different levels of understanding" (p. 16).

As future superintendents interact with one another, either in the formal setting of the classroom, or in other informal educational settings and/or administrative meetings, Imber's category of "career knowledge" is transmitted to the potential superintendent. Such items may include how to fit into a bureaucracy, what types of personal benefits may result from moving into the superintendency, and generally how to relate to other stakeholders of a school district.

I am suggesting that one of the weak links in educational administrator preparation programs – and the focus of the academic discipline versus field-of-practice debate – may lie in the realm of Imber's "theoretical knowledge" domain. Imber states that "no one spoke of the difficulties in trying to change bureaucracies or schools" or "nor did any implicit theoretical foundation for practice emerge from any of the conversations beyond the most experientially-based generalizations discussed above" (in Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995, p. 114). So, where does this type of discussion fit into the socialization of a beginning superintendent and his or her role transition?

Reflecting upon future directions of studies on the superintendency, I agree with others that, first, the superintendency, as it is presently constructed, is best viewed as a unique position in and of itself within the general area of educational administration (Ortiz & Marshall, 1988; Glass, 1998). I believe that the beginning superintendent is at the point of intersection between the academic discipline of scholarly study and the field-of-practice debate. The debatable knowledge-base discussion about educational administration needs to clearly identify when it is discussing information that might have some general application to administrative positions and when it offers information for each specific position in educational administration.

The second point of emphasis that needs to occur in the discussion of the superintendency is that the superintendency encompasses a series of fluid, overlapping, and integrated phases. Because there is so much to learn and experience about the technical, career, and theoretical knowledge realms, no one superintendent – neophyte or veteran – could possibly know all there is to be learned. The "training" of a superintendent should be framed as one of continuing educational opportunities, challenges, and dilemmas

throughout the phases of one's career. "As researchers have time and again demonstrated, any one occupation turns out to be many occupations involving different kinds of individual skills and talents and taking people along different paths over the course of a career" (van Maanen, 1977, p. 47).

I envision the phases of a superintendent's career as a continuum, stretching from the candidate-in-preparation to the post-retirement years. This is not to suggest that a clear, linear flow of socialization occurs, but for purposes of communication a schematic could be developed as follows:

Candidate - Beg. Superintendent - Veteran - Nearing-Retirement - Post-Retirement

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This research focuses specifically on the "stage" of the beginning superintendency.

Much of the traditional literature on the superintendency has reflected the views of those white males who could be described as veteran administrators and those who have written from the nearing-retirement and post-retirement side of the continuum or by those university scholars who stand apart from and reflect on "the" superintendency (Murphy & Forsyth, 1999). This may result in a traditionally generalized narrative about the superintendent's position and replication of traditional practices of educational administration. van Maanen (1977) states, "most models of socialization ignore or gloss over the specific content that is said to be transferred in the setting and concentrate instead on detailing the process by which individuals are taught a generalized 'such and such' about 'this and that'" (p. 38). Unfortunately, those veteran, nearly-retired, or post-retirement individuals (VNPs) may have forgotten those early years. VNPs appear to

focus on their more recent experiences and, perhaps, their "settled in" and essentialized interpretations about the general regularities of the position (Cubberley, 1922; Carter, Glass, & Hord, 1993; & Carter & Cunningham, 1997).

I discovered an exception to that pattern in the work of Jentz (1980, 1982), who discusses entry into the superintendent's position. My investigation shares Jentz's notion that the time of entry may be a critical moment in an individual's career when his or her understanding and conceptualization of his or her unique superintendency is being constructed, tested and challenged, and deconstructed.

This period could be a time, one might assume, of maximum stress and creativity "the 'breaking-in' phenomenon (i.e. occurring when individuals first join an organization) represents a prototypical crisis period which occurs regularly throughout an individual's career" (van Maanen, 1977, p. 15).

The interest, research, and writing about the superintendency by university scholars is a helpful basis for understanding "the" position of public school superintendent. The debate between university scholars and immersed practitioners is an important ingredient for meaningful discussion. However, as Bates (1980) concludes, based on his summary of an opinion expressed in an article by Donald Erickson, "the continually shifting agglomerate of ideas within educational administration possesses no particular conceptual unity; there is no generally accepted paradigm which can provide a sense of coherence and direction within the field" (p. 2).

Perhaps the dialogue between university scholars and VNP practitioners points out important options for the deconstructions and constructions of the superintendency for the new practitioner. This idea comes from my belief that "what we know always has

something to do with who we are, where we have been, who has socialized us, and what we believe" (Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995, p. 3).

And what are some of the alternative voices saying about educational administration, leadership, and the superintendency? Callahan (1962) divided the development of the superintendency into four periods: (1) 1865-1909 – The superintendent as scholarly educational leader; (2) 1910-1929 – The superintendent as business manager; (3) 1930-1953 – The superintendent as educational statesman [sic] in a democratic school; and (4) 1954-1965 – The superintendent as educational realist. Updating this historical sequence, Chapman (1997) added 1965-1996 – The superintendent as practitioner of survival. This 1965-1996 time period has provided challenges not only to the superintendency, but also to most institutions, public and private. In my review, the diversity of new voices addressing the public school superintendency appeared to surface from the mid-1980s. These are the voices of "contemporary portrayals" presenting new directions and thinking about educational leadership. And what are some of these new voices saying?

Marshall (1995) provides four viewpoints that provide a convenient beginning with which to challenge traditional bureaucratic constructions of the public school superintendency. She identifies these four viewpoints as (1) the politics of knowledge; (2) the feminist critique; (3) the challenge to bureaucracy; and (4) the use of critical theory. These four viewpoints raise "critical questions left unasked and unanswered by the recent efforts to review leadership theory and research for education" (p. 486). These four viewpoints deserve brief comment.

"An awareness of the politics of knowledge causes one to consider the

relationships between knowledge and power" (Scherr, in Chapman, 1997, p.227).

Marshall (1995) states that some leadership theorists still continue to assert that leadership

is value-free. Thus, these theorists contribute to the replication and perpetuation of

inequalities in the access to and discussion of educational leadership. To treat leadership

like a commodity is to control the discourses and definitions about leadership in order to

favor certain individuals and exclude others (Marshall, 1995). The consideration of power

may sometimes become overlooked, be purposefully ignored, or made invisible, but this

discussion should not be silenced. "Power must be a dominant concern of leadership; the

modern organization, with its rules and hierarchies, develops a technological mentality that

limits autonomy and freedom of action and shackles vision and the critical spirit" (Foster,

1986, p. 183).

The quest for a knowledge base discussed earlier may be seen as an attempt to

create additional privileged metanarratives to be passed on to students preparing for the

superintendency. In addition, critical theorists would argue that leadership is for creating

social justice and not for perpetuating the inequalities and training children receive in

public schools for the benefit of American capitalist society (Marshall, 1995). Heifetz

(1994) addresses the value-laden nature of leadership when he states,

> We may like to use the word "leadership" as if it were value-free,
>
> particularly in an age of science and mathematics, so that we can
>
> describe far-ranging phenomena and people with consistency. . .
>
> We cannot talk about a crisis in leadership and then say leadership is value-free.
>
> (pp. 13-14)

Marshall's discussion (1995) on "The Feminist Critique" (p. 487) covers a great

deal of ground. Although Marshall uses the word "the" to introduce the title of her article,

I have found a great diversity in feminist perspectives. A title suggesting "the" feminist

critique does not convey the wide range of feminist perspectives. However, this section

addresses some critical elements that appear to be consistently addressed by many feminist

writers. "Leadership theory was developed by White males doing observations of White

males holding leadership positions in bureaucracies" (p. 487). Marshall cuts right to the

quick when she writes, "the behaviors, perspectives, and values of women, minorities, and

others who could not get through socialization and selection systems in bureaucracies to

attain leadership positions were, therefore, excluded from theory and research in

leadership" (p. 487).

It seems appropriate to comment further about the privileging of the white male

perspective and the silencing of the voices of women and other marginalized groups in the

current educational administration literature. Gosetti and Rusch (1995, in Dunlap &

Schmuck) discuss the lack of textbooks written by women and marginalized others on

"leadership, the principalship, the superintendency, the professoriate, or educational

administration" (p. 24). I found that this situation might be changing, for I had some

success at finding texts by female authors (Ortiz, 1982; Noddings, 1984; Shakeshaft,

1989; Regan, 1990; Marshall, 1992; Restine, 1993; Beck, 1994; Marshall & Kasten, 1994;

Dunlap & Schmuck, 1995; Regan & Brooks, 1995; Johnson, 1996; Chapman, Ed., 1997).

The publishing dates of these texts may offer an important clue to the direction of current

educational administration literature and may signal an end to the silencing of the voices of

females. But serious consideration and actual implementation of such ideas may be a ways

into the future. Unfortunately, aside from the work of Ortiz, I found the educational

leadership literature about minorities or marginalized others in educational administration

to be non-existent. Gosetti and Rusch also comment that the texts for professors of

educational leadership (Foster, 1986; Murphy, 1992) basically document "a traditional

privileged perspective of the knowledge, skills, and values that governed the practice of

school administrators for fifty years" (p. 26). Perhaps between then and now, the times

may be a changin'.

Even with this increase in texts by female writers, I believe the landscape which

many women and minorities may experience is one in which they are truly strangers

(Gosetti & Rusch, 1995, in Dunlap & Schmuck). These same authors sum up the present

situation quite well when they say,

> In our own case we found that, despite the increasing number of
>
> women and minorities in school leadership positions, feminist
>
> theoretical perspectives, multi-ethnic viewpoints, and gendered
>
> standpoints were rarely included in our preparation and
>
> professional development as school administrators. (p. 20)

One of the purposes of my research was to find out through in-the-world

experiences of the research subjects if some of the features attributed to feminist

leadership styles – i.e., caring, nurturing, relationship building, empowering of others –

would be part of the leadership styles of these beginning superintendents (Regan &

Brooks, 1995). This was of concern for me because some of the current leadership

literature that I had recently read in my own university leadership courses stressed that one

of the major challenges of contemporary leadership was to become more caring, nurturing,

collaborative, and so forth (Block, 1993; Heifetz, 1994; Senge, Kleiner, Roberts, Ross, &

Smith, 1994; O'Toole, 1995). Assuming that other superintendents may have read this

same recent body of leadership literature, I felt these ways of viewing leadership might

surface during my observations. But what if they did not? Would I experience traditional

leadership models? With the female participants, would I see the newer perspectives

toward leadership, or would I observe behaviors in which those female superintendents

would become just like their male predecessors (Harding, 1986)?

The challenge to bureaucracy lies in the questioning of the bureaucratic

hierarchical model as "the" logical form for organizations. Feminist and critical theory

critiques would draw attention to the privileged position that scientific and positivistic

ideologies hold on educational organizational thinking, and these theorists would be

concerned about the replication of such a limited perspective.

> Education is considered to be a social institution designed for social
>
> and cultural reproduction and transformation. Drawing from Marxist
>
> philosophy, critical theory, and feminist theory, knowledge generated
>
> through this mode of research [scientific, positivistic] is an ideological
>
> critique of power, privilege, and oppression in areas of educational practice.
>
> (Merriam, 1998, p. 4)

Although not specifically defined by Marshall (1995), the bureaucracy being challenged

implies a general form of organization which exhibits such qualities as top-down control,

specialization of tasks, strict compliance to institutional rules and procedures, assumed

rationality of individual and organizational behaviors, and formal chain-of-command

relations with little social interaction between different hierarchical levels. Marshall

suggests an "educational model" which creates "organizational patterns that enhance nurturance and collaboration" (p. 489).

Tightly controlled bureaucracies appear to have been adopted from business and industry "as if production lines for widgets had parallels with helping children learn" (p. 489). This industry model was adopted some time during the beginning of the twentieth century (Callahan, 1962; Hoy & Miskel, 1987). Some more current voices are suggesting the organizational structure of schools should be conceived as a mosaic, tapestry, web, or double helix (Kanter, 1983; Restine, 1993; Regan & Brooks, 1995; Pounder, 1998). Some are questioning the life span of bureaucracy (Ferguson, 1984; Clark & Meloy, 1989; Pinchot & Pinchot, 1994).

It appears that the negative critique of the bureaucratic model has intensified during the past two decades. However, bureaucracy will not go away because of these discourses, nor should it. I believe it would be reasonable to investigate if any such models of school organizational structure, such as those suggested above, are being attempted or practiced in schools. The answer to that question is beyond the scope of this study, but referring to one of the opening citations for this chapter, my hunch is that these models are probably only sparsely and sporadically being attempted, if at all. School-reform writers should not be discouraged, however, because of the lag between an idea's generation, its implementation, and its possible acceptance. Because of the immense nature of such a change and the intractable nature of school organizations, such structural changes as those suggested would take the courage and commitment of an exceptional leader(s), stakeholders in the entire school community, and a really sophisticated and knowledgeable

board of education. "Changing the man-made [sic] constructs requires that battles be fought" (Foster, 1986, p. 184).

One of the assumptions that the writers who are questioning traditional bureaucratic hierarchies want to challenge is "that organizations are not only real but also distinct from the actions, feelings, and purposes of people" (Greenfield, 1975, p. 59). These writers are suggesting that people and organizations are inseparable, and they seem to support the notion that "a mistaken belief in the reality of organizations has directed our attention from human action and intention as the stuff from which organizations are made" (p. 59). Foster (1986) applies this thinking to educational leadership when he says

. . . because schooling is pervasive and has a strong impact on us,

administrators of schools should develop a ready view about the

theory of organization, both to develop deeper understanding and

to see the organization as a man-made [sic] institution amenable

to change. (p. 117)

Critical theorists search for "inequality and oppression, questioning assumptions that governments set up institutions (like schools) to guarantee equal opportunity" (Marshall, 1995). I would go further to suggest that government institutions are designed to keep or even increase power located within the present bureaucratic structures or the individuals who hold these positions. As an example of this governmental desire to maintain the present system of inequality and oppression in public schools, I would point to the cleverly disguised "accountability" reform initiative sweeping through the legislatures across the country. One manifestation of this is the use of proficiency testing. While I agree that some standardized testing of this nature may be warranted, I find it

unfortunate that the results of these high stakes tests are often condemnations by the media and state legislators. The stigma is most often heaped upon those students, districts, and superintendents who "fail to perform well on those tests." The irony is that "working- and under-class children are not expected to *become* middle class; they are expected to subscribe to the notion that there *should be* different groups in a society, some meant to produce and others to control" (Foster, 1986, p. 184).

There is a body of research that supports the connection between socio-economic level of a student's family and the student's performance on standardized tests. The "worst" districts are those usually associated with impoverished urban areas. Critical theorists would see this as just another way to attack those who have already been beaten up. By selling the importance of being successful on a standardized, state-legitimated testing instrument, the state legislators are indoctrinating others to accept a "set of assumptions, theories, practical activities, a world view through which the ruling class [the legislators] exerts its dominance" (p. 101).

When I first began to investigate the problem of power distribution in organizations, much of the literature addressed this issue from the perspective of such items as teacher empowerment, site-based management, the use of more collaborative and cooperative methods of decision-making, and both top-down and bottom-up reform efforts. All of these models failed to address genuinely the issue of power. While these reforms appeared to affect power relationships in organizations, the suggestions were not satisfactory because I felt they were simply cosmetic adjustments to an intractable organizational structure.

Because these searches about organizational designs did not seem to provide the answers to my questions about better ways of organizing public schools, I began to wonder if I was searching for some organizational Shangri-La. Foster (1986) added some clarity to why I might be disappointed. "The political system is tied to the concept of equality of representation. However, this cannot be carried over to the economic system, where inequality of wealth is legitimated as necessary" (p. 84). My problem has been that I have been attempting to philosophically combine two different "worlds" into my own hybrid organizational construction.

In public education some of the more recent leadership critiques attempt to create an empowered world, based on democratic beliefs, but the capitalistic economic system confronts those efforts head-on. When reforms suggested along egalitarian lines are placed against the powerful capitalistic economic system, it is no wonder that they are just given lip service. I believe the organizational Shangri-La can be found, but the resolve to change an embedded cultural belief system such as free-enterprise capitalism is not going to happen. I would be hypocritical to "talk this philosophical talk," because I would not be willing to "walk this talk." This issue is much too large for this study, but this fundamental argument for organizational re-design needed at least to be presented.

Relationships

As this study moves toward the discussion of socialization, the personal impact on relationships of moving into the superintendency is an issue that needs critical reflection (Regan & Brooks, 1995). Blumberg (1985) is one of the few authors I located who discusses the emotional costs of the superintendency. He states that "the more open the setting, the more highly conflictual the relationships within it will be" (p. 30). The current

trend toward more involvement by others within the organization – parents, community members, and activists – is pushing the public school system toward the perceptions of more accessibility and accountability. However, relationships with any of these groups could become volatile or controversial at any time. Callahan (1962) referred to this volatility as the vulnerability of the public school superintendent.

At the time of employment, one might assume that a good fit or match has been made between the board of education and the new superintendent. However, "the situations in which a good fit between superintendent and school system is likely to be upset are those in which the system's view of what the basic operating style of the superintendent should be conflicts with the view of the superintendent holds for himself [sic]" (Blumberg, 1985, p. 44).

What are some of the situations that could arise which cause conflict and emotional stress for the beginning superintendent? Blumberg lists several stress-inducing situations that fall into Imber's technical knowledge domain of his tri-chotomy. The beginning superintendent is confronted with a new context and a seemingly never-ending overload of information. There are extensive demands on one's time, demands of accessibility, and the need to keep track of a large number of things, all at one time.

Coupled with these stressors, "there was a change in personal relationships and friendships, as well as a newly developed inhibition over one's ability to be open with colleagues" (p. 123). This might be especially traumatic and difficult for those individuals who had lengthy and successful teaching careers. Ironically,

> There is something sad about it: here are people who were motivated to
>
> seek a position from which they could apply their knowledge and expertise

to create a better school experience for youngsters, only to find that the

politics of winning and losing are more prominent in their lives than what

may occur in the schools. (p. 63)

One of the areas of the relationship discussion that has been disturbing to me is the

lack of understanding of the difference between dealing with people as individuals and

dealing with people when they are part of a collectivity, i.e., a union. Current laws and

organizational structures have created personal relationship dilemmas that were not

present in pre-1980's discussions about educational administration.

Since the New York State Taylor Law in 1967, almost all states now have laws

that require that school boards bargain collectively with teachers' unions. Blumberg states

that teachers and the superintendent have become adversaries but not enemies, yet the

distinction that Blumberg makes between adversary and enemy is a fine one. Although

these words may be commonly used as synonyms, Blumberg seems to consider an

adversary an individual who may be less prone to argumentation, disagreement, and

conflict after the resolution of a problem than an enemy. There appears to be the ability for

reconciliation after the disagreement has been resolved. However, regardless of

Blumberg's distinction, there is a barrier between the parties in traditionally constructed

bureaucracies that may prevent working relationships from having the open, cooperative,

and collaborative characteristics prescribed by the current leadership literature. And even

under the most ideal circumstances, as Blumberg says, "You can't have it both ways. You

can't play adversary today over issues such as working conditions or grievances, and

colleagues tomorrow over curriculum problems" (p. 97).

One of the differences between the theory and practice dialogues in educational leadership is that recent literature and policies call for organizational relationships that are more cooperative, collaborative, empowering, and fostered by site-based management, but these types of relationships may be in conflict with traditional bureaucratic organizational settings (Noddings, 1984; Clark & Meloy, 1989; Restine, 1993; Beck, 1994; Donmoyer, Imber, & Scheurich, 1995; Regan & Brooks, 1995; Marshall, Patterson, Rogers, & Steele, 1996; Pounder, 1998). Existing issues of power between unions and management have exacerbated this conflict. I am not arguing either for or against collective bargaining. Instead, I am concerned that traditional constructions of bureaucracy and the laws that support such hierarchical arrangements are inherently designed to create an organizational mechanism for conflict and confrontation between labor and management. The issue of power and theories of distribution (Young, 1990) may create an impediment to the cooperation and collaboration heralded as necessary to achieve current educational objectives. In most locations collective bargaining agreements have actually created barriers to cooperation and collaboration because they dictate decisions, the nature of relationships for both union and administration, and the control over many areas of school life. One need only read any negotiated agreement between a board of education and a teachers' union for support of this statement. Believing that individuals with power will not divest themselves of it, I am suggesting that true educational cooperation and collaboration cannot take place until this question of power is addressed.

