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ONE CAREER TO ANOTHER:
WOMEN WHO TRANSITION BETWEEN
K-12 AND HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO

The School of Education and Allied Professions

THE UNIVERSITY OF DAYTON

In Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

The Degree

Doctor of Philosophy in Educational Leadership

Cheryl Ann Spain, B.A., M.Ed.

THE UNIVERSITY OF DAYTON

DAYTON, OHIO

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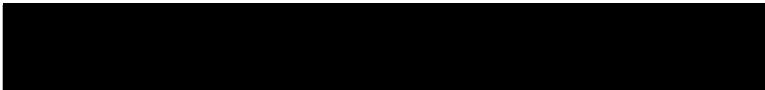
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2006

ONE CAREER TO ANOTHER:
WOMEN WHO TRANSITION BETWEEN K-12 AND HIGHER EDUCATION
ADMINISTRATION

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WOMEN WHO TRANSITION BETWEEN K-12 AND HIGHER EDUCATION
ADMINISTRATION

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The University of Dayton, 2006

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Organizational culture and climate contribute to the success or failure of women in educational administration. K-12 and higher education have very different cultures and climates, mostly in their power and governance structures; however both educational environments require administrators to possess similar skills in order to be successful. Women who served as principals and superintendents and who went on to become deans, department chairs, or directors of centers may encounter some challenges when they make a transition between the K-12 and higher education environments, given the differences in institutional culture and climate.

Previous research has suggested that women often experience success in educational administration because of their unique leadership style (Billot, 2002; M.

Coleman, 1996; Fennell, 1997; Haar, 2002; D. J. Johnson, 2001; Ouston, 1993; Rosser, 2001; Shakeshaft, 1995; Zheng, 1996). Despite their success, however, there are few female administrators in education. This may be because of the structural and personal barriers to their career mobility, which prevent women from transitioning and thus limit their ability to rise through the ranks of educational leadership. The limited upward mobility of women within K-12 educational administration makes it a significant achievement if they are able to transition from there to higher education environments, succeed as an academic, be promoted, and secure an administrative position.

The reasons why women chose to make this career transition, how they transitioned, and how they interpreted this lived experience was the focus of this study. The limited number of women in positions of educational leadership and the institutional and personal barriers to their success made it necessary to examine how women who advanced in education did so and were successful. The women who made a career transition between these two educational environments revealed similarities and differences between their experiences in educational administration.

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I love you and miss you very much.

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I appreciate and love you dearly.

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ONE CAREER TO ANOTHER:
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ADMINISTRATION
CHAPTER I
INTRODUCTION

Despite the fact that education has long been recognized as a “woman’s field,” there are very few women who serve in positions of educational leadership (Blount, 1999; Bronstein & Farnsworth, 1998; Gerdes, 2003; Hubbard & Robinson, 1994; McCabe, 2001; McGrath, 1992; Polleys, 1999; Shakeshaft, 1987, p. 199). Only 46% of all principals and less than 7% of all superintendents in the U.S. are women (Irby & Brown, 1995b; National Center for Education Statistics, 1999-2000; Skrla, Reyes, & Scheurich, 2000). Women comprise only 38% of full-time faculty membership and 47% of full-time administrative/managerial positions in U.S. colleges and universities (National Center for Education Statistics Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, 2001; Shultz & Easter, 1997). Institutional and personal barriers may prohibit the career mobility and success of women (Shultz & Easter). Although 87% of women desire to advance in their fields, these same women recognize the barriers may keep them from doing just that (Shultz & Easter).

Historical domination by male leadership in education and the myth of administration as a “man’s job” have perpetuated barriers to the advancement of women in educational leadership (Skrla et al., 2000; Strober & Tyack, 1980). In addition,

personal reasons such as: socioeconomic status, fewer job rewards, lower wages, not having an interest in leaving the classroom, fewer mentors after which to model their own professional experiences, personal and family commitments, and the failure to seek advanced training have also served as barriers to the advancement of women into positions of leadership in education (Felmlee, 1984; Holloway, 2000). Another issue is that women may not choose leadership positions in education, much less transition from one educational culture to another, because of the varying requirements of leadership skill and ability between and amongst the different positions in education administration (Sewall & Smith, 1999).