Relationships will be affected by the formal arrangements of the organizational context. "When the new or altered structure has as its basic tenet the formal legitimization of adversarialism, one can predict, between the newly legitimated adversaries, a distancing

of relationships" (Blumberg, 1985, p. 123). Blumberg further warns that friendship introduces an element into work relationships that may create problems down the line and that educational leaders cannot get too close to people with whom they may have to do battle in the future. One of the ways to reduce or eliminate these structural barriers might be to design an organization that limits formal collective power structures and arrangements for both sides. Given the size and power of teacher unions countrywide and the potential for management abuses toward teachers, the real quest for open, more collegial, more cooperative organizations may only be a theoretical fantasy. This description of organizational structure does not paint a pretty picture for those beginning superintendents who might want to strive for a more equal organizational structure.

Blumberg (1985) calls our attention to yet another potential point of conflict when he notes that "Some of them [superintendents], though, are loners by predisposition" (p. 182). This statement, made during the mid-1980s, may have described a type of person (white, male, middle-class) who was attracted to a traditional hierarchical power position. Now, in the late 1990's, we may be seeing a significant change in the kinds of individuals who are being sought by local school boards. In examining several brochures from school districts searching for superintendent candidates during 1998 (Appendix C1, C2, C3), I found that leadership profiles or desired qualifications included "visible, approachable leader, superior communicator, visionary, able to work with others, people skills, and able to work effectively in the area of human relations." These are hardly the characteristics of a loner. I will suggest below that these more cooperative qualities now being sought are ones that have been generally attributed to those gendered as feminine, and this shift may provide women with an improved opportunity to become school superintendents.

Socialization

The primary focus of this study is the socialization of beginning public school superintendents, and it must be remembered throughout that socialization is a process, not an event.

> The processes of socialization run a range from activities that are highly
>
> direct, such as a formal indoctrination process, to those that are highly
>
> indirect and subtle, where the individual is more or less responsible for
>
> sensing out and conforming to system norms and expectations.
>
> (Blumberg, 1985, p. 39)

van Maanen (1977) states it this way: "Organizational socialization is the manner in which individuals become members and continue as members of an organization – both from the standpoint of the individual and from the standpoint of others in the organization" (p. 15). These processes are not smooth, clean, linear processes, but are fluid, ever-changing phenomena that might alter their forms, sequences, and directions at any given moment.

Further, the hypothetical question might be asked if anyone can arrive at complete socialization, even in a supposedly well-defined institutional role? I suspect that complete socialization may not be achievable. van Maanen in his text about socialization in organizational careers states that "any one occupation turns out to be many occupations involving different kinds of individual skills and talents and taking people along paths over the course of a career" (p.47). However, for the purposes of this portion of the discussion, a rationalistic, positivistic sequence in the socialization process for the beginning public school superintendent will be described, although this sequence may never really occur.

Before I embark on a review of some of the typical literature about traditional

models of the socialization process, I want to briefly mention that socialization and role

transition may be more difficult for some women and ethnic and racial minorities. From

the previous discussion of superintendency literature, I have noted Hart's discussion of the

traditional "emphasis on traits, situations, behaviors, and contingencies" (Hart, 1995, in

Dunlap & Schmuck, p. 108) that are embedded in the writings of the white, male, and

privileged voice in educational administration. But what insight for role transition might

this body of literature provide for beginning leaders "falling outside the traditional

conceptions of school leaders" (p. 108)?

Hart makes readers aware that the socialization process may be different for

certain populations of beginning administrators, and she also alerts readers to several

problems encountered by beginning female principals, such as negative expectations from

those whom they are assigned to lead and the lack of attention to social context. The

Dunlap and Schmuck text (1995) provided the only literature I found that addressed the

unique challenges of socialization for females and minorities (see pp. 105-196).

The literature from the traditional models (white-male) of the socialization process,

which will be addressed shortly, appears to sanitize and rationalize the process to those

who are about to newcomers in a superintendent's position. The beginning superintendent

should be alerted that he or she may experience apprehension, despair, hopelessness, and

confusion during the initial days on the job (van Maanen, 1977). These feelings of anomie,

– i.e., disorientation, anxiety, or isolation – are quite "normal" and should not be a

surprise for those who have just recently felt comfort and confidence in a previous

educational position. Unfortunately, "newcomers to an organization are blind to many of

the defining characteristics of their immediate setting" (p. 22). In a comforting and

encouraging statement, van Maanen creates hope during these times of trial by stating, "so

long as the deviations from the expected order are of short duration and of slight

magnitude, the person has few problems in adjusting" (p. 27).

Research on institutional socialization usually identifies three "steps" in the

process: socialization prior to appointment; the significance of sponsors, mentors, and role

models; and socialization following appointment (Miklos, 1988). Through these stages,

socialization or enculturation is presumed to take place. Sarbin and Allen (1968) make a

fine distinction between socialization and enculturation. For these authors socialization is

the process of learning during childhood. "After socialization, the kind of social learning

that takes place may best be called enculturation, the acquisition of roles and positions

within the society" (p. 547). The focus of Sarbin and Allen's study is on the ways in which

the values, norms, rules, and operating procedures that govern a specific contextual

location for the practice of educational administration are communicated, interpreted, and

learned (Miklos, 1988).

As I further investigated the literature on socialization, the term continued to gain

refinement. The socialization taking place for the beginning superintendent is actually a

phenomenon that might be better identified as resocialization (Khleif, 1975). Minkler and

Biller (1979) have referred to resocialization as a "restructuring of the self" (p. 134).

Greenfield (1977), in his research on administrative candidacy, used the term "new-role

learning" (p. 30), and van Maanen (1977) called it the "breaking-in phenomenon" (p. 15).

The beginning superintendent has already been socialized as an educator (Miklos, 1988).

The beginning superintendent may become disoriented as he or she unlearns the values,

norms, and rules that were part of a previous professional career (Khleif, 1975). Blumberg

(1985) describes the process in language that refers to relationships when he says, "And

the psychological home in which he was once welcomed as an integral family member now

has room for him only as a visitor or sometimes an unwelcome guest" (p. 211).

Khleif (1975) describes this resocialization as a rite of passage, involving a

transformation of identity. In his study on the professionalization of future school

superintendents, he discusses a three-year program for developing and preparing public

school superintendents. The first year of the program seeks "to knock the classroom

orientation out of him – to make him see the total picture" (p. 303). The attempt of the

program is "to get a clean break with the occupational past" (p. 302). Individuals who

would promote this program would not support or recommend the disjointed preparation

programs that some future educational administrators may experience. Although no

program could completely prepare a person for the complex nature of a superintendency,

the program Khleif studied stresses the importance of a lengthy, practical preparation

program.

"There is no appeal to pieties about education and kids here; the appeal is to

tough-mindedness, to the theory and practice of power" (Khleif, 1975, p. 304). Although

the program appears to be harsh, this type of preparation and immersion into a

commitment to becoming a superintendent can be contrasted with what generally occurs in

the preparation of future superintendents. "In a sense, a goodly number of American

educators [administrators] cannot be said to be professionalized, for they get their

graduate training on the installment plan through a minimum of residency and an

abundance of summer or extension courses" (p. 306).

Minkler and Biller (1979) suggest that the education of today's professionals tends to be uneven, discontinuous, and often misleading. However, I would caution that this in no way should be a condemnation of university preparation programs, for there are many factors and explanations for the disjointed career paths of many individuals who aspire to the superintendency that are beyond the control of the university. Because the typical candidate's specific administrative preparation program may be one of discontinuity – i.e., extended over a number of years as part-time study – the resocialization that is needed for the beginning superintendent may not occur until he or she actually assumes the position of public school superintendent. "The implication for role learning is that the role must be learned as a total, organized cognitive pattern, a *Gestalt*, rather than in bits and pieces" (Sarbin & Allen, 1968). Khleif (1975) suggests that the program described in his research does accomplish resocialization for the superintendency, and the reader should keep in mind that the program was created to encompass a three-year time period. Sarbin and Allen use the example of the physician learning his or her role over a four-year period. The implication of this for the beginning superintendent is that his or her socialization process will take some time.

<div align="center">Role Theory</div>

The use of metaphors from drama are used extensively in the discussion about the roles that individual's play in their daily lives. As Jacques would say it, "All the world's a stage, And all the men and women merely players: They have their exits and their entrances, And one man [sic] in his [sic] time plays many parts"(Shakespeare, in Parrott, 1953, p. 532).

Why would resocialization be an important concept for the beginning superintendent to understand? This next section further refines the socialization process in terms of role theory and begins to answer the question about the importance of understanding the concept of resocialization for beginning public school superintendents. Role theory encompasses a broad spectrum, and it is not my intent to give theoretical attention and discussion to all areas of role theory. However, role theory is "most useful in providing a conceptual framework suitable for a discussion of personal interaction in organizations and institutionalized relationships" (Ortiz, 1982, p. 126). For Sarbin and Allen (1968) role theory "bridges the gap between the individual and the group, between personal history and social organization" (p. 490).

The definitions and discussions of "role" are extensive, and a total discussion of role is beyond the scope of this study. However, I will offer several definitions for special consideration. The role metaphor is drawn from the theater and denotes conduct that adheres to certain parts, rather than to the players who read or recite them (Sarbin & Allen, 1968).

Parsons (1951) makes an important distinction between status and role. By "status" Parsons means the positional phenomenon, referring to one's place in the relationship system. Parsons says that "role" refers to "a" relational aspect, meaning that it is what the actor does in his or her relations with others. Parsons calls this "status-role bundle" (p. 25) the basic unit of the social system.

Linton (in Gross, Mason, & McEachern, 1958) defines a role as representing "the dynamic aspect of status...When [the individual] puts the rights and duties which constitute the status into effect, he [sic] is performing a role" (p.12). Parsons states that:

A role…is a sector of the total orientation system of an individual actor

which is organized about expectations in relation to a particular interaction

context, that is integrated with a particular set of value-standards which

govern interaction with one or more alters [others] in the appropriate

complementary role. (p. 38)

Along with the definition of role theory and roles, there is usually a discussion and

definition of the term "actor." The actor is an abstract individual who fulfills a role

position (Getzels & Guba, 1954). Again, the breadth of the discussion on roles and actors

is limitless, and this research is not involved with that specific discussion.

The role and status definitions were selected for several important reasons. First,

there are references to roles having a dynamic status, rather than just a static status

(Parsons, 1951). "A status or position is a location in the social structure defined by

expectations for performance by an incumbent" (Sarbin & Allen, 1968, p. 551). Second,

the dramaturgical metaphor accents the idea of a performance in a role. Next, the

definitions emphasize a personal identification that a role is part of a total orientation

system. Fourth, these definitions state that there are values and norms involved in

performing one's roles. Finally, these definitions note that there are multiple roles for each

and every one of us. "During the course of a typical day a person enacts a large number of

roles successfully and two or more roles simultaneously" (p.551). Theoretically, the

multiplicity of roles could be expanded to include a wide range of possibilities for any

individual. Fortunately, the range of possible role behaviors is reduced from near infinity

to a small number because of contextual factors. I believe that the roles of the person in

the superintendency cannot be examined without the understanding of the multiplicity of

roles that a person experiences on a daily basis.

Finally, Linton (in Lindsey & Aronson, 1945) makes an important distinction

between ascribed and achieved roles. As an example of ascribed roles, Linton uses sex,

age, and kinship. These are the roles into which a person is born, or those that are thrust

upon him or her through no effort or desire on his or her part. Achieved roles are those

which require distinctive qualities, skills, and/or special training. Because the public school

superintendency is an achieved role, this is the aspect of role socialization that will be of

utmost importance. Linton stresses that this ascribed-achieved role is not a dichotomy, but

designates the end points on a continuum of types of roles.

Albeit that a given role has many aspects, such as culture shock, identity crisis,

role loss and role discontinuity (Minkler & Biller, 1979), the subsets of role theory that

will be discussed here are role conflict (Gross, Mason, & McEachern, 1958; Getzels &

Guba, 1954; Seeman, 1953; Sarbin & Allen, 1968), role strain (Goode, 1960), self-role

congruence, (Sarbin & Allen, 1968), role expectations (Sarbin & Allen, 1968), and role

shock (Minkler & Biller, 1979). Even though these subsets may be isolated and are

presented in this research as independent categories, they are not mutually exclusive.

These subsets do not exist as separate entities and much overlapping and integration exists

among them. These five areas were selected because I believe that the beginning

superintendent may experience these phenomena early in his or her tenure.

Seeman (1953) defined role conflict as "the exposure of the individual in a given

position to incompatible behavioral expectations" (p. 373). Although Seeman's

formulation of role conflict examined a single position, i.e., the school administrator,

Gross, Mason, and McEachern (1958) viewed the superintendency as a multiple-role

position. These researchers used the example of multiple-role positions, such as a person's

being a husband, father, and superintendent [sic]. Cuban (1998) states that "conflict is the

DNA of the superintendency" (p. 56).

Role conflicts occur when a person occupies two or more positions simultaneously

and when the role expectations of one are incompatible with the role expectations of the

other (Sarbin & Allen, 1968). In their study of role conflict for instructors in a military

teaching situation, Getzels and Guba (1954) defined role conflicts as situations that "are so

ordered that an actor is required to fill simultaneously two or more roles that present

inconsistent, contradictory, or even mutually exclusive expectations" (p. 165). In their

study of officers who were required to teach at Air University on the Maxwell Air Force

Base, Getzels and Guba suggested that an officer-instructor who thought of himself [sic]

as a teacher first and an officer second may be stripped of a general frame of reference for

decision making. This officer-instructor may be troubled because his [sic] decisions based

in terms of his [sic] teaching role are in conflict with those of his [sic] officer role. Gross,

Mason, and McEachern (1958) found that administrators' role conflicts arose out of their

attempts to satisfy the often mutually exclusive desires of teachers, parents, and school

board members. In today's increasingly pluralistic and diverse American society, it appears

that the difference between then and now is that there are more groups that are demanding

an audience with the public school superintendent.

What would be the consequences of role conflict? "Position incumbents who

perceive that they are exposed to role conflict will derive less gratification from the

occupancy of their position than position incumbents who do not perceive they are

exposed to role conflict" (Gross, Mason, & McEachern, 1958, p. 275), unless, of course,

they thrive on conflict. If an individual experiences role conflict, he or she may experience

less satisfaction with the job, may be less satisfied with his or her career, and may

experience more worry. Resolution of role conflict may be the use of excuses, lies, escape,

stalling, or illness to reduce this stress.

Goode (1960) offers an excellent discussion of role strain, defined as the difficulty

people experience in attempting to perform their role. Role strain is normal because the

individual's total role obligations are overdemanding (Goode, 1960). The term

"overdemanding" is used because of its connection with the economic concept of limited

resources and unlimited wants [demands]. Goode delineates various types of role strain

that occur both institutionally and personally; the types that occur even when role

demands are not onerous, difficult, or displeasing; occur for all individuals because they

take part in many different role relationships; and/or occur when each role relationship

demands several activities. This places the individual in a constant practice of role

bargaining, which is the constant selection among alternative behaviors. Consequently for

superintendents, contradictory performances may be required, such as conflicts in the

allocation of time, place or resources. The beginning superintendent may need to learn

how to cope with many of these contradictions as they occur.

Sarbin and Allen (1968) suggest five categories or adaptive modes for the

resolution of role strain. The individual may respond by attempting to change the external

ecology of the situation. These authors define these attempts to change the external

ecology as "instrumental acts." The individual may use such instrumental acts as

consulting a physician during an illness, praying, segregating specific aspects of a conflicting role, or even flight to reduce the level of role strain.

Sarbin and Allen term a second method for the reduction of role strain "attention deployment." Under attention deployment one of the incompatible roles is ignored. The authors use the example of a military chaplain being cast into the incompatible roles of being a minister who is supposed to be close to his or her congregation and of being an officer who is not supposed to become too familiar to his or her assigned troops. To reduce role strain the individual will ignore one of the conflicting roles by inattention to it.

A third technique for the reduction of role strain is to change the beliefs. This is understood to mean that a different meaning or interpretation is placed on the incompatible belief situations, making them compatible. In general terms, this may be construed as the rationalizing process that an individual might do to philosophically position a situation, event, argument, or phenomenon to fit one's ideological beliefs. Sarbin and Allen suggest that prioritizing the relative importance given to a role will help resolve the conflict. In other words, one role will be given preference over another.

The fourth method of resolving role conflict is the use of tranquilizers or releasers. Unfortunately through these methods, the role strain is not eliminated, and the role conflict situation will still remain.

Sarbin and Allen suggest that the final method of reducing role strain could be to make no adaptation or to make an unsuccessful adaptation. "In such case, cognitive strain will persist at a high level, and inability to reduce it will produce a variety of somatic and behavioral effects" (p. 543).

Goode (1960) defines the more institutionalized roles as "statuses" (p. 495).

"Entrance into certain very demanding statuses, those which require nearly continuous

performance, are subject to frequent crises or urgencies, and are highly evaluated"

(p. 492). Because the public school superintendency has often been described as a

"lightning rod position" or as "life in a fishbowl," the public school superintendency

arguably fits into Goode's definition of a status. Because of the pressure of such a

position, it could be assumed that the individual would seek to reduce his or her role

strain.

Goode suggests two main techniques for reducing role strain: "those which

determine whether or when he [sic] will enter or leave a role relationship" (p. 486) or

"those which have to do with the actual role bargain" (p. 486). The first technique of

reducing role strain may relate to an individual's decision not to enter the public school

superintendency in the first place or to leave the public school superintendency after only a

short tenure in the position. Pre-employment exposure to the concept of role strain may

offer individuals an opportunity to understand a crucial dynamic of the public school

superintendency. The second portion of Goode's techniques for reducing role strain would

be more appropriate after one has become a superintendent.

Role stress is slightly different, but closely related to role strain. Role stress is

defined as:

> . . . the tensions and stresses arising from (1) radical discrepancies between
>
> ideal or anticipated roles and roles which are actually encountered, or (2) the
>
> sudden and significant departures from familiar roles which are enacted

differently in the new situation or replaced altogether by new and unfamiliar roles.

(Minkler & Biller, 1979, p. 128)

Role strain and role stress may be reduced if an individual is able to "fit" the role in which

he or she is placed. This "fit" can be further defined as self-role congruence (Sarbin &

Allen, 1968). Self-role congruence is the interrelation of self and role. It has been

hypothesized that if an individual has a high degree of self-role congruence, then there

would be a high degree of job satisfaction and high performance. A problem with

determining self-role congruence is that one needs to be in a role before one can tell if self-

role congruence exists.

A phenomenon that may occur, however, is that one may experience self-role

*in*congruence. "In everyday language self-role incongruence is indicated by saying that a

person is not well suited to a particular role, that the job does not fit his [sic] personality,

or that he [sic] is a square peg in a round hole" (Sarbin & Allen, 1968, p. 524). If enacting

a role violates a person's self concept or values, then the role behavior may be regarded as

wrong, improper, immoral, or unbecoming to one's self. The self-role incongruence may

cause a variety of problems, such as psychological disorders, somatic dysfunction, lack of

performance, and lack of concentration. Self-role incongruence places a strain on both the

individual and the social system. The beginning superintendent may experience self-role

incongruence during the initial months of employment in the position.

Beginning superintendents will also experience role expectations, created both by

themselves and by others. Role expectations are defined by Sarbin and Allen as the "rights

and privileges, the duties and obligations, of any occupant of a social position in relation

to persons occupying other positions in the social structure" (p. 497). The concept of role

expectations is the conceptual bridge between social structure and role behavior, and these

expectations may vary from one segment of the population to another. "Role expectations,

then are collections - beliefs, subjective probabilities, and elements of knowledge - which

specify in relation to complementary roles the rights and duties, the appropriate conduct,

for persons occupying a particular position" (p. 498).

Early in his or her tenure, the beginning superintendent may experience a lack of

clarity in role expectations. In general, a lack of clarity in role expectations may lead to a

decrease in effectiveness, productivity, and satisfying social interaction (Sarbin & Allen,

1968). The specific type of lack of clarity that the beginning superintendent may

experience is the incongruity between the role performer's own expectations for his or her

role and the role expectations held by his or her audience. The first, and most important,

audience with which a beginning superintendent needs to gain clarity in role expectations

is his or her school board. If the role expectations between the beginning superintendent

and his or her school board begin to diverge or begin to be in conflict, then the beginning

superintendent will begin to experience what Sarbin and Allen call role dissensus. Role

dissensus will cause deterioration in superintendent-board relationships and a loss of

effectiveness on the part of the superintendent as a school leader.

What is role shock, and what is its importance to beginning superintendents?