Despite the differences between the two cultures, Sewall and Smith (1999) pointed out several similarities do exist in the areas of personnel, budgeting, governance, and curriculum. Because K-12 and higher education share several administrative similarities, it would seem likely that experience at one level of educational administration would positively impact one's success at another. A study by D. J. Johnson (2001) concluded that previous experience as a K-12 administrator positively impacted the success of college department chairs. Johnson's findings also revealed that an ideal administrator "would have some experience at the K-12 level and moderate experience at the college or university level as both a teacher and an administrator" (p. 73). This past experience manifested itself in areas of organization, planning, coordination, and staff personnel issues (D.J. Johnson).

Several studies have also found that women are more likely to be successful as administrators in education than men (D. J. Johnson, 2001; Nogay & Beebe, 1997; Zheng, 1996; Zheng & Carpenter-Hubin, 1999). Tibbetts (1980) noted that the

performance of female principals is far superior than that of male principals. Female administrators tend to increase the self-image and career aspirations of female students, as well as increase morale within the organization (Clement, DiBella, Eckstrom, & Tobias, 1977). Women tend to show a greater respect for their faculty, communicate more effectively, exercise stronger leadership, and maintain a closer knit organization (Fishel & Pottker, 1975). Despite these strengths, however, a study by Twale and Shannon (1996a) argued that women have traditionally “wielded less power” than men, especially in university governance and decision making, as male faculty tend to have more administrative experience than women and this was especially true at the “department head level” (p. 11). Lyman and Speizer (1980) suggested that men are hired for administrative jobs because they show potential, whereas women are hired for the same jobs only if they already possess the experience needed (p. 32). Nidiffer (2001) noted that women in higher education have less access to the “pipeline” of administrative positions which would enable them to move up the ladder, noting that women “endure countless tangible inequities, such as fewer resources [and] fewer opportunities” (p. 121). In another study, Felmlee (1984) found that educational background only helps a woman find her first job and not her second, which “implies that men are better able than women to build on their educational level in developing [their] careers” (p. 278).

Historically, preparation programs also fail female administrators, as the programs succeed at training them in the theory of teaching and administration, but fail at preparing them for the day-to-day expectations of school leadership (Alvy & Robbins, 1998; Shakeshaft, 1987; Townsend & Bassoppo-Moyo, 1996). Shakeshaft noted that many educational preparation programs may fail female administrators because they base

theory and practice on male leadership and behavior. She argued that "there is every reason to believe that what is an effective management style for a man may not be equally useful for a woman" and it is due to the "legacy of discrimination and exclusion [that] has shaped a world in which women's experiences and behaviors are often unlike those of men" (Shakeshaft, p. 62). Rusch and Marshall (1995) found that administrative preparation programs show a bias for White male leaders and the professional literature on administration used in these programs reinforces this bias. They argued that "persisting in the practice of entitling men to power and decision privileges will not transform education" nor enhance the abilities of women to succeed in educational administration (Rusch & Marshall, p. 24).

Statement of the Problem

This study was conducted to determine how and why women made a career transition between the K-12 and higher education climate and culture and how they interpreted this lived experience. Results of previous research on women in educational leadership are conflicting. Skrla (2000) found that women who take on leadership roles in education are doomed to fail based on their "femaleness" (p. 293). D. J. Johnson (2001) contended that women are more likely than men to succeed as administrators in education, while Shultz and Easter (1997) noted that institutional and personal obstacles affect the career mobility and success of women in educational administration.

The inconsistent reports about women's ability to succeed, the limited number of women in positions of educational leadership, and the institutional and personal barriers to their success warranted an examination of how women who advance in education do so and are successful. Because of the limited upward mobility of women within K-12

administration, it is a significant achievement if they are able to transition from an administration position in one educational climate and culture to another, succeed as an academic, be promoted, and secure an administrative position. By identifying the women in educational administration who made a career transition between K-12 and higher education, it was possible to reveal the similarities and differences between their experiences in educational administration.