Minkler and Biller (1979) define role shock "as the stresses accompanying either major

discrepancies between anticipated and encountered roles or the sudden and significant

departure from familiar roles which are 'played differently' in the new setting or replaced

altogether by new unfamiliar roles" (p. 125). These researchers place role shock in an

intermediary category between culture shock and identity crisis. It is not the purpose of

this section to discuss either culture shock or identity crisis, but to use these two concepts

for points of clarification in locating role shock. It "denotes a perception of sharp

discontinuity in stepping from one's role into another when continuity had been expected"

(p. 126).

Several characteristics that are specific to role shock are (1) that role shock usually

occurs within one's own familiar cultural setting, (2) that role shock results when there is

a loss of cues specifically concerned with the enactment of a specific role or group of

roles, and (3) that the source of role shock occurs when particular transactional exchanges

between a person and a society are disrupted (Minkler & Biller, 1979).

Minkler and Biller suggest the resurrection of the apprenticeship concept for the

socialization of individuals in order to lessen role shock. The beginning superintendent

may experience role shock when continuity is expected in the transition to the

superintendency, but discontinuity is experienced because of the multitude of demands that

are placed on the individual combined with the lack of exposure to coping mechanisms to

reduce role shock. Minkler and Biller describe this dilemma in this manner:

> On the intermediate level, however, these individuals may perceive
>
> both their selves and their environments as remaining relatively
>
> unchanged, while their roles – and hence the ways in which they relate
>
> to those environments – are disrupted and dramatically altered. (p. 129)

According to Minkler and Biller, role shock may result in two manifestations or

outcomes. The individual experiencing role shock may desire to revert to past roles. The

beginning superintendent may become more involved in specific building concerns rather

than face the larger challenges of the district because of his or her past history as a

building administrator. The beginning superintendent might become overly involved with

student concerns because of a past history as a classroom instructor. In some cases the

beginning superintendent may desire to leave the superintendency to return to a lower

level of administration or the classroom. Role shock may also manifest itself in some form

of physiological illness. Numerous ailments could arise as the result of stress. Minkler and

Biller discuss coronary heart disease as one result of role shock.

The propensity for role shock in the movement through careers in general, and

educational administration in particular, points to the need for easing the transitions both

into and out of the various roles that an individual encounters.

The understanding of role shock has several implications for superintendency

preparation. There is a need for easing the transitions both into and out of the work roles,

such as the movement from classroom to building administrator to superintendent.

Minkler and Biller propose "mutual help groups" (p.138) for cushioning role shock. In

education the concept of mentoring is used to identify these mutual help groups. Further,

these researchers suggest that even the terminology for role shock may help individuals

grasp and deal with the stress potential inherent in any number of major role disruption

situations.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Background

I began my investigation by locating potential participants for this study about

beginning superintendents in May of 1998. I desired to locate five beginning

superintendents who met the study requirements in the eight eastern-most counties of

Ohio. At this time I made an assumption that because of the assumed rapid turnover of

superintendents, the isolation and selection of the five participants for this study would

easily be accomplished in the ninety-six public schools districts that are located within this

eight-county area (Ohio Educational Directory, 1997-98). According to the Ohio

Educational Directory (1997-98), the sample of superintendents from the eight counties

would have estimated student populations of between 419 and 13,211.

I found that assumption about easily finding my five participants not to be

accurate, reminding me of the myths about superintendent tenure as stated by Cuban

(1998) that turnover may not be as rapid as is generally assumed. After calling seven of

the eight county superintendents, it became evident that the turnover and employment of

beginning superintendents in these areas was not going to occur within the time

parameters established for this study. In June of 1998 I called the Ohio School Boards

Association (OSBA) and requested a list of beginning superintendents for the entire state

of Ohio. Later that month the desired information was received (Appendix F). I began

contacting the individuals who were on the OSBA list, in order to ascertain if any of them

would fulfill the criteria set for the sample of this study, and if any of those individuals

meeting the required profiles would be interested and willing to participate in the study. Of the five individuals contacted, two were possibilities.

On July 1, 1998, I sent out a statewide e-mail (Appendix G), attempting to locate other individuals who might more closely match the criteria required for the study. Only one response came from this statewide request, and this individual was located at a distance that was prohibitive because of the amount of contact time needed for this study.

During this time, I began communicating to my dissertation chair that I was having difficulties and high anxiety about locating candidates for this study. My chair, Dr. Glorianne Leck, suggested that I begin looking into the western Pennsylvania area for beginning superintendents who might fit the desired profile. This search yielded three potential participants, two of whom consented to be part of the study. Toward the end of July, notification was received from the Youngstown State University's Human Subjects Research Committee that my Request for Exemption had been approved (Appendix H).

There were two difficulties with the sample requirements proposed in the research design for the participants of this study. One of the major problems for the study was the ten-year classroom teaching requirement. This criterion could not be met. However, the average length of the participants' teaching careers was nine years, with a range of five to seventeen years (Appendix I). Interestingly, this was almost identical to the mean number of years of classroom teaching that was found by Glass in his review of the Sclafini study on superintendents (Carter, Glass, & Hord, 1993). Because of this research, I felt that my sample would still be appropriate and yield the desired type of data.

The second difficulty was to locate individuals who had limited administrative experience, defined earlier as two years or less. The least amount of administrative

experience for the participants in my study was seven years, with the average years of

administrative experience being fourteen years. Again, referring to the Sclafini study in

Carter, Glass, and Hord (1993), Glass found that the participants in the Sclafini study had

an average of 9.5 years of administrative experience before becoming a superintendent.

I was surprised by these difficulties, but I believe my own original assumptions

about how one might achieve the superintendent's position were quite naïve at the time I

wrote my sample requirements. Quite frankly, I had generalized the career path process to

such a great extent that I assumed that a significant number of other beginning

superintendents had a career path profile similar to my own. However, I do not believe my

mis-generalized, limited perspective has made the meaning of the study any less valuable.

<div align="center">Population and Sample</div>

Because of criteria, time, and distance concerns, the population of beginning or

first year superintendents came from northeastern Ohio and western Pennsylvania.

According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992), this was "purposeful sampling" (p. 71). For

Fraenkel & Wallen (1996), this sample was considered a convenience sample. I had to be

careful because I generally "knew" about many of the districts in this area, and I was

personally acquainted with many of the superintendents in these counties. I needed to limit

the personal biases that I might have had about any district or individual in this study, and

I wished to remain as "objective" as possible when I accumulated the information, with

"objective" in quotes because I believe that any observation or interpretation of data will

be affected by the researcher's personal beliefs and experiences.

All potential participants were sent a screening questionnaire that contained the

specific criteria desired for this study (see Appendix D). Five superintendents meeting

these criteria were then selected for participation in this research. The decision to use five

participants was to give me research exposure to a range of diverse situations within the

time and distance parameters of the study.

The geographical area covered by the participants in the study spanned an

approximate radius of one hundred miles and five different counties in two states. The

districts ranged in size from approximately 590 to 8500 students. All of the districts were

located in towns or cities. None of these districts provided an assistant superintendent for

the participant. Although the depth of an ethnographic study on just one beginning

superintendent could not be achieved using five participants, the breadth of descriptions of

beginning superintendent's experiences was obtained.

As initially proposed for this study, the ideal candidate would have been a

beginning superintendent and would have had an extensive career, defined as ten or more

years, as a classroom teacher before moving into educational administration. Furthermore,

it was desirable that the participant be new to the superintendent's position and an

"outsider" to the district. Carlson (1972) and Ortiz (1982) identified individuals who have

achieved the superintendency in this manner as "career-bound" superintendents rather than

"place-bound" superintendents. I wished to have at least two or more female

superintendents and at least one racial minority superintendent as participants in the study.

Because of the profile of the superintendents desired, district size and demographics were

not considerations for this study. Again, it was the objective of this study to investigate the

process of how this small sample of beginning superintendents was constructing and

making sense of their new role as public school superintendent.

The Participants

The five participants met the following criteria required for this study: (1) they were all beginning superintendents, (2) they were all outsiders and career bound (Carlson, 1972; Ortiz, 1982), (3) they were never teachers in the districts in which they had become superintendents, (4) there were two females in the sample, and (5) there was one racial minority. The participants are identified by alphabetical letters and their districts by the corresponding Greek alphabet letter. There is no significance in these designations, other than the participants were assigned the alphabetical letters in the order of their agreement to participate in the study. Although two of the participants have doctoral degrees, only the designation "Superintendent" will be used. The participants ranged in age from 41 to 50, with a mean of 45.6 years of age.

Two of the five beginning superintendents had begun their superintendencies in August of 1998, and the beginning superintendent with the most time in the position had begun on July 1, 1997. One of the participants was an assistant superintendent but had been assigned the responsibilities of superintendent on March 1, 1998. This was a unique situation for this study because this participant had all the power of the superintendency, except for one area, and the official superintendent for the district was still employed by and present in the district. On December 1, 1998, this participant became the official superintendent for the district. This dynamic provided yet another rich data experience, as both individuals worked in the same location.

All individual and district identities are to remain anonymous and are to be treated with utmost confidentiality. It was not the purpose of this study to evaluate the beginning

superintendent in relationship to his or her job performance or the quality of the district

but to record the individual story of the person.

Design of the Study

I believe that a qualitative study was the most appropriate methodology for my

research on the role transition of beginning superintendents. "Qualitative research is an

effort to understand situations in their uniqueness as part of a particular context and the

interactions there" (Patton, 1985, p. 1). "Research that focuses on discovery and

understanding recognizes the existence of multiple realities" (Hargreaves, 1995, p. 45).

Qualitative research takes into consideration a wide spectrum of techniques:

"naturalistic inquiry, interpretive research, field study, participant observation, inductive

research, case study and ethnography" (Merriam, 1998, p. 5). Classification of qualitative

methods appears to be interrelated, cross-categorical, and blurred. I am placing my

phenomenological study under the "naturalistic inquiry" umbrella (Guba & Lincoln, 1985).

The time allotment for each participant was not designed with the idea of having one

beginning superintendent being the focus, and I did not want to immerse myself in just

one contextual setting.

"From the phenomenological perspective research, theory, and methodology must

be closely related" (Greenfield, 1975, p. 70). Phenomenological methodology would fall

under the blanket term of "naturalistic" inquiry, as proposed by Guba and Lincoln (1985).

In an attempt by Guba (1985) to legitimize the naturalist position, he expands upon seven

concepts of a new naturalistic research and methodology paradigm, introduced in the

work of Schwartz and Ogilvy (1979). Several of these concepts address and support

phenomenological, feminist, and/or critical theory methodologies. In discussing the

movement from simple to complex realities, Guba states, "It is in principle impossible to

separate any phenomenon from its environment without losing crucial aspects of meaning.

The whole is more than the sum of its parts" (p. 86).

I chose the phenomenological perspective because I wanted "the knowledge of

what it is [was] to be-in-the-world" (Brown, in Pinar & Reynolds, 1992, p. 48) for several

beginning superintendents. Brown connected this lifeworld dependency to

phenomenological study in several ways: "the subject of phenomenological viewing is that

of the everyday experience of those in the world" (p. 49); "phenomenology can be

understood as the philosophical examination of lived experience" (p. 50); and

"phenomenological investigation illuminates contextualized humanity" (p. 51).

"Researchers in the phenomenological mode attempt to understand the meaning of

events and interactions to ordinary people in particular situations" (Bogdan & Biklen,

1992, p. 34). Further, "phenomenologically based research...aims at dealing with the

direct experience of people in specific situations" (Greenfield, 1975, p. 71). The people in

this study were those career teachers who have become public school superintendents, and

the specific situation investigated was the transition period of their public school

superintendency.

There are several views as to how one constructs social reality. Greenfield (1975)

offers some thoughts about organizational structures and the individual's ability to create

meaning within them. He begins with a discussion of two views of social reality: reality as

a natural system and reality as a human invention. Greenfield identifies reality as a human

invention and therefore, as belonging to the phenomenological perspective. "The

phenomenological view of reality contrasts sharply with that of systems theory" (p. 66). –

those philosophies that posit ultimate, knowable, and everlasting social truths and realities

(i.e., positivism). Greenfield's use of the term "systems theory" is historically situated in

the 1960s. Today, the term has a different connotation, such as chaos theory and systems

thinking (see Wheatley, 1992; Senge, 1994).

The phenomenological view leads to the concept of organizations as "invented

social reality" (Greenfield, 1973, p. 556). What I attempted to observe was how the

beginning superintendents were inventing and interpreting the world around them in the

day-to-day events that they experienced. "Phenomenologically based research . . . aims at

dealing with the direct experience of people in specific situations (Greenfield, 1975, p. 71).

Because of this assumption and perspective that individuals create their own social

realities, I also wanted to see to what extent the beginning superintendents in my study

were attempting to make an impact on the organizational structure and relationships

among individuals of the institution they had just entered. What were some of the plans

they had for the district? If we assume that people do not think and act in the same ways

and believe in the same things, then the phenomenological method offers a more

appropriate research methodology for helping us understand how particular individuals

make meaning of their positions in organizations, how they interpret events and

information within their contexts, and how they view and enact power relationships within

organizations. The phenomenological perspective may encourage individuals, including the

study subjects, to really question who they are, what they believe, and from whence these

beliefs originate.

We could view power relationships from several perspectives. If we assume

individuals with power in organizations are not likely to be willing to either reduce or give

away that power, then we may appropriately suspect that modifications in power

structures in organizations may not be possible within present bureaucratic organizational

structures, and the status quo will remain. We could also assume that educational leaders

could view power relations from perspectives that allow for the empowering of others.

This perspective might allow for more creativity and change in organizational power

arrangements. My quest is to explore what avenues of individual thinking may deconstruct

and reconstruct organizational structures and make them more responsive to alleviating

power inequities and related abuses of power.

The thoughts above are not to suggest that we go down a positivistic, scientific

path of organizational analysis to find pathologies, create a diagnosis, and render a

prescription. Schein (1973) states that this type of organizational analysis is "one set of

motives and values which is in conflict with another set of motives and values. There is no

abstract entity called 'the' organization which can be held accountable – only people" (pp.

780-781). The critical-theory, feminist, and constructivist paradigms have helped with re-

thinking and re-conceptualizing organizations from a more human perspective. Regardless

of how one feels about critiques such as these, their skepticism has given us healthy and

necessary new voices to enter the discussions on leadership, organizations, relationships,

and power.

It might be said that phenomenological and feminist methodologies share similar

perspectives. "Feminist methodology offers a way to expand the range of criticism of our

social systems" (Hargreaves, 1995, p. 48). Both feminist and phenomenological

methodologies tend to assert that knowledge is not discovered by the detached and

unbiased observer and that knowledge is not hidden and then discovered by knowing "the

way" (Harding, 1986; Hargreaves, 1995). Feminist methodology displaces expectations of

linearity, clear authoritative voice, and closure and assumes that it is impossible to

separate the structure and thematic content of thought from the historical and material

conditions shaping the lives of its producers (Hargreaves, 1995).

The research for this study was designed to capture the in-the-world experiences

of the beginning superintendents as much as possible, understanding my own limitations

and biases. Brown (1992), basing his statement on the work of van Maanen, issues a

similar caution when he "criticizes ethnographic researchers who mistakenly assume that

they capture the 'true settings' of children and teachers through their research

methodology" (p. 53). Further, "the 'real' world is not like a 'grand machine' or a 'clock,'

but like a holographic image in which every piece contains complete information about the

whole. While the whole is more than the sum of the parts, each part contains the whole

within itself" (Guba, 1985, pp. 86-87). The hologram is an interesting metaphor to use in

regard to the superintendency because it suggests that there are numerous images that can

be revealed by the various angles from which to view the hologram. Each of the beginning

superintendencies discussed in this study might be viewed as a hologram.

A third movement that was discussed by Guba was the movement from linear to

mutual causality. This aspect of naturalistic inquiry is similar to that of some feminist

methodology (e.g. Hargreaves, 1995). Guba comments that the simple push-pull model of

causality "gives way to the notion of mutual causality, with feedback *and* feedforward,

characterized by simultaneous influencing of factors over time" (p. 87). Finally, he

introduces a unique concept when discussing the movement from objective to perspectival

views. This is unique because so often the opposite of objectivity is assumed to be

subjectivity. However, as Guba states, "Although objectivity is an illusion, the alternative

is not subjectivity but perspective. No single viewpoint – even a discipline – provides

more than a partial picture" (p. 87). The research for this study uses a phenomenological

perspective and presents nothing more than one of these partial pictures – the professional

lives of five beginning superintendents during a certain specific period of time.

Similarly, borrowing from the field of sociology and the pioneering work of Glaser

and Strauss (1967), I borrowed aspects of "grounded theory" from Glaser and Strauss for

my methodology on the socialization of the beginning public school superintendent.

Grounded theory attempts to develop theory from the data collected during the study.

"Generating a theory from the data means that most hypotheses and concepts not only

come from the data, but are systematically worked out in relation to the data during the

course of the research" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 6). van Maanen (in van Maanen,

Dabbs, & Faulkner, 1982) would support grounded theory because he states that

"research is inherently a social and cultural process with deeply rooted moral, political,

and personal overtones" (p. 14). Continuing, he makes a statement that succinctly sums up

why I selected a qualitative method for this research: "If one knew at the outset of a study

precisely what it was one wanted to discover and how one should go about such

discovery, most qualitative researchers would say, 'Why bother?' " (p. 20).

Skrtic (1985) offers a meaningful distinction between *a priori* research and

grounded theory research. In *a priori* [scientific] research, "data are used to prove or

disprove a theory" (p. 193). In grounded theory, "theory is derived from (grounded in) the

data" (p. 193). Glaser and Strauss (1967) state that grounded theory consists of the

elements of categories, properties, hypotheses, and integration. A caveat may be in order

here about the use of grounded theory as the methodology for this study. I would hope that other researchers could do this type of study using other research methodologies. Using a phenomenological methodology with aspects of grounded theory seemed to be a better "fit" for me and how I wanted to do the study, but it is not the only method.

Because mine is a phenomenological study, I did not make predictions about the expected nature of the information. Quite honestly, I did not know what to expect from each unique person and setting. "In the phenomenological perspective, the hope for a universal theory of organizations collapses into multifaceted images of organizations as varied as the cultures which support them" (Greenfield, 1975, p. 69). Guba (1989) stated it this way: "Phenomena can be understood only within the context in which they are studied; findings from one context cannot be generalized to another; neither problems nor their solutions can be generalized from one setting to another" (p. 45). Because I expected to see diversity in the constructions of the superintendencies by the participants in the study, I did not think that comparisons and contrasts would be made easily.

The primary focus of the study was to observe how specifically selected individuals were adapting, learning, deconstructing, reconstructing, and making sense out of their new role as superintendent. "Thus, the primary task of research in the social sciences is to understand and to conceptualize social phenomena" (Hargreaves, 1995, p. 45). "The phenomenological view begins with the individual and seeks to understand his [sic] interpretations of the world around him [sic]" (Greenfield, 1975, p. 69).

Data Collection

Although the "tempo of the research was difficult to know beforehand" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 74), six sessions were shared with each superintendent, with the first one

being shorter, as suggested by Bogdan and Biklen (1992, p. 95). The first session was

used to get to know the individual, obtain personal and statistical information, and "break

the ice." Subsequent observations were a minimum of two hours in length, although the

length of time for each session was difficult to anticipate (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). The

observations and interviews were made between August 4, 1998, and December 15, 1998.

Approximately fifteen personal contact hours were spent with each participant. My

identity was fully known to the participants; however, I attempted to stay as uninvolved as

possible during the observation sessions.

From a technical research definition, my role was one of "observer as participant"

as described by Merriam (1998, p. 101). This meant that my purpose was known to the

participants; I tried to have limited participation during the observation sessions; and I

tried to remain on the periphery. This was somewhat of a challenge. Several times during

the observation sessions, the participants asked me about my opinion on an issue or

problem. Sometimes I had to ask a question for my own understanding of a situation.

Field notes were taken during the observation, and these were written down as soon as

possible after the observation. In addition to the field notes of each of the specific

observations that I kept, I also maintained a personal fieldwork journal, authoring my

reflections, evaluations, and anecdotes on the flow of the study.

Because I was a novice researcher, I followed the suggestions made by Bogdan

and Biklen (1992) and borrowed a strategy from the field analysis mode, which suggested

some analyses during the research, but I left the more formal analyses until most of the

data were in. However, this did not preclude me from constantly reviewing, formulating,

defining, and coding the data as the study proceeded.

As Skrtic (1985) noted, "the process of data analysis occurs more than once in qualitative research. It is an ongoing process . . ." (p. 193). I searched for recurrent themes, issues, strands, problems, questions, documentation, and/or other information that might indicate the patterns in the socialization processes for these individuals. Comparisons in the observations, interviews, and documentation responses, as well as researcher reflection, were evaluated for consistencies and/or discrepancies in the themes of the respondents' answers. "You are not there to change views, but to learn what the subjects' views are and why they are that way" (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, p. 99). I did not want to pre-condition the responses from the interviewees or otherwise influence the research that might result in prejudicial treatment of the analyses.

Throughout the observations and interviews, I attempted to gather reflections on such topics as the following: how these individuals have constructed the position of the public school superintendency; what metanarratives or assumptions the person has or had about the position that may have surfaced through the observations; what were any socializing experiences which they can recall that hindered their ability to build relationships; and what barriers to building positive, professional relationships, if any, existed for them.

After the five observations, I conducted an exit interview with each participant, asking the participants a prepared set of questions. A set of open-ended questions was prepared for the exit interview session, based on Chapman's (1997) "Beginning Superintendent Exit Interview Questions" (p. 249)(Appendix E). Although this specific list of questions was prepared for the exit interview sessions, it was not my intention to structure the interview so tightly with any specific questions that it would prevent any

spontaneous flow of questioning concerning events that may have arisen during the

observation or interview sessions. The questions were for the purpose of refinement of

observations, clarification of points of interest, and probing to get further information with

no particular normative responses expected. I wanted the data collected to be the

superintendent's story with the questions flowing from the observation sessions. The

interviews lasted between one- and two-hours. The exit interviews were audiotaped and

transcribed.

I conducted the exit interviews with the least amount of discussion for I wanted to

allow the participants a great deal of latitude with the direction of their answers.

"Qualitative interviews offer the interviewer considerable latitude to pursue a range of

topics and offer the subject a chance to shape the content of the interview" (Bogdan &

Biklen, 1992, p. 97).

> We interview people to find out from them those things we cannot
>
> directly observe...We cannot observe feelings, thoughts, and intentions.
>
> We cannot observe behaviors that took place at some previous point in time.
>
> We cannot observe situations that preclude the presence of an observer. We
>
> cannot observe how people have organized the world and the meanings they
>
> attach to what goes on in the world. We have to ask people questions about
>
> those things. The purpose of interviewing, then is to allow us to enter into the
>
> other person's perspective. (Patton, 1990,p. 196)

I collected many artifacts during the times of observation. These included such

items as board meeting agendas, board meeting minutes, state organizational structure,

individual contracts, newspaper clippings, levy buttons, and state-supplied district profiles.

I attempted to compile my field notes and my own personal reflections as soon as possible after an observation. However, I did not always accomplish recording my own field notes immediately because there were my own district problems with which to deal upon my return. When this occurred, they were recorded no more than two days later.

Data Analysis

The data were analyzed in order to see what the observations and interviews of these superintendents revealed about their socializations and their personal constructions of the role of public school superintendent. From the data, categories were discovered by closely examining the data. Categories are the distinctive areas of phenomena that will surface during the course of the research. "A category stands by itself as a conceptual element of the theory" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 36). These categories might be identified as the themes, issues, strands, problems, or questions that may indicate patterns in the socialization processes of these participants. Each category will have its own properties. "A property...is a conceptual aspect or element of a category" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 36). For example, in their work, Glaser and Strauss identify an example of a property as "the perception of social loss of a dying patient" (p. 36) as a category and the "rationales nurses use to justify to themselves their perceptions of social loss" (p. 36).

I created codes for the categories of data that were collected. Interestingly, the coded data revealed some fairly consistent events that occurred to each participant during my study. These categories of data are organized to allow for a meaningful, disciplined discussion of the events that were observed. The categories that were created were district context, relationships, conflict situations, politics and power, gender and racial issues, and professional-personal histories. The reader will soon become aware of the unique

phenomena, contexts, histories, values, and interpretations that confronted each of the participants as he or she began his or her superintendency.

In order to store, organize, and retrieve data, I used the Microsoft Office software. The Excel spreadsheet application was used to sort and organize the data by category. As the categories emerged from the observations and collection of data, the categories became easily identified, classified, and organized as needed. The Microsoft Access program is the database-management program. Because I have skill in the use of these two computer programs, I did not use any specific qualitative research program designed for computer application.

Although the sample is limited, comparisons of the responses were made to see what recurring themes were parts of their individual socializations of the beginning superintendents. This type of analysis follows the "constant comparative method" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p.101; Merriam, 1998, p. 159). According to Glaser and Strauss, there are four stages in the constant comparative method, which I followed in my analysis of the data. The first step was to compare incidents applicable to each category. "The constant comparison of incidents very soon starts to generate theoretical properties of the category" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 106). As the study proceeded I began to see a variety of categories and their properties emerge. As a second step, a coding scheme was created for each of the categories. Glaser and Strauss suggest that the constant comparative results would change from incident to incident or with comparison of incident to categories that resulted from initial comparisons of incidents. Eventually, after a consolidation process, the categories that would be used for discussion were identified.

The third step in the constant comparison method is the delimiting of the theory.

By delimitation, Glaser and Strauss (1967) mean a reduction in the original set of

categories. Underlying uniformities in the original set of categories or their properties help

the theory emerge.

The fourth step was the writing of the theory. This was accomplished by the

collating of the notes that were written about each category. The grounded theory or

theories which resulted from the study were compared to the literature reviewed on career

pattern socialization in the organizational and educational administration arena. I

attempted to explore, through observation, interview, field notes, and personal reflection,

whether these individuals had similar experiences with socialization into the role of the

public school superintendent similar to those made explicit in the new voices of

educational leadership literature. By using this inductive process, I attempted to make

theoretical sense out of a great diversity of data. "In comparing incidents, the analyst

learns to see his [sic] categories in terms of both their internal development and their

changing relations to other categories" (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 114).

CHAPTER IV

RESEARCH

"Everysupe: An Impressionist Tale" (see van Maanen, 1988)

Quite honestly, I was tired. I had been up since 5:00 AM, making sure I got to my

observation before Everysupe arrived. I knew it was going to be a long day, but this

observation was part of the design for my dissertation. The weather this October morning

was wonderful, though, as it has been so far this fall, crisp and colorful. I did not know

what to expect today, but I was grateful that Everysupe agreed to be part of my study. I

was not quite sure when Everysupe would get to work, but I figured it would be early,

and I did not want to miss any of the day.

I waited in my car for Everysupe, reviewing my notes from our first meeting. A

little bit after 7:00 AM Everysupe arrived, driving a modest four-door sedan. We greeted

each other and walked toward the office doors. Although Everysupe had been in the

district only a month, Everysupe had the keys memorized already, and it was not a difficult

task to unlock the doors with a briefcase in hand and an armful of papers. Soon the

secretarial staff and other administrators would arrive. Everysupe had established some

early morning routines already: checking e-mail and voice-mail, looking over any new,

written messages, skimming the newspaper, sipping the morning's coffee, and generally

organizing the day.

Everysupe informed me that today would be the usual busy day. Several meetings

were scheduled for both this morning and afternoon. Tonight would be the school board

meeting. Everysupe hoped to get home this afternoon, even if it were just to say hello to

the family. The office staff began to arrive. We were still in the office when we were

interrupted by a phone call and a secretary needing some signatures on several purchase orders. I would soon learn that these types of interruptions and brief business interactions would be common throughout the day. Everysupe paused between interruptions to take another sip of the now lukewarm coffee.

The first meeting this morning was going to be with the administrative cabinet members, concerning an update of their efforts for the next attempt at passing an emergency levy. Everysupe voiced displeasure to me over the amount of time and energy needed to promote a levy campaign. Following the cabinet meeting would be a meeting with the chairperson of the district's business advisory council. Everysupe hoped to do "rounds" after that meeting and before lunch.

Almost all of the district's administrative team members were present at the cabinet meeting. Everysupe had made sure that coffee, juice, and some cookies were provided. Everysupe knew that people usually worked better after having a little bit to eat. Everysupe allowed me to tag along, and I got to sit off to the side of the tables, which were arranged in a large square. After pleasantries, Everysupe asked the various cabinet members for their reports. There was a generally upbeat atmosphere for the meeting, and most of the cabinet members felt encouraged by the efforts at levy promotion by others. Everysupe occasionally summarized the reports for clarification.

As the meeting progressed, it became apparent that one cabinet member, who was in charge of public relations, was becoming upset by some of the comments and the additional time that was going to be required. Although Everysupe directed positive comments toward the cabinet member, the situation became more emotional. By the close of the meeting the cabinet member was in tears because some of the comments made by

Everysupe and others at the meeting were taken as personal attacks on the individual's past and current efforts to promote the levy. Everysupe tried unsuccessfully to boost the spirits of the public relations person, but it was of no use. The meeting ended on a low note without much resolution.

Going back to the office, Everysupe chatted with a maintenance supervisor over some building problems and generally showed no apparent reaction to the emotional events of the previous meeting. The treasurer also came in with some information on the results of the most recent audit. Closing the door for a brief moment, Everysupe sat down, breathed a deep sigh, and thumbed through the newest collection of messages. There were two messages from board members, and Everysupe called both of them immediately. There was going to be a sticky personnel issue for tonight's meeting and each board member had a "spin" about how to handle it.

After dumping cold coffee down an office sink, Everysupe got a refill and prepared for the next meeting. Everysupe felt that this meeting would not be as intense as the first one. Discussion would be about the need for the business advisory council to adjust the direction of its work. The chairperson had become a good friend of Everysupe already, and this meeting should be friendly. When the meeting started, there was much "small talk" about kids, family activities, and some recap of summer vacations. The meeting was held in Everysupe's office, a rather darkly paneled space with several pictures of sailboats and seashore vacation cottages. The meeting did not last very long, but it was already nearing noon.

Everysupe liked to visit the district school buildings in the morning, and we departed to make these visits. Everysupe had been told that the previous superintendent

was not very visible in the buildings and did not want to generate this same type of

criticism. We went into the building office first, alerting the secretary that we were there.

After a short chat with the principal, we quickly went around to the classrooms, stopping

just briefly by many of the rooms. Everysupe had already memorized many of the teachers'

names and even the names of a few students. After having similar visits at the other

buildings, we returned to Everysupe's office and sat down to eat a little bit of cold school

lunch, which had been brought down from the cafeteria. Everysupe scanned the mail that

was stacked on the nearby table.

We talked about today's next meeting. Everysupe told me that my presence during

the meeting would not be possible. The meeting might become confrontational because it

involved a "power struggle" with the treasurer. At this time Everysupe revealed some of

the changes in personal health that had occurred since Everysupe had taken the position:

higher blood pressure, weight gain, regular heartburn, headaches, and a general feeling of

being tired. Everysupe lamented that the superintendent was always on duty and had little

time to "escape" from the position. The meeting today was the result of a weekend

incident. A board member had called Everysupe's home late on Saturday night with the

concern.

The meeting was scheduled for 1:00 PM, and I took a seat in the small reception

area outside Everysupe's office, where several secretaries had their workstations. The

treasurer and two board members went into Everysupe's office. As I sat and reviewed my

notes, I still kept alert as to any bits of conversation that I might hear. Although I could

not discern the actual words, several times the volume in Everysupe's office became loud.

I knew things were becoming confrontational. Interestingly, I also heard some laughter

from time to time. Approximately an hour and a half later, the meeting ended with the

participants straggling out of Everysupe's office.

Everysupe called me into the office, and we sat down around the office table. This

was a time of attempted relaxation. Everysupe remarked, "I bet my blood pressure will

come down about 5:00 this afternoon." Everysupe informed me that there was no

resolution to the problem today, and, despite the attempt to unwind, I could feel

Everysupe's displeasure with the situation.

The rest of the afternoon was spent preparing for that night's board meeting and

answering phone calls. During this period of time, we did not have many interactions. One

item that was mentioned was Everysupe's concern over board member confidentiality. It

appeared to Everysupe that other individuals were getting information intended for board

member use only. This had created problems at other board meetings and was causing a

concern by Everysupe over the ability to have open communications with board members.

Several of the board members had spouses who were employed by the district, and the

spouses were obtaining the information and leaking it to other parties.

Sensing that Everysupe needed some time alone and feeling I was wearing out my

welcome, I decided to leave for a short period. I drove around the community, grabbed a

bite to eat, and returned about an hour before the board meeting.

Everysupe had not had a chance to get home before the board meeting. Everysupe

had gone to a high school girls' soccer match and had been cornered by several different

community members about some of their concerns. Everysupe was able to call home to

check on an ill son. It was interesting to me that even though this was somewhat of a

"typical" day, Everysupe mentioned concern about not cheating the district on time.

Everysupe thought a short day was nine hours with no evening meeting. The rest of the

time was spent on further preparations for the board meeting. However, two board

members came in early to talk to Everysupe about tonight's agenda. Although the board

members were polite to me, I believed there was a little bit of apprehension about my

presence. Off to the side Everysupe whispered to me that he had a massive headache and

had not had a chance to eat anything since lunch. This comment surprised me because

Everysupe looked deceivingly fresh and energetic, even this late in the day.

We walked down to the meeting room about a half-hour before the meeting was to

start. From this time on, we would not have much interaction. The board president was

the first to arrive in the room. There was much soft talking and serious conversation

between the board president and Everysupe. As the other board members began to arrive,

the volume in the room started to increase. Laughter could be heard at various intervals.

There appeared to be two distinct conversational groups.

The meeting began promptly. Everysupe sat off to the side of the board members

as the board president conducted the meeting. Everysupe acted as a source of information

and clarification for the board members on a variety of issues: a complaint about students

driving too fast, home-schooling, trash and glass in a traffic lane, a grievance, special

education, and portions of new state legislation. For the most part, the meeting ran

smoothly and followed the agenda. However, a surprise took place when the board

president produced a resolution to the board without Everysupe's prior knowledge.

When this resolution was presented, I looked at Everysupe to see what reaction

might be forthcoming. Although I did not know Everysupe well, I thought that Everysupe

was not pleased with this departure from the agenda, but Everysupe did not make any

objection to the board. Not much discussion took place, and the board passed the resolution. I was to learn in a later observation that Everysupe has been concerned from the very beginning about the board's micro-management of the district. Everysupe had been attempting to keep the board focused on policy, but some board members still desired to exercise control over administrative duties.

As expected by Everysupe, there was considerable discussion about the personnel issue. Everysupe had to explain his research and bases for the recommendation to the board. The resolution did pass by a four to one vote, the only resolution that did not pass unanimously that evening.

The public, open session lasted for one-and-a-half hours. The board decided to go into an executive session. Before the board, treasurer, and Everysupe left, there was a little bit of mingling with the small number of community members present at the meeting. I had a chance to have a brief exchange with Everysupe during this intermission. Everysupe was not sure how long the executive session would last. For the first time today I noticed that Everysupe looked tired, but I knew that Everysupe would be at the office tomorrow morning at the same time. We decided to discuss the events of the executive session during my next observation.

<div align="center">Understanding the Data</div>

The tale of "Everysupe" tells the story of some of the regularities that typically might occur to a beginning superintendent. What the story does not reveal, however, are the specific ways in which each individual experiences and interprets the events. But the tale can be a useful tool from which to progress from the generic to specific challenges of role transition for each beginning superintendent.

As was anticipated from the methodology section of this study, themes and trends in the data began to emerge as the observation field notes were reviewed (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Some of the events were anticipated, but many of the pieces of data were totally a surprise. I began by listing events as they occurred during the observations. In the following discussion, all observations and interviews occurred from July to December of 1998. The year will not be given in the bracket citation unless it was from 1999. Artifacts and the final exit interview data were used to support, expose, or negate consistencies or inconsistencies in what I observed during the visitations. Since the study was not designed to essentialize, reduce, or generalize these findings, broad categories and sub-categorical properties did surface that were consistent in each of the observations of the professional lives of these beginning superintendents, Since the study was not designed to essentialize, reduce, or generalize these findings.

As I began to observe and share in the experiences of the lives of my participants, categories affecting role transition began to emerge: district context, relationships, relational conflict situations, politics and power, gender and racial issues, and professional-personal histories. However, some of the categories surfaced over which the beginning superintendent had little or no control yet they still had to be managed. These categories were not original considerations or assumptions for my study on socialization, but their importance could not be denied or excluded from review. Thus, I will begin my discussion with the "Emerging Categories." The categories possessed properties that describe the specific experiences of these beginning superintendents. It should be noted that these categories are not mutually exclusive and are not as clearly defined as they may appear in this discussion.

I also want to connect my findings on the socialization of the beginning

superintendent to the perspective of role theory. At first I assumed that there would be a

"struggle in the socialization" process for these participants. As I had originally conceived

of them, the "struggles" did not appear. This is not to say that there was a lack of stress or

conflict as the participants began their new positions, because there were numerous

examples to support the challenges of socialization encountered by these individuals. I

used a grouping strategy to reduce the categories of role theory to limit the discussion to

role stress/role strain, role expectations, and role conflict.

Therefore, I have divided the research discussion into two major areas: emerging

categories and how these emerging categories surfaced in relation to role theory. The

emerging categories give life to the in-the-world experiences of these five beginning

superintendents, and the application of role theory provides a theoretical perspective for

my research.

<div align="center">Emerging Categories</div>

This section could be described as the commonality of uniqueness. During my

organization of the data, areas of experience emerged which appeared to be "more

important" than other isolated pieces of data. I labeled these factors "district context,"

"relationships," "conflict situations," "politics and power," "gender and racial issues," and

"professional-personal histories." As a reminder, neither the categories nor the sub-

categorical properties occurred in isolation. They are all inter-related and comprise part of

the "whole" experience of these beginning superintendents, an "integrated storyline"

(Murphy, J., in Murphy & Forsyth, 1999, p. 56), if you will. None could occur in the in-

the-world setting as is neatly defined, clearly identified, or totally segregated as described here. In fact, the research data was just as "messy" as the position of the superintendency.

District Context

District context was one category that emerged as a major challenge in the socialization of the beginning superintendent. Because the participants were "outsider" superintendents, their understandings and interpretations of the local settings had to occur quickly. There was no way of knowing before entry about some of the following situations. The Alpha District superintendent stated that the district was on "auto-pilot" [Obs.1, July]. Because things appeared to be running well to outside observers, the assumption was that there were no problems, but he felt "that wasn't reality" [Obs.1, July], and he encountered many unresolved problems upon his arrival. The Delta superintendent was faced with an interesting situation of the community's desire to stay relatively isolated. He cited a rather poignant bumper sticker that he once saw that read "Welcome to . . ., now go home" [Obs.1, Sept.]. He also had no computer linkage to the Internet at his arrival. He felt that changing this community's attitude toward innovation would be a challenge. For both of these superintendents, there was little district pressure to change the way things were being done.

Fighting a negative public impression of the school district was a challenge for the Epsilon School District superintendent [Obs.3, Dec.]. Many members of the general public in the Epsilon District felt that mass chaos was present during the student day. Superintendent "E" and the other district administrators have continually tried to change this perception. The passage of a school levy was a huge mountain climbed by the district and an event that could signal a change in attitude. In addition, Superintendent "E" faced a

group of constituents who were still angry about the previous closings of several buildings in one district. The "township people" felt betrayed, lied to, and that the closings were "pure meanness" [Obs.3, Dec.].

One question that might have been asked by the beginning superintendent was, "How did the board construct the position of the public school superintendent?" One answer could be gleaned from the data identified within the district context category. The stories of the superintendents revealed details about superintendent and board of education expectations. The participants modeled the "normed" and expected behaviors, such as preparing the agenda for the school board meeting, delivering major addresses, leading meetings, exhibiting aloofness, or being focal points of control. One statement by Superintendent "A" summed up the approach to leadership by the participants. When confronted with a building-level problem, Superintendent "A" replied, "Did you go through the chain of command?" [Obs.3, Oct.].

During the time of my observations, none of the districts had any controversial issues arise. For the most part, if there was any controversy, it arose with board of education members. Board of education members appeared to be community residents, who seemed to have little understanding or knowledge about the actual management demands placed on the superintendent [Obs.4, Oct.]. In all the districts, a rather limited pool of individuals ran for board of education positions.

In this next section, I have identified concerns over finances, local history, and academic programs as properties of the district context. These properties demanded a great deal of time and attention of the beginning superintendents.

Finances. Finances, or the lack of adequate funding, were a concern for every beginning superintendent, but only one of the five participants was confronted with the demands of a levy campaign during the time of this study. That particular superintendent stated that the levy campaign consumed about "90 per cent" of her time and that it was "very tiring work" [Obs.4, Dec.]. During every observation and the exit interview, the Epsilon superintendent expressed some concern or issue over the levy. Incidentally, in a follow-up call to this superintendent at the end of February 1999, I learned that the levy had been approved by the voters earlier that month, and a secretary for this district expressed the opinion that, "We owe that to the work of the superintendent" [Telephone conversation, Feb., 1999].