Significance of the Study

Several studies have shown that women have less professional mobility in the field of educational administration than men (Felmlee, 1984; Johnsrud & Heck, 1994; Rusch & Marshall, 1995; Twale & Shannon, 1996a). However, the women that have succeeded in the field of educational administration have done so by adapting their leadership skills and approaches to each new environment (Belenky, Clinchy, Goldberger, & Tarule, 1997; Brunner & Duncan, 1994; Robinson & Lipman-Blumen, 2003). Women tend to be more collaborative, more competitive and more task focused than men in similar administrative positions (Haring-Hidore, Freeman, Phelps, Spann, & Wooten, 1990; Robinson & Lipman-Blumen). Women have also been shown to be more caring and informed in their decision making, taking the larger picture into account (Haring-Hidore et al.).

D. J. Johnson (2001) argued that an ideal administrator in education has experience at both the K-12 and higher education levels. Despite their previous administrative experience, however, women who served as principals and superintendents who went on to become deans, department chairs, or directors of centers may encounter some transition issues, given the differences in institutional climate and

culture within these varying educational levels. The contextual factors, requirements, expectations, and experiences of administrators at both levels in education can be best represented by those who have experienced it firsthand. Women who have held administrative positions at both the K-12 and higher education levels will not only be able to speak to the differences and similarities within educational administration, but their stories will also highlight any shared experiences that they found successful as they maneuvered through the different cultures, climates, and governance structures. It will benefit future generations of women in educational leadership to uncover the strategies these women utilized which enabled them to transition from one educational environment to another.

Assumptions

This study was influenced by several assumptions. Despite some structural barriers, women have succeeded in the field of educational administration. These barriers have included a societal predisposition to male leadership throughout the history of education in the US, resulting in the inability of women to easily move up through the ranks of educational leadership (Felmlee, 1984; Rusch & Marshall, 1995). Further structural barriers include gender bias at both K-12 and postsecondary levels of educational administration; significantly lower salaries; and less overall responsibility (Johnsrud & Heck, 1994; Rots, Sabbe, & Aelterman, 2002; Twale & Shannon, 1996a).

Personal barriers to women's transition in educational leadership also exist and include: mentoring programs and professional development opportunities, as they are scarce, poorly planned, usually differentiated by gender, and inadequate for most women's needs; few women having an interest in leaving the classroom environment;

fewer mentors after whom to model their own professional experiences; personal and family commitments; lack of opportunities; and failure to seek advanced training in educational leadership (S. Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Felmlee, 1984; Polleys, 1999).

Another assumption of this study was that K-12 administration and higher education administration have different climates and cultures (Sewall & Smith, 1999). It is also assumed that women have adapted their leadership styles to transition to a different educational environment and to respond to the structural and personal barriers in administration and management (Belenky et al., 1997; Blackmore, 1993; Brunner & Duncan, 1994; Haring-Hidore et al., 1990; Robinson & Lipman-Blumen, 2003; Shakeshaft, 1989a).

Finally, an assumption was also made that women were able to transition between the two educational climates and cultures, in spite of the differences between them. Because of this transition experience, it was necessary to find out how these women navigated the transition in order to inform other women desiring to take the same professional path.

Research Questions

1. Why did these women transition from K-12 administration to higher education administration?
2. How did they describe their transition from one educational climate and culture to another?
3. How did they interpret that lived experience?

Delimitations

One of the delimitations of the study was that the participants were selected using a “snowball sample” collection method. Snowball sampling refers to participants that are identified or volunteer for the study and then are asked to identify additional individuals who meet the criteria and may also be willing to participate (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Criteria for the selection of the participants included women who had experience as a K-12 administrator (either as a principal, a superintendent, or both), as well as experience as an administrator in higher education (at the dean, department chair, or center director levels). Initial selection of the sample was generated by the researcher’s doctoral committee. The choice to focus on the career levels of principal, superintendent, dean, department chair, and directors of centers ensured that mid-level managers in both the K-12 and higher education environments were examined. These criteria were established to evaluate and examine the transitions each woman made between the K-12 and higher education climate and cultures and how they interpreted their lived experiences.

Contextual Factors

Although the initial referral of the participants was a delimitation of the study, a contextual factor of the study included the collection of further participants using the “snowball sample” method. There was a lack of quantitative data on women who have held administrative positions in both K-12 and higher education. Because this area was difficult to track on a national scale, there were an unknowable number of women to be included in the sample. These women had to be identified by snowball sampling because it was more likely that those who knew of their administrative experiences would be able

to identify them. In addition, the individual experiences of each participant did not follow the same career path. Furthermore, it was impossible to predict the types of institutions/school systems or areas of the country at which each woman had worked as administrators; therefore the comparisons made in this study were broadly focused, rather than focused on individual school, institution, or state characteristics.

Definitions and Operational Terms

Culture: The culture of schools and school systems conveys a sense of “what is and is not valued as well as expectations regarding appropriate behavior and beliefs” (Duke, 2004, p. 133). It was also defined in this study as the “organizational glue” that holds everything together and provides a structure under which education can take place (Allen, 2003; Deal & Kennedy, 1983; Duke; Hermanowicz, 2005; Peterson & Spencer, 1993).

Climate: Climate was defined in this study as the total quality of education, covering a number of dimensions and referring to the overall atmosphere of the organization (Anderson, 1982; Vander Putten, McLendon, & Peterson, 1997).

Dean: The leader of a university faculty or division, who most often begins as a member of the same faculty department and rises to the top. A mid-level manager position in higher education administration who spends the majority of his/her time assessing and diagnosing, as well as placating and stimulating the faculty (Sewall & Smith, 1999).

Department chair: A low-level management position in higher education administration often viewed as “the most important administrative position in postsecondary education” (Gmelch & Parkay, 1999, p. 3). Department chairs often begin as members of the same faculty department and when appointed are responsible for the vision and leadership of

that faculty (Sewall & Smith, 1999). Their success depends upon their personal charisma and ability to direct tenured faculty with little to no real power (Sewall & Smith).

Director of Centers: For the purposes of this study director of centers refers to those who work as an administrator in higher education in charge of a specific center or institute for learning and/or research (i.e., Research Centers, Women's Center, Writing Center, Childcare Center, etc.). Directors are accountable to the institution and carry out a variety of day-to-day responsibilities, but most importantly, they all must provide leadership, scholarship, and vision for their respective centers (Ferguson, 1997). Directors may also have to seek faculty status, rank, and department affiliation prior to their appointment.

K-12: The education system that integrates the education of a student from Kindergarten through high school (the 12th grade) and is the common way to identify elementary and secondary education in the US (Van de Water & Rainwater, 2001).

Leadership Assessments: The Gianmettao leadership behavior exercise which subdivides leadership preferences into three categories: Laissez-Faire Leadership (concern for people); Autocratic Leadership (concern for task); and Shared Leadership (concern for both people and task equally). A second instrument was also used and reported Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) scores (Myers & Briggs, 1976). The MBTI is a self-report questionnaire using Jung's theory of psychological types and results can help people better understand their own motivations, strengths, and potential (Myers, 1998).

Personal Barriers: Internal barriers are the most difficult to change and overcome because they include a wide range of personal issues including socioeconomic status, job rewards, wage disparities, aspiration, mentorship, personal and family responsibilities, and

advanced training (Felmlee, 1984; Holloway, 2000; Rader, 1979; Shakeshaft, 1987; Shepard, 1999; Skrla et al., 2000).

Postsecondary or Higher Education: Education beyond the 12th grade level in the US that is open to anyone who pursues it and is provided in the hope of increasing access to jobs and career mobility. Higher education options in the US include a variety of courses and majors of study, service to communities in which the institutions reside, a corporate governance structure, and an opportunity for extracurricular involvement (Goodchild & Wechsler, 1997).

Principal: Administrators at the K-12 educational level who is responsible for leading the faculty of their school; dealing with the school-wide issues of visioning, curriculum, and budgeting; student discipline and school culture, and providing professional development opportunities for their faculty and staff (Bredeson, 1991).

Situational Leadership: Situational leadership theory argues that a leader can use task behavior and relationship behavior to decide what to do in specific situations (Hersey & Blanchard, 1988). The decision is based on the interaction of: (a) the amount of direction a leader provides (task behavior), (b) the amount of support a leader provides (relationship behavior), and (c) the maturity level that the followers exhibit on the specific task (Hersey & Blanchard). When all three factors are taken into account, a leader can then make the best assessment for the specific situation, therefore making a situational decision.