Two superintendents spent some of their induction periods learning about state or local initiatives to create economic opportunity zones within their districts. They learned that their districts would lose tax dollars through tax abatements that would be given to businesses to encourage economic development in these areas. However, both participants expressed gratitude that at least they were somewhat involved in the discussions about the impact of the economic development plans on the school district and the decision-making process [Obs.5, Nov.; Obs.5, Dec.].

The Gamma School District superintendent spent the bulk of his time negotiating with his city on a revenue-sharing plan. Ironically, this superintendent described the city as being in an economic period of growth, prosperity, and wealth, but he also described the individual residents as being "blue collar" [Obs.1, Sept.]. A tour of the city would accent this point. There were many sparkling new office buildings located within the city limits, but the homes appeared much more modest. The school district operated as though it

were a private school, offering small class sizes and much individual attention to its students [Obs.2, Sept.].

On another positive financial note, the Alpha School District was able to finalize a building and renovation project for the district. This was known as Plan Con-J, and it meant over $600,000 in a lump sum for the district. Although this was not money that could be used for General Fund expenditures, these dollars still alleviated some pressure for Superintendent "A" and the district.

Local history. An outsider superintendent would do well to understand the cultural history and traditions of his or her local setting as soon as possible, and, in fact, each superintendent mentioned something about the uniqueness and importance of local history. Past and present athletic successes were quite noticeable in two of the communities. With signs denoting past championships significantly located at the city limits, huge trophy cases, and a gymnasium full of championship banners, the value placed on athletic success cannot be underestimated for these communities. During one observation on a beautiful fall afternoon, literally hundreds of very young people were seen departing the scene of midget football practice. The superintendent in this district very much wanted to begin emphasizing academics over athletics, and I wondered how successful this quest for cultural change might be in this context.

The Delta superintendent stated that he felt the community valued facilities over academics [Obs.1, Sept.]. There was some irony in his words, for he had spent much of his first few weeks in the district directing such projects as roof repair, window repair, and general landscaping. For a district that values facilities, he found the present state of disrepair surprising.

Academic programs. Academic program issues were mentioned only sparsely by the participants as a district context concern. Superintendent "D" summed up the situation best when he said, "Not many people said much about the educational thing" [Exit Interview, Nov.]. Even though public education presently operates in an accountability culture based on high-stakes testing, only one Ohio participant mentioned poor performance on the state-mandated proficiency tests as a district concern. This participant was planning to budget greater sums of money for resources and personnel training to increase the district's test scores. On the Pennsylvania side, the Alpha School District superintendent emphasized improving standardized tests scores for his district during three of the five observation sessions, and this emphasis was also given as a response on his Exit Interview. The Gamma School District was fortunate enough to be able to offer the advantage of small class size for its students, and this district passed 17 of the 18 performance criteria on the Ohio State District Report Card (see Appendix J).

One superintendent was not so fortunate. Superintendent "A" was confronted upon arrival with a "special education program in shambles" [Obs.1, July]. The district had not completed the proper forms to conduct the program for a number of years. Superintendent "A" said that the former superintendent had told others that the program was approved and had apparently told the special education director to "shut up and do what I tell you to do" [Obs.1, July]. During the time of my observations, this superintendent had corrected the problem by obtaining the appropriate state endorsements, but the situation had been a source of aggravation for him.

Relationships

As significant amount of data revealed the possibility that the female participants in this study may view the importance of relationships at a much higher level than did the male participants. Some observations and statements often made by the female participants were conspicuously absent in the data recorded for the male participants. One of the female superintendents made the following statements: "I know the value of relationships" [Obs.1, Sept.], "I seek input from divergent groups" [Obs.1, Sept.], "You still have to interact with people and have a vision" [Obs.3, Dec.], and "You need great people around you" [Obs.3, Dec.]. These statements suggest that some female superintendents make connections between their work and the collaborative and cooperative leadership styles that were discussed earlier. During observations, I did not encounter similar statements from the male participants. The artifacts in one female superintendent's office included numerous Boss' Day cards, other congratulatory cards, and knickknacks of shoes. There were enough of these tangible items in evidence to support the impression that at least some members of her professional family knew a little bit about the person in the position.

The flow of conversation by the female superintendents was also different than that of their male counterparts. Usually, there was a beginning portion of "small talk" before entry into the serious discussions at hand. One of the female superintendents exhibited a great deal of social interaction with several staff members, and, although this may be a personal characteristic, she allowed humor and laughter to enter conversations much more often than any of the other participants. When these two participants are compared to the males in the study, the females more often displayed the open, collaborative, caring, and

cooperative characteristics of leadership that appear to be prescribed for and are emerging as trends in leadership literature about the superintendency.

For the most part, all five beginning superintendents appeared to have developed positive relationships with colleagues, board presidents and board members, teachers, students, and community members, and, certainly, this would be expected because they are new to their positions and their districts. Most of the data from the relationships factor concerned interaction with colleagues. Colleagues would be fellow superintendents, district administrators, board members, and teachers. The colleagues most mentioned were other administrators within the superintendent's district.

The superintendent of the Alpha District mentioned that he was close to a neighboring district's superintendent, and that he was invited to participate in an informal group of superintendents who met occasionally to discuss issues and relax. This information was provided to me with hesitation, as though there was something secretive or exclusive about this group. Superintendent "B" mentioned that she would have liked to have a mentor with whom to interact, "give me advice, problem-solve, suggest other options to perform the duties of superintendent" [Int., Dec.], or just plain vent some frustrations. Two of the superintendents discussed empowering principals and establishing site-based management procedures. The superintendent in the largest district in the study appeared to have great relationships with her administrative cabinet-level staff [Obs.4, Dec.].

With the exception of administrative colleagues, such as their own district principals or other superintendents, the superintendents in my study had the most verbal interactions with the school board president. At the board meetings and in some of the

observations, the board president was the one with whom most of the time was spent. During the observations, there were not many situations that involved interactions with representatives of the community or with students, but when they did occur, there appeared to be a genuine attempt at friendliness, interest, and courtesy.

Conflict situations

Of the data categories affecting socialization, none had more individual entries than that which I will call "conflict." Although the individual entries were usually unique to each context, I organized five situations of conflict for these beginning superintendents. The conflict situations I identified were relationships with school staff, with board members, with community, and with students. There were also conflict situations that arose that were not interactions with people. I labeled this conflict category as requirements and procedures. The greatest conflict-identified data fell under the heading of "School Staff."

Relationships with school staff. The most unusual conflict-creating situation with school staff in my study was that one of the participants, an assistant superintendent during the time of my observations, was to become the district's superintendent. She had been given the responsibility of executing all but one of the responsibilities of the out-going superintendent. The unusual aspect of this situation was that the exiting superintendent was still employed and present in the district. The exiting superintendent had been relieved of all of his responsibilities by the board of education because of his mis-handling of a grievance, which had cost the district a great deal of money, and the unauthorized re-writing of board policies. The exiting superintendent blamed the in-coming female assistant superintendent for his demise [Obs.4, Nov.].

The assistant superintendent was extremely careful to avoid any situations in which the two of them might be alone. During the initial days of my observation period, both individuals had their offices near each other in the central office suite location. They both were present at school events and board meetings. By the end of the observation period, the exiting superintendent had been instructed by the board of education to stay away from the district, except for some evenings when he was permitted to come to the office to sign state documents which required his specific signature.

The beginning superintendents had conflicting situations arise with some administrative team members, some teachers, some classified employees, and/or cabinet-level members. Superintendent "D" had a building administrator who had applied for, and thought he would be offered, the superintendent's position in the district. Cooperation from this individual was limited to those items that were specifically directed by the new superintendent [Exit Interview, Nov.]. From comments made by Superintendent "D," their educational ideologies and beliefs were in conflict. In addition, Superintendent "D" was also upset with the attitudes of some of his teaching staff. He expressed his concern during the Exit Interview when he said such things as I have "four or five employees that don't want to be here – they don't like kids" and "I've had to be confrontive with a few people because what they're doing to children is not right" [Exit Interview, Nov.].

Other problems with teachers and classified employees provided further examples of conflict-creating situations. Such examples of conflict were a teacher accusing the superintendent of harassment (male accusing female), a teacher not attending a session of a conference for which she had received a paid leave of absence, and an athletic director being upset with a superintendent for taking over "his" space [Obs. 1, Aug.]. One

superintendent created conflict when he non-renewed two classified employees. In one situation custodial employees became angry with one participant after he changed the locks for the central office. This was also the aforementioned district in which the superintendent was upset about confidentiality of information.

Established cabinet members have also been known to create conflicting situations when the cabinet member perceives power-position or "turf" issues. Among the subjects studied, one male superintendent was upset with the traditional "old-boy network" that had been in operation in the district for some time [Obs.5, Nov.]. Specifically, the business manager for the district had authorized the personal use of school property for a custodian because "that's the way we've always done it" [Obs.5, Nov.]. This situation created a dilemma concerning how the custodian was able to use a school van over a weekend without proper authorization. Needless to say, the observation that occurred on that day was one that provided rich data. Another participant had a clash with a cabinet member when the cabinet member became visibly defensive about her efforts in a recent levy campaign [Obs.4, Dec.].

Relationships with board members. Board members were also a source of conflict for the superintendent. Although the participants were in the "honeymoon" period with their districts, conflict situations were already surfacing. Several of the beginning superintendents were concerned about board of education micro-management [Obs.3, Sept.; Obs. 1, Sept.]. I felt there was some internal contradiction about this concern. Expressions by some of the participants, such as, "Will they let me do my job?" [Obs.1, Sept.], "They better have confidence in me" [Obs.1, Sept.], or "Back out and let me run the district [Obs.3, Sept.]," seem to be at odds with other statements made by these

participants that professed a desire to develop collaborative and cooperative working relationships with others. It appeared that cooperation and collaboration might have meant unconditional agreement with the direction and decisions that the beginning superintendent had made.

Several participants noted problems with board members' personal agendas, but all the participants did not mention this issue. Sometimes board members had an ax to grind against a district employee, such as the board member who was angry with the district's guidance counselor [Obs.1, Sept.]. Several superintendents mentioned that their boards had developed "camps." In one case, a faction of board members used its power position to approve a new board member to fill a board vacancy with someone who would have, it was assumed, a similar ideological bias [Obs.2, Aug.].

Two superintendents expressed statements that support the tenuous nature of superintendent-board member relations. When faced with a recommendation for student expulsion, the Beta School District superintendent said that she "thought the board would uphold the expulsion" [Obs.3, Oct.]. She already knew that anything could happen at a board meeting. The Alpha superintendent stated it this way: "I'm only as good as my last 5-4 vote" [Obs.5, Nov.]. He seemed to sense the fleeting nature of support that typifies some superintendencies.

Relationships with community. A community's history and traditions may affect the decision-making process of a superintendent. A facility audit in one district recommended the closing of one building. The closing of a building or buildings tends to become a traumatic, controversial, and volatile issue within a district. In this district, which needed the passage of an emergency operating levy, there were deep feelings of

resentment and betrayal by some constituents because of the previous closing of two

neighborhood buildings [Obs.4, Dec.]. Although the closings were fiscally sound

decisions, the anger was still present in these two neighborhoods. In a cabinet meeting for

this district, some cabinet members stated that the reason some constituents gave for

voting against the levy was the closing of these buildings. Although these closings

occurred before the arrival of the participant, this anger may have contributed to further

township political positioning against the school district. Some township residents

mobilized and manifested their anger by block voting against the operating levy that was

on the ballot for this district during the period of this study. It would be a challenge for

this beginning superintendent to overcome such political resistance.

In the Gamma district, where the beginning superintendent wanted to build a new

high school, some opposition to this idea was surfacing because of the sentimental value

that was attached to a building which had served residents since the early part of the

century. At the end of the annual State of the Schools message, Superintendent "C" was

asked several questions about the need for a new building [Obs.4, Oct.]. The

superintendent's challenge would be to work with or around this objection [Obs.5, Nov.].

Two of the beginning superintendents were attempting to change deep-seated

values and beliefs in their districts. Based on the observations, I would classify these two

superintendents as "career-bound" (Carlson, 1972), and I pondered the possibility of their

success of these initiatives. One superintendent wanted to change the focus of his district

from athletics to academics [Obs.1, July]. While merit-worthy, the present context of the

community and the school district, illustrated by its actual, physical commitments to

athletic success and the size of its trophy case, does not appear to be one in which such a

change would be quickly coming. It was very obvious from district artifacts, trophies, championship banners, and road signs, that athletic success is part of the soul of the community.

Another participant was deeply concerned about the poor performance of his district on the state-mandated proficiency tests [Obs.1, Sept.]. This superintendent considered the improvement of test scores to be one of his fortes. His strategy was to try to change the present cavalier attitude about the tests to one of the tests becoming a primary district focus. I sensed that such a total commitment might be a high-stakes gamble for a superintendent because one's career could rise or fall with the test scores or other areas of special focus.

To show the unpredictability of community members, the Alpha superintendent was confronted with two parent-interruption situations on two separate occasions. At the end of a board meeting, a woman who had not been in attendance during the open-to-the-public portion of the meeting approached the board of education. She said she had an important concern for the board. Superintendent "A" responded calmly, and even though the board meeting had officially ended, allowed the woman to speak. Her matter was of legal nature, and she was referred to the district's attorney [Obs.2, Aug.]. At another meeting, a parent had a concern about her daughter, and Superintendent "A" told the woman that he would research the problem. In both incidences Superintendent "A" reacted quickly and calmly so as not to escalate the situation.

Relationships with students. As would be expected because of the pyramid of organizational duties, direct student interactions were not a frequent occurrence for these superintendents. However, one superintendent was observed in an advisory-type role and

was used as a resource for decision-making concerning the issues of student eligibility and drug testing [Obs.2, Aug.]. It appeared that when superintendents were confronted with student issues, they were attempting to practice a "chain of command" organizational model and a site-based management model with their administrative team members.

In the Delta School District Superintendent "D" forced himself to have student interaction. During one observation he used student volunteers to help stuff envelopes for a community survey, and later on that same day he was interviewed by students for the school newspaper [Obs.4, Oct]. Earlier that same day, he had been in discussion with a parent over a suspension issue. He had become involved because the building principal was absent the day of the problem. In addition, during his Exit Interview, Superintendent "D" proudly told the story of the student who was amazed that he knew her name. It just so happened that Superintendent "D" had passed her locker and had seen her name on a paper inside the locker. After he had passed, he heard the other students questioning "Jane" about how the superintendent knew her name.

Superintendent "A" also had gone out of his way to get to know many students by name. During our third observation, Superintendent "A" took me on a tour of the district's buildings. I was amazed at the number of students he knew by name; he also knew about some of the activities in which these students participated.

Conflicts with requirements and procedures. Certain legal requirements and procedures may also represent an external source of conflict for a superintendent. In the cases studied, there was one consistent problem: faculty members' failure to secure purchase orders before ordering supplies and/or equipment. Although this may appear to be a minor issue, it affects the superintendent because the treasurer/business manager will

bring, posthaste, the invoice for the unauthorized purchase to the superintendent, and the actual confronting of the employee perpetrator will be the superintendent's responsibility [Exit Int., Nov.; Obs.4, Oct.]. The individual faculty members in this study who did not follow the correct purchase order procedures tended to have a history of such violations prior to the arrival of the participant superintendent.

In Alpha School District, Superintendent "A" had eleven citations with which to deal on a recent audit [Int., July]. Audit requirements, although a primary responsibility of the treasurer's office, tend to also require the immediate attention of the superintendent. In addition, the Alpha superintendent was confronted with an "illegal" K-4 program [Int., July]. The program has been in operation for a number of years without appropriate state certification. Again, this was a mess, and cleaning up the mess added an additional burden to the superintendent's schedule. In addition to the K-4 problem, the Alpha School District was in the process of settling a special-education claim for not following required procedures. This settlement cost the district about $20,000.00 [Exit Interview].

Politics and power

An assumption built into this discussion is that when one identifies some aspect of a phenomenon as political, one is also identifying power arrangements that are present in the phenomenon. One of the myths that some scholars, especially during the "Superintendent as Statesman" [sic] era (1930-1953: see Callahan, 1962), have promoted about public education is that public education should be apolitical. In the limited observations for this study, there are several examples of politics entering into the daily life of the beginning superintendent.

The most blatant misuse of power and politics that appeared in my observations was the situation in which the mayor was attempting to use close public appearances with the beginning superintendent as an instrument for personal political gain. Ironically, this mayor, according to the new superintendent, had also used the former superintendent as a focal point for negative criticism of the district [Obs.4, Oct.].

In the Epsilon district, the mayor had already completed a tax-abatement deal for the expansion of a local business within the city, and on the day of one of my observations, Superintendent "E" and the district's treasurer were to meet with the mayor to discuss the results of the tax-abatement negotiations. As the superintendent and treasurer were returning to the district offices after the meeting, which I was unable to witness, the superintendent remarked, "The deal was already done, but at least they told us" [Obs.5, Dec.]. This appeared to be a validation of the feeling of futility and helpless resignation that they were experiencing in dealing with local politicians.

One superintendent was elected to his position amid charges of nepotism [Obs.1, July]. One family member, an aunt, was a board of education member for the district and participated in the voting process for his appointment as superintendent. The local media, the superintendent reported to me, sensationalized this issue. The nepotism issue had waned at the time of observation, but the superintendent felt it could resurface at any time. If one considers politics and power as being connected, one might inquire as to the objectivity of this relative's judgment and also might wonder about the influence this board member may have had on the other board members. Two board members did vote against this superintendent, but he still assumed the position. Because of the legal basis and American tradition of local control for schools, this kind of political issue could arise

more often than might be expected, and it could become one of the first conflicts that a

beginning superintendent might have to address.

Superintendent "A" commented on the political manner in which hiring is done for

the district. The district uses a four person "Instructional Committee" for all levels of

hiring. Superintendent "A" said that the process was "extremely political" [Obs.1, July].

He felt that so far they have hired good people, but he still does not like the process. In

the Delta School District, Superintendent "D" had consciously made an effort to learn

"who the power people were" in his district. His intent was to use these individuals as a

catalyst for "doing good things for kids" [Exit Interview, Nov.].

Gender and racial issues

Because of the traditional white-male bureaucratic structures of public school

districts, I expected gender and/or racial issues would arise from the female participants.

My expectations were altered somewhat during the initial interview session with the

African-American beginning superintendent. When I asked the African-American

participant if there were racial concerns when the superintendent was hired, I received the

quick and somewhat bitter retort of "God, no!" [Obs.1, Sept.]. I sensed some disgust and

anger directed at me for asking such a question. That was the last time I approached that

topic in such a direct manner. This participant appeared quite comfortable and competent

within the traditional bureaucratic organizational framework into which she was immersed.

I am sensitized to the real possibility that my being a white male may have affected the

types of observations I had with this participant.

Superintendent "B" did quite openly discuss gender issues during the observations.

In her superintendent's initial screening questionnaire, "Competence" was self-reported as

the reason that she was selected for the position [Screening Questionnaire, Aug.]. She felt

that it would be generally difficult for women to obtain superintendent or high school

principal positions. Her opinion has been supported by data earlier in the study (Gaertner,

1981; Ortiz, 1982). The reasons she gave were some of the myths that have been

perpetuated about the female gender in relation to leadership: "Females are unable to

discipline; females can't run an industry or business; females can't budget; females get too

emotional during times of crises; females can't keep secrets"; and "females can't handle

athletics" [Obs.1, Aug.]. Because of such stereotypes and related myths, Superintendent

"B" felt that female superintendents had to prove their competency with these tasks at a

much higher level than did male superintendents. She noted that her county had been

somewhat more open to employing female superintendents because three out of fifteen

superintendents were women. However, in her local superintendent's group, the male

leadership appeared to have a more skeptical perspective, for no women held committee-

chair or executive positions within that group [Obs.3, Oct.].

Professional and personal histories

The final category that emerged from the data was concerned with the individual's

specific history. For purposes of discussion, the pieces of data that were observed were

organized into two general groups, professional and personal experiences. The reason for

the distinction was that some data indicated items that were under the control of the

individual, while others appeared to be outside the individual's control. This does not

imply that these experiences should be reduced to a dualism for the very reason that the

individual needs to be observed as a whole, and this false dichotomy is strictly for

discussion purposes.