Structural Barriers: Structural barriers include things such as personnel policies and interpersonal issues, including male biases and male socialization which assume that women are inferior to men (Benson, 1998; Rader, 1979).

Superintendent: Most superintendents are hired by and directly report to a school board (Skrla et al., 2000). Superintendents oversee day-to-day operations, both financial and instructional, of a school district which ranges in size due to its location and enrollment (Skrla et al.).

Transition: Career transition is the period of adjustment between one administrative position and another (Ebberwein, Krieshok, Ulven, & Prosser, 2004). This period can be plagued with insecurities, need and responsibility conflicts, and psychological stressors (Ebberwein et al.).

Summary

Due to the limited professional mobility for women in the field of educational administration, the different climates and cultures of K-12 and higher education, and because women may have adapted their leadership styles to address both structural and personal barriers to their professional mobility, it seemed relevant that a study be conducted to determine how and why women have transitioned between these two educational climates and cultures. The experiences, education, personality characteristics, and approaches to leadership that they utilized as they maneuvered these different educational cultures will benefit future generations of women in educational administration. This study revealed if success/failure within one level of educational administration prompted women to move into another educational arena. It also revealed how and why women transition between educational environments and if that decision is impacted by the climate and culture of either environment. This information will be helpful to future generations of female administrators by revealing the similarities and differences between the lived experiences of these women. Very little has been written on

women in career transition, much less those women who have transitioned between the distinctive climate and cultures of K-12 and higher education administration.

Chapter II is a review of the pertinent literature to the study, beginning with the climate and culture in education and identifying issues relevant to each individual administrative position studied. Chapter III focuses on the methodology of the study, examining the research methods, participants, and data analysis. Chapter IV reports the results by sharing each woman's story including her background in education, the transition from K-12 to higher education, her experiences with tenure, her transition into administration, the challenges she faced during her transition, and the differences she noticed within the two cultures and climates that affected her transition from K-12 to higher education. Finally, chapter V includes the summary, conclusions, and implications of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Climate and Culture of Education

Climate refers to the quality of the educational environment, which affects behavior and overall perceptions of the school (Hoy & Hannum, 1997). This climate distinguishes the school and influences the behavior of those associated with it (Hoy & Hannum). It has sometimes been referred to as the “personality” of the institution (Hoy & Hannum) or as a way to “paint a picture” of the school (Salisbury & McGregor, 2002). Generally, school climates are open, healthy, and promote student achievement (Tarter, 1989). The climate also sets the tone for how a school will deal with change, approach problem solving, and consider issues of trust and respect (Rafferty, 2003).

The culture can greatly impact an individual’s sense of self and the way that individual relates to the organization (Berquist, 1992). Culture involves patterns of behavior, as well as shared values, beliefs, assumptions, and ideologies of the organization’s membership (Peterson, Cameron, Jones, Mets, & Ettington, 1986). Culture also provides meaning and context to those within the organization (Berquist).

Getzels and Guba (1957) argued that organizations are social systems with internal and external conditions, which define an individual’s expectations of that organization, both positively and negatively. Climate and culture can have a powerful impact on the experiences of those employed by a school and how they are socialized as a member (Greenfield, 1985; Vander Putten et al., 1997). It is important for leaders to

understand the culture of their organization, as it affects how members act, feel, and think (Freed, 1998). Sewall and Smith (1999) contended that one must understand the internal culture of an organization if "the leader is to persist in the leadership role and succeed in moving the organization towards excellence" (p. 3).

Socialization processes also mold and shape the behavior of an organization's membership (Williamson & Hudson, 2001). They have been shown to perpetuate stereotypes, dysfunctional school culture and ineffective administrator preparation (Greenfield, 1985). These processes have also been shown to carry on male-dominated norms and styles of leadership and encourage resistance to change and innovation (Greenfield; Williamson & Hudson). School administrators are first influenced by a school's culture for 12 years as a student. They continue to be influenced by that same school culture during their undergraduate experience. Finally, they return as teachers or administrators to the same culture, which sets up an impossible situation for substantial organizational change because their experience has predisposed them to one way of thinking and behaving (Greenfield). This predisposition makes change within school culture incredibly difficult, as the participants have little to no idea how to do things differently (Greenfield).