The professional histories of the individuals were examples of great diversity. The educational specialties ranged from special education expertise to music to mathematics. The participants, for the most part, had been building administrators at the secondary level, but one participant had come from an elementary school background. These particular pathways to the superintendency were consistent with research cited earlier (Gaertner, 1981; Ortiz, 1982). Only one of the participants had central office experience, a situation that I will comment on later.

What were some of the professional aspects of the participants' constructions of their superintendencies based on their own integration of their past experiences? One of the phenomena that surfaced throughout the observations is that the participants had a tendency to return to or accent those areas that would have been a comfortable part of their past histories. Hart and Pounder (in Murphy & Forsyth, 1999) refer to this phenomenon as "backward mapping" (p. 125). For example, one superintendent who had had success in increasing state proficiency test scores spent a large portion of time during the observation periods voicing his concerns about improvement of the proficiency test scores in this new district [Exit Interview, Nov.]. Another participant spent more time on special education issues than the others did, and this superintendent's background was in the special education area [Obs.3, Oct.]. Three of the superintendents, who were most recently building principals, were observed spending more time walking through the halls and interacting with students in the various buildings within their districts than those who had not most recently been principals.

Interestingly, Superintendent "E" appeared to be more comfortable, socialized if you will, into the traditionally constructed model of the superintendency. This

superintendent's professional history included several career moves that the others did not, including central-office experience. In a study discussed by Glass (Carter, Glass, & Hord, 1993), Glass identified the more effective superintendents – according to the traditionally constructed definitions in the study – as those having had central-office experience, and my observations would generally suggest a similar analysis. Superintendent "E" also had the most varied and extensive professional experiences, spanning her entire career – for example, as an administrator in the State Department of Education, as a director of a Head Start Program, and as an administrator in a university. When I inquired about which experience she believed contributed the most to her understanding of the construction of the superintendency, she quickly responded by identifying the deputy superintendent's position. She felt that the deputy superintendency provided an opportunity for a "global view" of the district [Obs.1, Sept.]. Superintendent "E" appeared less stressed and more confident during the observations. Regardless of the various times that observations were done for this study, this superintendent's physical appearance was as though the day had just begun [Obs.2, Oct.].

The data reveals several characteristics data consistently throughout all the observations. All of the superintendents were extremely conscientious about time commitments to their districts. The length of the days described by all of the beginning superintendents was always well beyond the traditionally assumed eight hours. They were also conscientious about their physical appearance, which was "professionally" acceptable regardless of the district context.

Each of the beginning superintendents had brought items of personal importance to their offices: family pictures, personal knick-knacks, awards, pictures of favorite hobbies,

or books. Since most of my observation time was spent within the confines of the superintendent's office, I noticed that neatness of the offices was not consistent. Some of the participants had to have everything cleared from their desks and their offices straightened before they would leave for the day. Others had messy offices, with stacks of papers, file folders, or books spread everywhere. One observation revealed an unfinished lunch that had been delivered earlier during the lunch period.

<div align="center">Relating the Categories to Role Theory</div>

The data revealed categories identified in role theory that have contributed to the socialization of these superintendents. As the data was analyzed, it became apparent that some of the distinctions explaining roles and role theory were beginning to take shape. Two areas, role strain and role stress (Goode, 1960), became difficult to differentiate. Most of the data fell into the role strain/role stress category. As a reminder, the role strain/role stress category will be concerned with the difficulties that arose for the beginning superintendents while attempting to perform their duties. Role expectations – the personal understanding and acceptance of the duties required of the superintendent – provided fertile ground in the data (Sarbin & Allen, 1968). Self-role congruence/incongruence (Sarbin & Allen, 1968) dealt with the individual's definition and interpretation of the position and conflicts within the mental model that the superintendent had created for the position.

Two categories did not emerge strongly from the data: role conflict and role shock. Role conflict (Gross, Mason, & McEachern, 1958; Getzels & Guba, 1954; Seeman, 1953; Sarbin & Allen, 1968) dealt with incompatible behavioral expectations that were experienced by the beginning superintendent. Role shock (Minkler & Biller, 1979) dealt

with major discrepancies in the individual's perception of how the superintendent's

position was personally constructed and the contextual experiences confronted by the

participant.

The lack of role shock experiences in these observations supports a point made by

Kerchner (1993) when arguing that preparation programs, "overeducate for the unusual

and fail to teach students to recognize the strategic potential in everyday activities" (p.

17). Sometimes during the preparation of beginning superintendents, old "war stories' are

given as examples of unusual situations that may occur. It was very difficult to identify any

examples of the extreme category of role shock. Other than to suggest to individuals

preparing for the superintendency that role shock could occur, the data in my study do not

suggest cause for deep concern.

Role stress/role strain

The role stress/role strain category reveals personal concerns and questions about

struggles in the socialization processes of these beginning superintendents. In the

conversations, observations, and the exit interviews, the data appears to contradict the

exterior demeanor of confidence, professionalism, and decisiveness that these participants

were attempting to portray in the numerous formal settings into which they were

scheduled. The only time I physically saw any one of the beginning superintendents upset

was when Superintendent "A" was angry after a meeting with the district's business

manager [Obs.5, Nov.].

I have organized the role stress/role strain data into four sub-categories: emotional,

organizational, time, and health. The data I identified as role stress/role strain were the

most numerous of any role-theory category in the study. The data appear to support that

high anxiety typifies the emotional experiences of each of the beginning superintendents.

As the reader will recall, an important focus of my research was to examine the

pressure on relationships that result from being in the superintendency. The theme of the

role strain/role stress category runs parallel to the discussion of conflicts in relation to

people. However, in this section the focus will be on the individual participants in the

study. It becomes valuable to disclose quotations from the participants in order to enable

the reader to gain a sense of the anxiety in the voices of these beginning superintendents.

The role stress/role strain data suggests that socialization into a position as a

superintendent brings with it great tension. For me their words are what bring life,

emotion, and humanity to my study.

Emotionally, such statements as the following were examples of their struggles

with socialization: "I'm only as good as my last 5-4 vote" [Obs.5, Nov.]; "This is no place

for the timid" [Obs.5, Nov.]; "I'm trying to get my feet wet" [Obs.1, Sept.]; "People don't

appreciate all the things that you do"[Obs.4, Oct.]; or "Sometimes you don't like the

things you have to do" [Obs.5, Nov]. New experiences may tend to be unsettling, and

those statements are supportive of that phenomenon. Role stress/role strain created

anxiety with doubts and concerns about the participant's execution of the job. "Will they

let me do the job?" [Obs.1, Sept.]; "I need to beef up my areas of weakness" [Obs.5,

Nov.]; "I'm not comfortable with the sorting of information" [Obs.5, Nov.]; "I wish they

would back out and let me run the district" [Obs.3, Sept.]; "If something goes wrong, it's

my fault" [Obs.5, Nov.]; or "I spend my time cleaning up messes" [Obs.3, Sept.] are

examples of job-performance concerns. These tensions may take a toll on the beginning

superintendent because similar issues are constantly occurring and re-occurring throughout the daily life of the beginning superintendent.

Organizational issues created role stress/role strain, most data showing a concern with superintendent-board relationships. It was not an unusual phenomenon to find that board members were related to members of the certified or classified staffs in the school districts used for my study. In fact, that may be a "norm" for many, if not most, school districts, public or private. In any case, understanding the nature of superintendent-board relationships may help the beginning superintendent define the political and power relationships and structures that exist in school districts.

Superintendent "D" encountered a situation in which privileged and sensitive information intended for only the board of education was shared with others outside the board, and political power positioning began to polarize an issue. The "leakage" affected "objectivity" of discussion and decision-making [Obs.3, Sept.]. At the next board meeting, Superintendent "D" was met with prepared argumentation against his recommendation by several board members. As a consequence, Superintendent "D" had begun to be concerned with his ability – or desire – to have open, honest communicative relations with his board members. In reaction, he became more careful and limited the dissemination of politically powerful information on potentially controversial issues.

Several beginning superintendents were concerned with micro-management by their boards of education. This concern could be an area of investigation in and of itself, but it is not the purpose here. Yet, what does the superintendent mean when he or she is concerned about micro-management? In a perplexing fashion, the answer suggested by the superintendents in this study appeared to be that micro-managing was related to any

complaints, involvement, or disagreement with the superintendent's decisions by the board

of education. For example, if there were a disagreement by a board member or members

over a proposed recommendation by the superintendent, the disagreement was interpreted

by the superintendent as board interference or micro-managing. Ironically, the one

participant who expressed the most concern about board of education micro-management

appeared, as I interpreted it, to be overly involved with micro-managing building concerns

[Obs.4, Oct.]. Another participant suggested that his desire was to re-direct the board of

education to be more involved with policy-making than personal agenda issues. In one of

the most blatant examples of micro-management, one superintendent was confronted with

the situation of his board president creating her own resolution and bringing it to the

regular board meeting without the superintendent's prior knowledge [Obs.3, Sept.].

Time pressure demands were identified in all observations. "It's mind-boggling,"

said Superintendent "A" [Exit Interview, Dec.]. Long hours, the need to be able to work

on many unconnected items within a short period of time, or cramming in last minute

preparations for meetings became the regularities of daily life of these beginning

superintendents. Constant phone interruptions, personnel coming into the office, and

interrupting beeper calls were part of each of the observation periods. An inspection of my

field notes for all the observations would reveal the interruption of the flow of the day as

constant events.

Each participant commented on the many meetings that were part of the constant

role stress/role strain of the position. An interesting phenomenon that I observed with each

participant is that which I shall call "stealing time." Whenever the opportunity occurred,

the participants would attempt to do several things at once. At the observation scheduled

for a formal meeting setting, I observed that Superintendent "D" was reading a text and some mail while the meeting was in session [Obs.2, Sept.]. Superintendent "B" said that she was having a difficult time preparing the agenda for a state administrator conference and had to do some of her work during the workday [Obs.3, Oct.]. Whether it was reading mail or texts during a formal meeting, having a "power lunch," or recording messages while skimming various pieces of information, the attempt to maximize the use of time was ever present.

While I did not directly observe the quality of my participants' personal relationships with significant others and families in these subjects' personal lives, I could discern in their expressions of frustration, the stresses they were experiencing in these outside-of-job relationships. Three participants mentioned time pressure demands in relation to family matters. One beginning superintendent mentioned that the "saddest thing" about the job was that her husband was still located a considerable distance away from her, and they were having difficulties finding time for each other [Obs.1, Sept.]. One superintendent said, "My wife may not be as understanding" about the job's time requirements and the necessary balancing of time between family activities and professional responsibilities [Obs.3, Oct]. Because of a scheduled meeting, one superintendent could only call home to check on the condition of his ill son. Although one participant wanted to go home for a short time before an evening board meeting, a problem arose at the end of the afternoon that needed his attention, thus preventing a little family time [Obs.5, Nov.].

Role stress/role strain did affect the health of the participants in the study. Four of the five beginning superintendents had gained weight, with three saying they had gained

"considerable weight" since they had assumed their superintendent's positions. Fear of burnout, headaches, a rise in blood pressure, inconsistent eating habits, and being tired were physiological results of the new job stresses for these participants. One beginning superintendent, who prided himself on his physical fitness, had not been able to exercise since he had been on the job [Obs.4, Oct.]. The daily pace of these participants' lives and their apparent inability to release or step back from the situation created tremendous tension. Superintendent "A" said it this way: "I get too excited over issues. I have to learn methods of calming myself down" [Exit Interview, Dec.].

I paused at this point to reflect on the research data on superintendent longevity: less than three years in large school districts (Carter & Cunningham, 1997) and an average of 6.5 years for all superintendents (Kowalski, 1995b). I surmised that the experiences that I observed and heard about were certainly role stress/role strain aspects of the position that would certainly fuel an individual's desire to leave the position after only a short time on the job.

Role expectations

The role expectations of the participants in this study provided somewhat contradictory information about a general socialization process. Data from the observations seemed to fall into two categories: those concerned with routine or the regularities of their interpretations of the position and those concerned with professional expertise. The contradictions that appeared within the routine/regularity category provided not-so-subtle hints of being uncomfortable with the position. "Learn the role of being a superintendent" at a smaller district [Obs.4, Oct.]; "I'm spending my time doing my homework" [Obs.1, Sept.]; or "Lots of homework" [Obs.1, Sept.] were expressions by

the participants of their attempts at getting to "know" and construct their

superintendencies within the various specific contexts. This type of personal knowledge

construction, and the interpretations thereof, might only be possible through immersion

into a specific context. The struggles appeared to be part of the desire to learn as much as

possible about their situations as soon as possible.

The beginning superintendents appeared to have established and accepted some of

their routines and/or regularities as part of their role expectation constructions: daily

rounds, last minute preparation for meetings, due-process hearings and expulsion

procedures, and levy work. They all appeared adept at mingling with board members and

handling the interactions that occurred before board meetings.

One superintendent made an interesting comment concerning crises that might

arise for the superintendent, "There's less immediacy of issues" [Obs.2, Sept.]. This

participant then quickly added that although there might be less immediacy to issues, the

district impact of decisions is much greater.

All of the beginning superintendents at one time or another mentioned budgeting

and finance issues. Some participants seemed to feel comfortable with their knowledge of

finances, while some wished they had a firmer understanding of the area.

Four of the five study participants stated that visibility was an important factor in

their routines [Obs.1, July; Exit Interviews]. Other district employees had told the four

beginning superintendents that the former superintendent was never seen in the buildings.

One might ask the question, Why did the employees in the district make this type of

statement? What motives might be behind such statements? Were the former

superintendents really not moving about the district buildings, or is this a way of gaining

an audience (power and favor) with the new superintendent? Although it was not part of

this study, I wondered if the participants had asked themselves any of these political and

power questions.

Professional role expectations appeared to center around the superintendent as

"the" expert voice on matters educational, such as standardized test data interpretation

and dealing with the media. Countless times throughout the observations, the participants

were consulted about their understanding and interpretation of particular situations and

specific issues. At the board meeting observation for Superintendent "D," the meeting was

more his meeting than the board's meeting. After almost every recommendation was

presented, there was a question directed to Superintendent "D." Superintendent "E" was

the central focal point of most of the discussion at her cabinet level meeting [Obs.4, Dec.].

The beginning superintendents sat on many different committees, remained active

in other organizations, and exhibited the importance of formal education. It appeared that

even though they were considered equal in status to all other committee members, their

voice was given more weight than others. During an athletic council meeting, although

Superintendent "A" sat inconspicuously in a corner seat, the other members looked at him

whenever a decision was to be made [Obs.2, Aug.]. The Orwellian thought occurred to

me that superintendents were "more equal" than the other members. In most meetings, the

beginning superintendent had questions to investigate and answer for the committees. One

beginning superintendent had served as program chair for a state administrative

association and volunteered for the responsibility of program planning for that group's

state convention. Two of the participants had earned their doctoral degrees, one was

working toward a doctorate, and one at least mentioned some thoughts about continuing

formal education. These last two participants mentioned the time commitment as a barrier

to their progression toward the doctorate. However, one participant lamented that the

"classes don't prepare you" for the superintendency [Obs.5, Nov.]. This brought to my

mind the educational administrator preparation program criticism that was discussed

earlier (see Chapter 2, pp. 37-39).

Role conflict

Role conflict – incompatible behavioral expectations – provided an interesting

insight into the prior socialization of several of the beginning superintendents. Although

evidence was less frequent for this category, there was one consistent theme expressed: "I

miss the contact with kids" [Obs.4, Oct.]. Three of the five participants stated that they

had difficulty in adjusting to the non-school building environment. All three had been

employed as building principals in their previous positions. One participant did express

that he had done a "little second-guessing about leaving the principalship" [Obs.5, Nov.].

Another said, "Initially, the job felt so different" [Obs.5, Nov.]. One had a central office

located completely away from a student building setting and had difficulty adjusting to the

quietness of the new setting. Superintendent "D" was worried about his own interference

with building issues because he was located next door to the high school office.

Superintendent "A" provided the most vivid example of being confronted with an

incompatible role situation. In his exit interview, when the question was specifically asked

about incompatible expectations, he immediately gave the answer of firing the basketball

coach. He seemed to feel this was the main reason he got the job. His words were,

"They're looking for somebody to take some tough measures. They hired me to do a job,

and I'm gonna do it" [Exit Interview, Dec.].

One might ask why the other two participants did not express the same kind of role-conflict, particularly regarding interaction with students. Their professional preparations and immediate past experiences may provide some clues. Superintendent "E," who did not comment about missing the interaction with students, had been a central-office administrator in the past two positions held, and it had also been a considerable number of years since this person had been a building principal. Superintendent "B" had had an extensive career in special education and had been involved more recently as a special education administrator. For these two beginning superintendents, there had been limited recent contact with students.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The research for my study suggests that a socialization period for a beginning

superintendent is a rich source of research data. Although the time period may vary with

each individual, the beginning superintendent may experience a fleeting period of struggle

in his or her own role transition. Unfortunately, the stress, strains, conflicts, or frustrations

occurring during the entry period into the superintendency may be forgotten as the

beginning superintendent's tenure continues. My research for the study challenges some of

the recent negative criticism about educational administration preparation programs and

the individual's readiness to assume the traditionally constructed public school

superintendency. In fact, this study would argue that educational administration

preparation programs do an adequate job in preparing individuals to be managerial leaders

of schools. The quest for a program that would prepare an individual for everything that

could happen to him or her is more challenging. There are situations that can only be

understood through experience in a specific context. Can we in the educational leadership

arena really prepare a candidate for those experiences that will occur? Can we really

prepare ourselves for the experience of marriage, parenthood, or the death of a loved one?

These types of experiences must be lived and meaning constructed by the individual.

Summary of Findings

This study of beginning superintendents investigated whether or not other

beginning superintendents had experienced or were experiencing the types of role

transition challenges and alienation that I had felt as a beginning superintendent. In the

observations and interviews of the five beginning superintendents, I gathered the following

findings. The format for reviewing the findings that will be used for this section will follow the flow of the findings that emerged from this study.

District context

The study illustrated the uniqueness of each of the district settings. Whether small or large, urban or suburban, it did not matter. Each had its own special characteristics and areas of extreme importance. One district was proud if its buildings. Two districts were proud of the recent successes of their football teams, and there appeared to be extreme value placed on athletic success. A special pre-school program and the fact that the school district offered special services to the community were sources of pride in another district. The point is that each of the participants encountered unique situations that only could have been "known" by being there.

There were some important general features that were shared by each situation. I felt the five communities had a strong aversion to change and wanted to keep things the same. At least during the time of the study, there appeared to be no pressure on the beginning superintendents to change anything. In fact, there appeared to be more resistance to reform initiatives than support for them. My research suggests that most beginning superintendents will discover some sort of controversy existing in the district upon his or her arrival. The controversy could be a personnel issue, a political hot potato, or a legal or procedural issue. Each superintendent had some sort of mess to clean up. Although some of these problems may get "solved" during the superintendent's tenure, some of the problems seemed likely to linger as an enigma for a long time. As the beginning superintendent encountered problems on arrival, he or she, in turn, may leave some messes when he or she departs.

Finance

Each superintendent spent time looking for new financial resources. This issue

crossed state lines. There is an assumption that Pennsylvania schools do not have the

financial problems that Ohio schools do because of a difference in how the schools are

funded in Pennsylvania. However, more money was needed for general fund expenditures,

building repair, and educational materials in all districts.

Local history exposed what the community truly valued. Athletic facilities and

successes were extremely important in two communities. Lacking knowledge of local

history and past practice appeared to impact the effectiveness and relationship-building of

these beginning superintendents.

Each superintendent appeared to confront a community that was somewhat

indifferent to academic programs. Because of the emphasis on accountability through the

use of proficiency and standardized testing, these superintendents appeared to be forced to

emphasize student score improvements in order to maintain an appearance of district

academic progress.

Another area that seemed to create extreme pressure and resource demands was

special education. Because of the growth of special education, both in terms of number of

students and expansion of programs, each superintendent had to address the increasing

demands of these programs and from involved parents.

Each of the participants noted that their relationships with other school employees

had changed from when they were teachers. Some were more comfortable with this

change than others. Although I was working with a limited number of subjects, the

females tended to show much more of a collaborative and cooperative style of

management when working with their colleagues than the males. The conversations of the females were greater in length than the verbal interactions of the males. The participants mentioned in their exit interviews that their relationships with various groups were good at that point. Two of the males noted that they had networked with some other administrative colleagues. Another participant really expressed an interest in and a need for a mentor. This arrangement, of course, could have positive and/or negative consequences in that it could perpetuate a specific style of leadership.