Gender also plays a role in the climate and culture of organizations, creating expectations of behavior and leadership style based on stereotypes (Brunner & Duncan, 1994; Duncan & Rathmel, 1995; Griffin, 1992; Haring-Hidore et al., 1990). Women who choose to become administrators in education need to accept the gender stereotypes placed on them and learn the skills to succeed in the male-dominated culture of

educational leadership (Blackmore, 1993; Offerman & Armitage, 1993; Pigford & Tonnsen, 1993; Rusch & Marshall, 1995; Shakeshaft, 1989b).

The Climate and Culture of K-12 Education

K-12 education has been referred to as a “production-oriented bureaucracy whose clientele is not yet mature and who represent a mix of backgrounds and personality types” (Brint, Contreras, & Matthews, 2001, p.169). The climate and culture greatly influence those who seek employment and are employed in K-12 schools (Noonan & Goldman, 1995) as they can “make or break” the school (Coutts, 1997). Changes in administration and faculty can also alter the climate (Freed, 1998; Noonan & Goldman). Leadership positions like principal and superintendent are crucial to the climate of both the individual schools and the overall district (Corcoran, 1986) because they create change in their organizations and set the overall vision (Freed).

Campbell, Cunningham, Nystrand, and Usdan (1990) argued that although schools have traditionally been viewed as bureaucratic and non-responsive, today’s schools possess more of an open systems culture. This approach involves teachers and administrators participating together in decision making, instead of a traditional “top-down” hierarchy (Campbell et al.; Easton, 1965; Wirt & Kirst, 1982). The public education system in America experienced two major changes in the 20th century, which impacted the culture of schools: expansion and bureaucratization (Bidwell, 2001). The number of students who completed high school rose significantly between 1900 and 1992 (Bidwell; Mare, 1995). This prompted growth throughout the educational system, ultimately including institutions of higher education (Bidwell). Bureaucratization in American public schools developed alongside increased enrollments, as superintendents

became full-time, trained professionals, and school boards were created to deal with school financial issues (Bidwell). Increased bureaucratization also led to specialized programs, specific departmentalized offices (i.e., curriculum and instruction), and increased administrative positions (assistant principals and superintendents; Bidwell).

Weick (1976) identified the culture of K-12 education as "loosely coupled," a series of subunits that are constantly in response to environmental demands and constraints. This perspective on K-12 administration noted the mutual dependence between the school and its environment, particularly the need for an organization to adapt to constant change (Campbell et al., 1990).

The Climate and Culture of K-12 Administration

Because school administrators are under the influence of school culture throughout their own education and administrator preparation, substantial organizational change becomes an impossible goal (Greenfield, 1985). The process of socialization in K-12 education has been shown to perpetuate stereotypes, dysfunctional school culture, ineffective administrator preparation, and male-dominated norms and styles of leadership in K-12 schools (Greenfield). In addition, this type of socialization teaches a resistance to change and innovation (Williamson & Hudson, 2001).

The hierarchy of K-12 administration is delineated by office (only one superintendent in a school district); by information (different administrators have different access); by planning and analysis (superintendents deal with the whole, principals deal with only a part of the system); and in mediation (principals have less influence than the superintendent; Campbell et al., 1990). The various levels of influence

and input by lower level administrators are what define the K-12 environment as a loosely coupled organization (Campbell et al.; Weick, 1976, 1982).

How Climate and Culture Affect K-12 Schools

Glasman and Heck (1992) note that school climate and culture are highly correlated with student achievement. In addition, school effectiveness is linked to effective leadership, usually on the part of the principal (Houlihan, 1988; Hughes, 1999). Principals influence student learning by creating and nurturing a climate of academic achievement (Hoy, Tarter, & Bliss, 1990). Hoy, Tarter, and Bliss argued that a principal enhances student achievement by developing a serious learning environment, establishing high student expectations, and a strong academic press. To ensure that a school's organizational climate is conducive to learning, the principal must frame clear goals and communicate them to staff, monitor class instruction and provide support to faculty, maintain a high level of visibility, and offer professional development opportunities to their staff (Hallinger & Murphy, 1985, 1986).