Conflict was the emerging category with the most data entries. Ironically, school staff employees were the source of most conflict. One might believe that school employees should be the source of greatest cooperation and support, but for these five superintendents this was not the case. Some of the employee attitudes were a source of frustration and disappointment. Envy, jealousy, and bitterness was often directed at the new superintendent, other district leaders, or other employees. The stories of the assistant superintendent who was working next to the dismissed superintendent or the principal who had wanted the superintendency were vivid examples of how personal feelings created conflict. Regardless, these were relationship situations with which the superintendents had to deal.

Board members also created conflict in several ways. Each of these superintendents was concerned over board of education micromanagement. They were each struggling with the question of whether the board really wanted them to lead. Board member's personal agendas were present, and the agendas usually were concerned with personnel issues and the board members' attempts to influence the hiring practices of the district. Each superintendent also expressed a fear of the unknown, particularly at what

might occur at a school board meeting. I remembered the board meeting when the school

board president unexpectedly produced a resolution upon which she expected school

board action. The superintendent had no knowledge of the content of the resolution and

was caught in an awkward situation. While we would have assumed that one of the most

important relationships for a new superintendent would be that with the board president,

my findings indicated that superintendent-board president relationships cannot be

assumed.

Community issues emerged as a source of conflict. Although the closing of two

buildings had occurred long before the arrival of one of the new superintendents, some

community members were still very angry. When another superintendent mentioned the

possibility of building a new high school, the community strongly resisted. Some of the

resistance occurred at a special presentation to the community, a situation in which

resistors used the public forum to put the new superintendent on the spot.

Community members can be a source of unexpected conflict. This happened to

two superintendents during their school board meetings. In each circumstance a parent

confronted the superintendent and school board with a problem and demanded immediate

attention. Not only is there very little control for the superintendent over the board of

education, but I also observed that the superintendent has little control over what happens

at the meeting. Even though there is great control for the superintendent at the level of the

agenda, one cannot plan for the unexpected "irregular" actions of others.

For the most part, students were not the cause for conflict-inducing situations. In

the superintendent's position, each had to consciously create interactions with students.

This was difficult because of the time demands and district responsibilities. It appeared to

be a major "plus" for the two superintendents who were able to generate student interactions. As one board-president said it, "We hired him because he is still a teacher" [Obs.2, Aug.].

Legal requirements and procedural matters emerged as sources of conflict for each superintendent. Regardless of the district, there was always something that was not procedurally or not legally in order. The violations had most likely occurred long before the beginning superintendent's arrival. Interestingly, I did not hear any participant blaming former superintendents for problems. They all seemed to recognize that they, too, would leave some kind leftover messes that others would need to clean up.

It is trite to say that the superintendent's position is political. Even though these superintendents seemed to acknowledge the political nature of the job, they still seemed surprised by the politics. They encountered pressures to use local contractors for building repairs, pressures to recommend the hiring of a board member's niece, and/or pressures to be seen with the mayor at a public meeting. One superintendent was already using the political process to identify the power people on the staff. He wished to develop these individuals as leaders for change. Although the participants appeared to dislike the politics of the job, they were also willing to recognize its importance and dealt with it accordingly.

The superintendents in the study appeared to operate from a centralized power mind-set. Examples of the centralized power mind-set occurred during the interview sessions. I noted such comments as "I'm moving the direction" [Exit Interview, Dec.], "What I'm going to do is" [Exit Interview, Dec.], or "I think I ought to be as autonomous as I choose to be" [Exit Interview, Nov.]. These comments were made so casually that it revealed the near invisibility of the top-down management style.

Yet, other examples of top-down control presented themselves on several occasions. All of the participants were visible and active members of many committees. In most public meetings, I observed that the other participants yielding to the superintendent's opinions, directions, or decisions. When the superintendents volunteered information and/or were asked questions during the many meetings, telephone conversations, and discussions, their answers were the ones that either ended discussion or provided the next direction for the discussion.

My research did not yield a great amount of information on gender and/or racial issues. I have already discussed some of the possible reasons for this and will have recommendations for future research later in this section. However, there were several areas in which findings did emerge. Gender was still an issue in the hiring practices of some districts, and one particular participant in my study carefully identified stereotypes that were applied to females.

There also seemed to be no major problems for the female participants, concerning the white, male patriarchal domination of the public school superintendency. I make this statement with extreme caution. This specific lack of concern may have been because I was a stranger to the participants, and their perception of me may have been as someone representing a white, male world of positivist educational administration. For example, the interview session responses from the female superintendents revealed one interesting aspect that may be related to how female administrators respond with suspicion or caution to questions from male researchers. Both female interview sessions were shorter, both in time and length of answers, than those given to me by the male beginning superintendents.

Obviously, I do not know why that occurred, but I suspect that it has something to do with my being a male and also a superintendent.

The participants in the study relied on their past professional experiences. One superintendent who listened to music as he worked had once been music teacher; one superintendent who continued to be directly involved with special education and had been a special education teacher. For another, once an elementary principal, it may have been therapeutic to once again wander down the halls of an elementary building. Returning to a comfort zone had some positive and healthy benefits for the beginning superintendent, creating a much-needed respite from the stresses and the problems of each day.

My research suggests that "the" superintendency is "a" superintendency, a unique construction in and of itself for the individual within the family of educational administration. It appears that other administrative positions are not necessarily preparatory steps, and that other educational leadership positions are only related because they are part of the same bureaucratic structure. Once again, the data from the study revealed comments from the superintendents that they were "learning something new all the time" [Obs.1, Sept.], or "every day was a learning experience" [Obs.4, Oct.]. As an individual was socialized into other positions within educational administration, he or she began another role transition process when each became immersed into his or her own superintendency.

The word that most fully represents the summary of my findings would be that of "acceptance." Not only did the participants appear to be accepting of their hierarchical bureaucratic setting, but they also appeared to have constructed their meanings of the superintendency by using traditional models. For the five subjects in my study, there

appeared to be no philosophical concern about the traditional bureaucratic construction of

the public school superintendency. One beginning superintendent mentioned "stability" as

one reason he took the job [Obs.1, Sept.]. I took that to mean that he wanted stability

both for the district and for his career.

One superintendent was bothered by the power he had over people in the

organization. That superintendent still "wanted to be one of the guys," and he expressed

his discomfort with teachers and other employees addressing him as "Mister" [Exit

Interview, Dec.]. He was also upset that some of his closer friends had gone to this form

of address. It appears that the traditionally constructed power structure of school districts

and the general public still view the superintendent as a traditional authority figure.

My observations indicated that the lenses through which the participants "knew"

the superintendency were ontologically, epistemologically, and methodologically grounded

in a traditional positivistic model, and they appeared to be comfortable therein. Further,

their apparent acceptance of a positivist construction of the public school superintendency

and the pressure from the general public to keep things the same may not have permitted

them the sense of freedom for de-constructing or re-constructing the superintendency.

Throughout the observations and the interviews, I was hoping to hear "the theory

ladenness of facts, the underdetermination of theory, the value ladenness of facts, and the

interactive nature of the inquirer/inquired-into dyad" (Guba, 1990, pp. 25-26). I assumed

that the newly-trained beginning superintendents would question some of the philosophical

assumptions they encountered in the current organization when they started their jobs. I

also assumed that they would encounter personal conflict when they tried to implement

ideologies and perspectives based upon contemporary constructivist, critical theory, and

feminist theories. To my surprise, no reference to leadership theories took place during the time of my study, and there appeared to be no conflict with the present theories in place in the district.

Recommendations

As may be the case with most research, new questions were created as the study continued. The first recommendation for further research would be that this type of study on beginning superintendents should be conducted collaboratively with a team of researchers that would include females and minority group members. I would also suggest that at least one university researcher be part of the team. While my being a superintendent gave me ready access to beginning superintendents who were willing to help me in this dissertation, I believe a university researcher on the team might have added an element of "distance" that my being a peer did not provide. As I began to review the findings, I realized the need to make a recommendation to use a team for this type of research. Not only did I have limitations due to my social position, but I was also completely unable to see some other issues.

I believe that my being a white, male researcher particularly skewed and distorted the research experience. Some of the candidness and openness may have been lost. Some power relationships may have been hidden from me because of my social carriage. I suspect I was often shown that which I was "supposed" to see because I was seemingly a representative of the status quo.

With the male participants I also saw what I was "supposed" to see. One of the male participants (Alpha) continually included me in the discussion by using such phrases as "You and I both know," "You know this, Fred," and "You and I are the ones" [Exit

Interview, Dec.]. There was an assumed connection because we were both in the same position, both male and both white. I can only suspect I may not have been included by participants who saw me as other.

The invisible power of the traditional bureaucratic organizational designs appears to have socialized both the female and the male participants into a patriarchal leadership model. Although I would not expect all females to be feminists, I was expecting to see some difference in leadership styles. bell hooks (cited in Nicholson, 1990) has stated that feminists who deny the power of critical reason and abstract discourse often reproduce a cultural practice that operates in the interest of patriarchy. At some point I was reminded of a folk-wisdom I once heard, "Just because you can't see the fence, doesn't mean you're not fenced in."

I would also recommend that a study should be done with a more specifically defined screening, identification, and selection of participants for their exposure to alternative leadership literature. By attempting to identify beginning superintendents who had an awareness of alternative trends in educational leadership, the subjects might be more apt to explore creative tensions during the socialization period. Such individuals might be more inclined to introduce organizational change or attempt to create a new type of superintendency. In addition to a targeted screening process for the subjects, there should be a targeted screening of the superintendent's board of education to determine the board's perspective on change. Research could be done on two conflicting situations: one where a superintendent and board are open to change, and one where a superintendent wishes to introduce change into the district but the board wants things to stay the same.

At the start of my research I had made an assumption that the beginning superintendents would have had exposure to some of these new ideological trends in educational leadership and organizational structure. I further assumed that my participants would have "wrestled" with these ideological perspectives and may have been inclined to use them to challenge traditional leadership and organizational thinking. It might be productive to attempt to identify individuals for study who have had an exposure to some of the more alternative leadership and organizational writings, such as feminist, critical theory, and postmodernist, and study their socialization periods. How would this type of exposure affect their perspectives on socialization? Would these specifically identified individuals have a more difficult time during the role transition period? In what ways might these individuals become more frustrated and leave the superintendency? Would these people tend to be the risk-takers in organizational and leadership reform and innovation? These certainly would be exciting new avenues for research on the superintendency. If current educational literature seeking to create a more caring, nurturing, and cooperative construction of the superintendency is viable, should not it surface in the personal ideologies and professional performances of a new generation of superintendents?

This research design needs to be modified so that a beginning superintendent's socialization be studied along more ethnographic, longitudinal designs. I would suggest that a study be conducted which reduces the number of participants, a study that concentrates on a particular type of setting, or concentrates on a specific group of individuals, i.e., women, minorities. Such studies might allow for the possible development of more confiding, open, and trusting relationships that could reveal a deeper understanding of the socialization period for the participants.

A researcher might also investigate the role transition experience by selectively identifying the specific perspectives from which a beginning superintendent "knows" his or her world. Both by using qualitative and quantitative data, researchers could investigate the role transition experiences of individuals from the different philosophical "camps." The results of this type of research could be used as a tool to encourage the beginning superintendent to expand his or her understanding of the philosophical, epistemological, and political lenses through which he or she views the world. This type of information and knowledge may not be experienced when an individual completes minimal requirements for a superintendent's certificate or license. The beginning superintendent should be able to answer such questions as: "From what ideological perspectives do I construct my superintendency, i.e., positivistic, critical theory, feminist, etc.?"; "What happens if I have difficulty being "socialized" into the context of my district?"; "What types of issues create the most role stress or strain for me?"; "In what areas am I most comfortable and why?"

"The Man Who Would Not Be Superintendent" has completed the research for this project, but his work is far from over. As Sisyphus pushes the rock up the hill only to see it cascade again to the bottom in what appears to be a constant meaningless activity, my project is to be the voice of encouragement with and for others who attempt to look at new ways of educational leadership. The messages and problems produced by my research will continue to provide me with further adventures in doing research with a greater understanding of how to improve my leadership skills as well as my research strategies.

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Appendix A

CCA

ORGANIZATIONAL CHART

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                    ┌──────────────────────┐
                    │  Board of Education   │
                    └──────────────────────┘

    ┌─────────────────────┐          ┌─────────────────────┐
    │    Superintendent    │- - - - - │      Treasurer      │
    └─────────────────────┘          └─────────────────────┘

┌─────────────┐  ┌──────────────────────────┐  ┌────────────────────┐
│  Secretary  │  │ Director of Student Services │  │ Treasurer's Staff │
└─────────────┘  └──────────────────────────┘  └────────────────────┘

┌─────────────┐  ┌──────────────────────┐  ┌──────────────────────────────┐
│ Principals  │  │ Cafeteria Supervisor │  │ Transportation Co-Ordinator  │
└─────────────┘  └──────────────────────┘  └──────────────────────────────┘

                 ┌──────────────────┐
                 │ Cafeteria Workers │
                 └──────────────────┘

                              ┌─────────────┐      ┌─────────────┐
                              │ Bus Drivers │      │  Mechanics  │
                              └─────────────┘      └─────────────┘

┌─────────────┐ ┌─────────────┐ ┌──────────┐ ┌─────────────┐ ┌─────────┐
│ Maintenance │ │ Custodians  │ │ Teachers │ │ Secretaries │ │  Nurse  │
└─────────────┘ └─────────────┘ └──────────┘ └─────────────┘ └─────────┘
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Adopted:
March 8, 1993

Appendix A1

SCHOOL DEPARTMENT ORGANIZATION   167

inspiration of his principals and teachers, the coördination of the work of the schools, the administration of the course of study, the educational development of the school system,

Org chart boxes: People of the State represented in the Legislature — State Superintendent of Public Instruction — County Superintendent of Schools — Educational Committee of the Board — People of the City School District — City Board of Education — Special Supervisors — CITY SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS — School Principals — Attendance Officer — Special Teachers — Business Committee of the Board — Business and Office Clerk — Stenographer — School Janitor — Regular Teachers — Kindergarten Teachers — Pupils — Parents

FIG. 12. PLAN OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR A SMALL CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM, AND SHOWING PROPER RELATIONSHIPS. This plan would apply to a city school system employing from about 40 to about 100 teachers

the work of special teachers, and the work of the attendance officer. While doing this he must not lose sight of the other aspects of his work and the other problems of his schools. Expansion as the city grows. As the city supervised grows

166   PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION

and the State, and keeps the board and the people of the community informed as to needs and conditions. Under a proper form of organization, as shown by the lines, the board and its committees act only through him, and members of the school department communicate officially with members of the board only through his office.[1]

His office force consists of a good business and office clerk, and a stenographer. The clerk looks after office matters in his absence, makes purchases, fills requisitions, checks up bills, distributes books and supplies to the schools, attends to most of the routine correspondence, takes charge of the minutes, and notifies all parties concerned of the official actions of the board of education. The stenographer, in addition to handling the official mail, mimeographs circulars, files documents, answers the telephone, and does necessary messenger service.

With his school principals and the two special supervisors, the superintendent must supervise the work of the schools. In a city system of fifty to seventy-five teachers this will naturally form a very important part of his services, and in such a system he should strive to become an expert at such work. He must look after the proper education and

[1] The following may be taken to represent the school system shown in Figure 12:—

Employees

1 superintendent of schools.
1 supervisor of primary work.
1 supervisor of drawing.
1 high-school principal.
4 elementary-school principals.
9 high-school teachers.
78 elementary-school teachers.
1 kindergarten teachers.
1 manual-training teacher.
1 cooking teacher.
1 ungraded-room teacher.
—
98

Scope of system

1 high school.
2 medium-sized elementary schools with a kindergarten in each.
2 smaller elementary schools.
1 manual-training center.
1 cooking-center, in one of the larger buildings.
1 ungraded room, in one of the larger buildings.

Office force

1 office and business clerk.
1 attendance officer.
1 stenographer.
—
3

FIG. 13. PLAN OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR A MEDIUM-SIZED CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM, AND SHOWING PROPER RELATIONSHIPS

This plan would apply to a city school system employing from about 125 to about 250 teachers. The lines to and from the board committees are dotted, for the reason that, if the board is small, there is little need for any standing committees
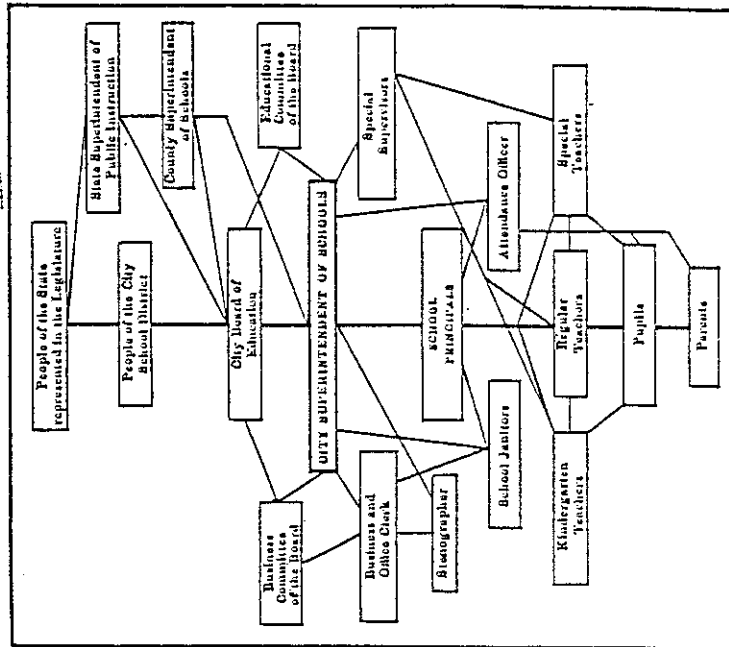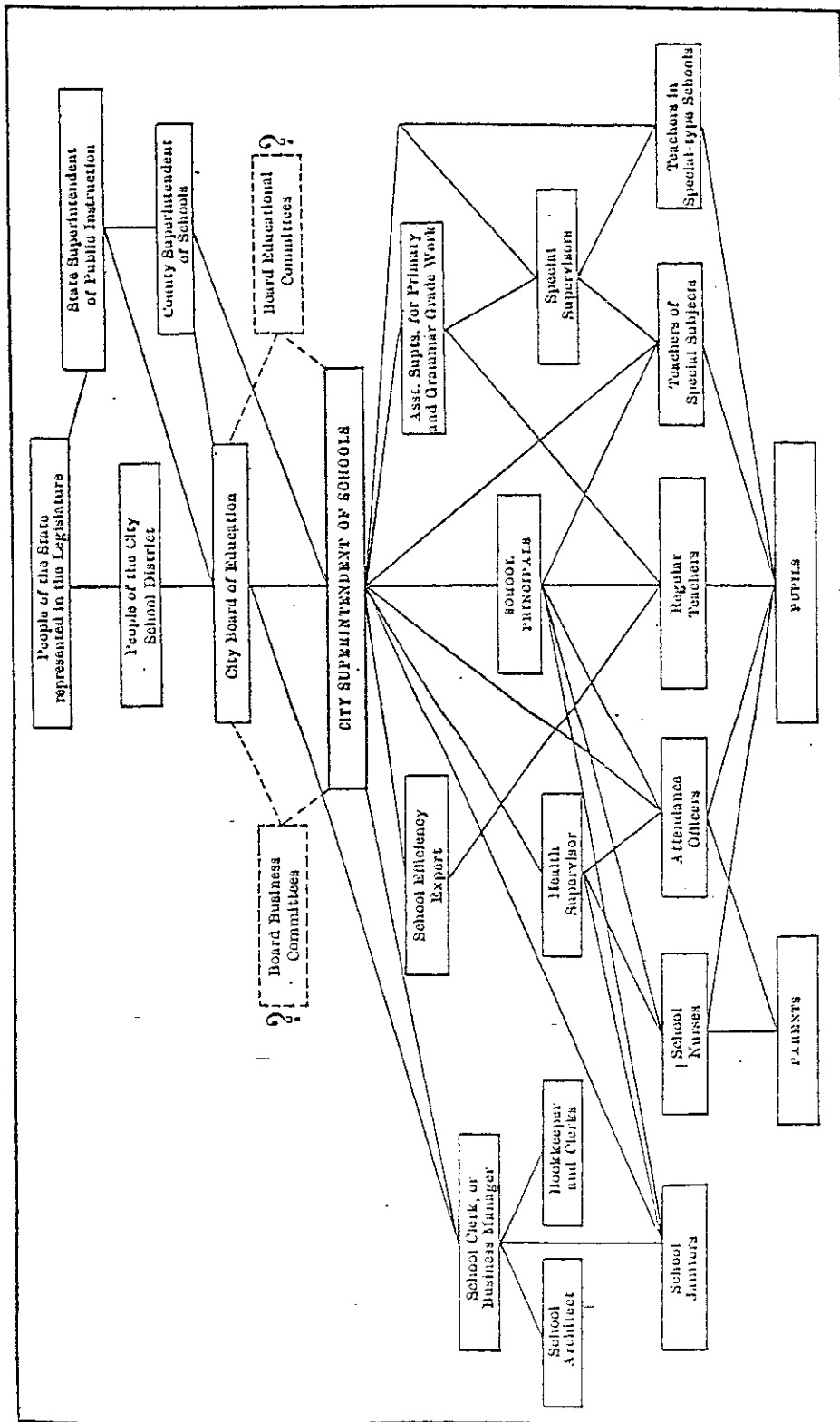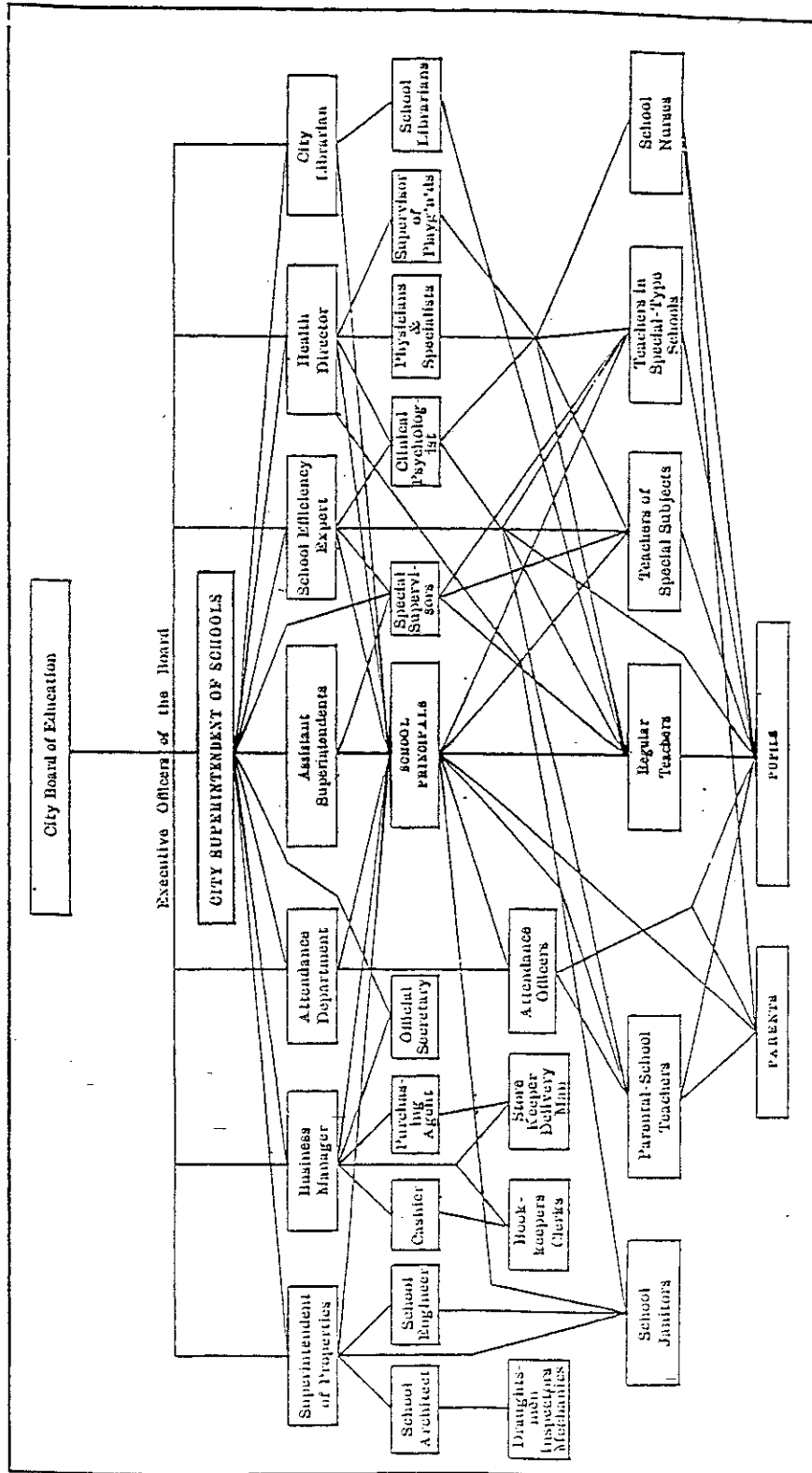
FIG. 14. PLAN OF EDUCATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR A LARGE CITY SCHOOL SYSTEM, AND SHOWING PROPER RELATIONSHIPS

This plan would apply to a city employing 350 to 400 teachers, or upwards. The board committees have been omitted entirely here, for the reason that the school business will be transacted better, under the above organization, if the board has no committees at all

THE HOME SAVINGS AND LOAN COMPANY OF YOUNGSTOWN
JOB POSTING NOTICE

DATE POSTED:	DEPT/BRANCH:	JOB GRADE:
	Training Department	
	Main Office	

JOB TITLE:	SUPERVISOR:	SALARY RANGE:
Management Trainee		

JOB POSTING APPLICATIONS <u>MUST</u> BE RECEIVED IN THE HUMAN RESOURCES DEPARTMENT BY:

JOB DESCRIPTION:
The objective of the Management Trainee program is to expose the individual to the basic overall banking operation. At the end of the training program, the trainee should have enough exposure and have demonstrated the potential to, in time fill a managerial position as openings become available. The training schedule will vary according to the qualifications and ability of the trainee. The scheduling and coordination of all training is completed by the Training Manager and reviewed with the Management Trainee. The trainee will be required to complete a written summary after each phase of training. The trainee's progress is evaluated on an ongoing basis by each supervisor that works with the trainee. The evaluations will be reviewed with the Management Trainee during periodic meetings with the Training Manager and kept on file in the Training Department. In general the Management Trainee is placed as a loan officer upon satisfactory completion of the training program.

WORK HOURS REQUIRED: Variable work hours - depending on assignments

REQUIRED SKILLS:
Strong interpersonal skills. Must possess the ability to learn and comprehend quickly, to develop as a decision maker and to delegate. Must be self-motivated and have the ability to motivate others. Must be flexible and adaptable to change. Familiar with company policies and procedures. Typing, keyboarding, computer experience.

PHYSICAL DEMANDS:
The physical demands described here are representative of those that must be met by an employee to successfully perform the essential functions of this job. Reasonable accommodations may be made to enable individuals with disabilities to perform the essential functions. While performing the duties of this job, the employee is regularly required to use hands to finger, handle or feel. The employee is regularly required to talk or hear. The employee is frequently required to stand, walk, sit, and reach with hands or arms. The employee must occasionally lift and/or move up to 10 pounds. Specific vision abilities required by this job include close vision, distance vision, color vision, and ability to adjust focus.

MINIMUM EXPERIENCE REQUIREMENTS: *SEE BELOW:*

EDUCATIONAL REQUIREMENTS: Must possess (1) of the following:

a. High School diploma or equivalent / minimum 5 yrs. banking experience / 2 yrs. supervisory experience preferred
b. Associate Degree - 3.00 GPA* - minimum 2 yrs. banking experience
c. Associate Degree - less than 3.00 GPA* - minimum 3 yrs. banking experience
d. Bachelors' Degree - 3.00 GPA* - No previous experience
e. Bachelors Degree - Less than 3.00 GPA* - minimum of 18 months banking experience

    * *Certified transcripts will be required*
     Institute classes, Star Teller beneficial

FOR HUMAN RESOURCES USE ONLY

    *Approved for Posting:*_____   *Date:*_____

                              _____   *Date:*_____

THE HOME SAVINGS AND LOAN COMPANY IS AN AFFIRMATIVE ACTION / EQUAL OPPORTUNITY EMPLOYER

Appendix C1

School District Brochure

The _____, along with its staff and community are seeking a superintendent with proven leadership capabilities, a diverse educational background and instructional expertise. The characteristics and qualifications highly desirable in the new superintendent are:

A visible and approachable leader with a passion for education and a strong dedication to serve the community

An experienced educator with a career history of providing challenging instruction to **each student** and in improving student achievement

A superior communicator who demonstrates exceptional motivational and communication skills to the students, staff, board and community.

A goals oriented visionary with an interest and ability to stay abreast of contemporary educational research on a national level

A strong chief executive with an ability to work with local, county, state, and national public officials, business and industry leaders, focusing on the future success and development of the district

A team builder with a style that emphasizes participation, cooperation and shared goals

An astute fiscal manager with a solid background in school finance and promoting levies

An uncompromising role model who sets high standards and demonstrates personal honesty and integrity.

A decisive manager with an understanding of the complex issues facing a growing district and an ability to capitalize on the district's current momentum

A caring person with strong interpersonal skills that maintain quality relationships with employees, students, parents and community

A confident leader with an ability to empower staff with responsibility and authority while maintaining accountability

Most of all, the superintendent must be dedicated to placing the student first in all decisions.

Appendix C2

School District Brochure

The new superintendent must possess or qualify for an Ohio Superintendent Certificate. The Board is seeking a chief executive officer who is willing and has the ability to assume the role of educational leader in the community. The position requires experience in and working knowledge of sound fiscal and business management practices. The new superintendent must demonstrate effective motivational and communication skills. He/she should also be an innovator, responsive to community expectations; one who enthusiastically interacts with students, staff, parents and other members of the community; and whose consistent direction will further the district's education program. Prior superintendent experience is desired, however, candidates with successful central office experience will be considered.

Strengths of the new superintendent will include:

Ability to communicate ideas to board, staff and community. Consistently keeps the Board informed.

Ability to work effectively in the area of human relations. A "people person" with strong interpersonal skills.

Knowledge of negotiations and experienced in the collective bargaining process.

A person of vision and direction.

Successful experience with school finance campaigns, facility planning and construction and school business operations.

Experience with planning, problem-solving and decision-making processes that are open to ideas and concerns of the Board, employees, students, parents and community members.

Experience as a classroom teacher, building administrator and/or central office administrator.

Residency in the district is preferred.

Appendix C3

School District Brochure

The Board is seeking an experienced Superintendent with proven leadership capabilities who will be able to communicate effectively with the community, parents, faculty and students.

Strengths of the new Superintendent will include:

"People skills" – outgoing, easily approachable, charismatic, warm, self-confident, good judgment and high moral character;

A progressive and innovative leader who can tackle difficult problems and bring to a successful conclusion;

A goal-setter who can evaluate, analyze, plan and act;

Ability to effectively evaluate staff and provide leadership for continued improvement;

Ability to responsibly delegate tasks to appropriate staff and hold such staff accountable;

Ability to work with Board, treasurer and staff to operate district efficiently within budget;

Experience and commitment to strategic planning;

A working knowledge of Ohio school finance, school law and regulations;

Successful experience in school levy campaigns;

Experience as a classroom teacher and building administrator.

It is the Board's intention to offer the successful candidate a multi-year contract. Salary and fringe benefits are negotiable and will be commensurate with the qualifications of the candidate selected. Residency within the district is required, and it is expected that the successful candidate will maintain high visibility and become involved in community activities and organizations.

Appendix D

Screening Questionnaire

Name _____

Address _____

_____

Phone   W - _____   H - _____

DOB _____ Race _____   Sex: M   F

School District_____

Official Starting Date on Contract_____ Length of Contract_____

Do you have an officially designated mentor? Y   N ;
        If so, Whom_____
Number of Studen_____

Occupational History: Most Recent to First

Institution   Years   Position

_____ _____   _____

_____ _____   _____

_____ _____   _____

_____ _____   _____

_____ _____   _____

Did you ever teach in your new district?   Y   N

How long were you a teacher?   _____

College/University Educational History: Latest to First

Institution   Years   Degree

_____ _____   _____

_____ _____   _____

_____ _____   _____

_____ _____   _____

Highest Degree Earned: _____

When is your school board meeting? _____

When is your superintendent's meeting?   _____

When do some of your community groups meet?

_____

_____

_____

When do you begin your day? _____

Why do you think you were selected? _____

_____

_____

What do you believe to be your most pressing problem right now?

_____

_____

Questionnaire personally designed from: Cunningham, L. L., &
Hentges, J. (Eds.). (1982). The American school superintendency 1982:
A full report. Arlington, VA:The American Association of School
Administrators.

Appendix E

BEGINNING SUPERINTENDENTS

EXIT INTERVIEW QUESTIONS

1. What issues were difficult or problematic for you when you were deciding to accept this superintendency?

2. What do you see as the opportunities and challenges of this superintendency?

3. What have you done so far to make your entry successful? Did you have a formal entry plan?

4. What have been some critical incidents/turning points so far in your superintendency? What happened? What did you do next? What was the result?

5. What events have happened so far that have created personal or professional (moral or ethical) dilemmas for you? How did you resolve them?

6. At this point what support would you like to have that you have not had?

7. What do you now see as priorities for the district right now?

8. Do you anticipate the need for new rules or policies?

9. How much autonomy versus close connections to the district office do you think principals should have?

10. How much autonomy versus close connections to the board of education do you think the superintendent should have?

11. Have your professional relationships changed while you have been in this position?

12. Describe the way you now relate to:

    a. students

    b. teachers

    c. administrators within your district

    d. community members

    e. board of education members

    f. politicians

    g. your secretary

13. When you held other administrative positions, with whom did you have your closest professional relationships?

14. With whom do you now confide?

15. Describe your present level of comfort in being a superintendent.

16. What have been sources of stress and tension for you so far?

17. What type of time demand pressures have you felt?

18. To what incompatible expectations have you been exposed so far?

19. What changes have you experienced in your personal life and personal health?

20. How would you describe yourself as a superintendent right now?

Ohio School Boards Association

700 Brooksedge Blvd. • P.O. Box 6100 • Westerville, OH 43086-6100

(614) 891-6466 • (800) 589-6722 *(Ohio only)* • (614) 891-2834 (FAX)

Date: 6/8/98

Time: _____

Please deliver this transmission immediately to:

Mr./Ms./Mrs.: Fred Johnson, Supt.

School District/Company: Newton Falls Exempted Village

FAX number: 330/872-3351

From: Tim Kremer

OSBA

number of pages: 1
(including this cover page)

If you do not receive any of the pages properly, please call immediately

OSBA telephone number: (614) 891-6466

OSBA FAX number: (614) 891-2834

Comments: Following are superintendents who will start

their first superintendency this year!

_____

_____

_____

serving the public school leadership team

Appendix G

Date: Wed, 01 Jul 1998 09:30:07 -0500 (EST)
From: 301_FISCAL@NEOMN0.NEOMIN.OHIO.GOV
Subject: SUPERINTENDENT/DOCTORAL CANDIDATE NEEDS HELP WITH DISSERTATION
To: OECN_SUPT_PUB@NEOMN0.NEOMIN.OHIO.GOV

        1, 1998

TO: ALL SUPERINTENDENTS

FROM: FREDERICK JOHNSON   (330-278-5448)

RE: SUPERINTENDENT/DOCTORAL CANDIDATE NEEDS HELP WITH DISSERTATION

IF YOU ARE, OR KNOW SOMEONE, WHO WILL BE A BEGINNING SUPERINTENDENT FOR
THE 1998-99 SCHOOL YEAR, PLEASE CONTACT ME.

THE PROFILE I NEED IS:

1.   BEGINNING SUPERINTENDENT

2.   NEW TO DISTRICT (NEVER TAUGHT IN THE DISTRICT WHERE YOU ARE
                      SUPERINTENDENT.)

3.   AT LEAST 15 YEARS IN THE CLASSROOM.

THIS WILL BE A QUALITATIVE STUDY WITH MINIMUM WORK ON PARTICIPANT'S
PART.   IF YOU CAN HELP, PLEASE CONTACT ME.   THANKS.

PS: IF ANYONE HAS A COPY OF EITHER OF THESE TWO BOOKS, OR MIGHT KNOW
      THERE WHEREABOUTS, I WOULD BE WILLING TO PURCHASE THEM:
      1.   ARTHUR BLUMBERG'S (1985) - THE SCHOOL SUPERINTENDENT: LIVING
           WITH CONFLICT.
      2.   ELLWOOD CUBBERLEY'S (1916 OR 1922) - THE PUBLIC SCHOOL
           ADMINISTRATOR.

YSU

July 14, 1998

Mr. Frederick C. Johnson
Department of Educational Administration
UNIVERSITY

RE: Human Subjects Research Protocol #52-98

Dear Mr. Johnson:

The Human Subjects Research Committee has reviewed your protocol, "The Man Who
Would Not Be Superintendent: Struggling with On-the-job Socialization," and determined that
it is exempt from review based on DHHS Category 1 and Category 3 exemption.

Please report any changes in your research activity or any unanticipated problems involving
risks to subjects to the Human Subjects Research Committee immediately.

We wish you well in this study and look forward to hearing of your progress.

Sincerely,

Eric Lewandowski
Administrative Co-Chair
Human Subjects Research Committee

cc

c: Dr. Linda Wesson, Chair
        Department of Educational Administration
      Dr. Glorianne Leck, Advisor
        Department of Educational Administration

Celebratin YSU 30 Yea as a State Univ

Appendix I
Demographic Data

1. Ages:

Participant	DOB	Current Age	Central Office Exp.
A	11/12/48	50	N
B	1/3/52	47	N
C	8/14/54	44	N
D	6/29/57	41	N
E	6/5/51	47	Y
	Mean =	45.6	

2. District Size:

	Students
A - Alpha	1280
B - Beta	1300
C - Gamma	957
D - Delta	590
E - Epsilon	8500

3. Length of Teaching Career:

	Years		Yrs. Since Being In the Classroom
A	9		18
B	17		7
C	7	(Teacher/Counselor)	14
D	5		13
E	7		18
Mean=	9		14

4. Educational Level:

	Degree
A	M. Ed.
B	Doc.
C	M. Ed.
D	M. Ed.
E	Doc.

5. Gender/Race:

	Gender	Race	OH-EMISFY97 District W/AA%
A	M	W	
B	F	W	
C	M	W	97.9/.1
D	M	W	98.4/.6
E	F	A/A	75.3/20.8

6. ADC Level of District:

District	ADC%-OH-EMISFY97	
Alpha	70	(est.)
Beta		
Gamma	0.9	
Delta	9.7	
Epsilon	18.2	

7. Outsider/Insider:

All participants were never teachers within their present districts.

8. Starting Date of Contract:

	Date
A	7/1/97
B*	5/1/98
C	8/1/98
D	8/1/98
E	3/1/98

*Assistant Superintendent

9. County/State:

A	Mercer/PA
B	Beaver/PA
C	Cuyahoga/OH
D	Lake/OH
E	Lorain/OH

Appendix J

SCHOOL DISTRICT PERFORMANCE
Based on Preliminary Results
Reported on Local Report Card Prototypes in the April 1999 Trial Run Release

Sorted by
Met of 18 Indicators

#	ID	School District	County	Enrollment	Of 26 Standards:*		Of 18 Standards:	
					# Met	% Met	# Met	% Met
			Mahoning		21	80.8	14	77.8
			Medina		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Mercer		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Mercer		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Mercer		19	73.1	14	77.8
			Miami		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Ottawa		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Ottawa		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Portage		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Richland		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Richland		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Seneca		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Seneca		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Shelby		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Shelby		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Shelby		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Stark		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Stark		20	76.9	14	77.8
			Stark		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Summit		21	80.8	14	77.8
			Summit		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Summit		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Trumbull		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Van Wert		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Warren		17	65.4	14	77.8
			Wayne		19	73.1	14	77.8
			Wood		18	69.2	14	77.8
			Allen		16	61.5	13	72.2
			Ashland		16	61.5	13	72.2
			Athens		16	61.5	13	72.2
			Auglaize		15	57.7	13	72.2
			Belmont		16	61.5	13	72.2
			Butler		17	65.4	13	72.2
			Columbiana		16	61.5	13	72.2
			Columbiana		17	65.4	13	72.2
			Columbiana		17	65.4	13	72.2
			Cuyahoga		16	61.5	13	72.2
			Darke		16	61.5	13	72.2
			Defiance		17	65.4	13	72.2
			Fairfield		15	57.7	13	72.2
			Franklin		17	65.4	13	72.2
			Franklin		17	65.4	13	72.2
			Fulton		16	61.5	13	72.2
			Geauga		16	61.5	13	72.2

NOTE: Performance analysis based on graduation rate standard of 90%

* 9th grade science test taken by 10th graders will be the 27th standard in 2000