Women in K-12 Administration

Women comprised 30% of the total superintendents, 68.3% of elementary principals, 37.9% of middle school principals, and 26.6% of all high school principals in U.S. education in 2002 (Mertz, 2002). High school principals are perceived to be more influential than middle and elementary school principals, while superintendents are perceived to hold the greatest power and influence (Mertz). Mertz noted that women tend to be more successful in their advancement at the lower levels of educational administration (middle and elementary school principals). The farther up the ladder they move, the slower their progress and success (Mertz).

The Climate and Culture of Higher Education

According to Berquist (1992) institutions of higher education can be categorized using four different cultural archetypes: collegial, managerial, developmental, and negotiating. Collegial culture refers to faculty and involves shared governance and decision making (Berquist). Managerial culture focuses on the purpose, supervision, efficiency, and responsibility of the institution (Berquist). Developmental culture is the professional and personal growth of all members within the institution (Berquist). Finally, negotiating culture refers to the equity of policy and procedure and encompasses mediation, power, and confrontation (Berquist). Berquist argued that all colleges and universities can be described and classified under one or more of these archetypes.

Early studies on higher education culture noted a top-down, hierarchical approach to leadership and decision making (Bensimon & Neumann, 1993; Bensimon, Neumann, & Birnbaum, 1989). Others have noted that the university is a loosely coupled organization or an "organized anarchy" and better at adapting to environmental changes (Lutz, 1982, p. 653). Bila and Miller (1997) argued that the culture of the university is the result of group power, which utilizes consensus and political behaviors to exert influence and define the culture. This culture relies on a governance model utilizing consensus and collegiality in decision making (Berdahl, 1991; P. Goodman, 1962). This model also relies on subunits such as faculty senate, councils, committees, and student groups to distribute decision making and decentralize authority (Baldrige, 1971; B. Clark, 1963). A unique environment exists which is different at every institution and includes various rituals and subcultures for both students and faculty (B. Clark, 1970; Lunsford, 1963).

The culture of the organization and its level of success impacts governance and leadership structures within the university (Birnbaum, 1992; Chaffee & Tierney, 1988).

Climate and Culture of Higher Education Administration

The culture of individual departments is influenced by the institution's culture and the academic discipline (B. R. Clark, 1987; Lee, 2004). In recent years, the university has had to respond to diverse student populations, a decrease in faculty participation, as well as issues of accountability and competition (Kezar & Eckel, 2004). Parker (1998) noted that despite the tradition of shared governance, typically higher education operates under more traditional management by majority or consensus. True participatory leadership in higher education is uncommon (Kezar, 2001). Shared governance has been argued as problematic and unclear, utilizing inconsistent goals, vague processes, and counting on participation that is fluid and unpredictable (Kezar & Eckel). In addition, the traditional culture of shared governance in academia has been argued to limit the institutions it claims to serve, making them less flexible and slow to change (Schuster, Smith, Corak, & Yamada, 1994). Due to changes in society, institutions of higher education have begun to adopt a corporate culture perspective which has created a more bureaucratic and centralized system and increased speed in decision making; however, it has several disadvantages including institutional values and integrity conflicts, and decreases in morale (Hardy, 1990; Rhoades, 1995; Sporn, 1999).

The culture of higher education has moved away from the traditional, hierarchical leadership of the past and begun a move toward more participatory and collaborative leadership (Kezar, 2001). Participatory leadership involves team leadership, group interconnectedness, empowerment, and constant learning (Kezar). A style which

embraces collaborative leadership is more open to diverse needs and points of view and it emphasizes collective growth and self-awareness (Bensimon & Neumann, 1993).

Collegiality in higher education is the norm in interpersonal academic relationships; however, it has been shown to decrease the higher up the administrative ladder one goes (Hellawell & Hancock, 2001). This may be due to logistical concerns and the size of departmental staffs, especially at large research universities (Hellawell & Hancock). Faculty are disconnected from one another as they are sorted according to discipline and department (Bennett, 1998). Hellawell and Hancock noted that some mid-level managers in higher education have argued that collegiality is a way to put pressure on their peers and in a sense employ control over others in the department.

Careers in higher education, academic departments and academic centers are all shaped by the organizational culture (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead, 2001; K. M. Moore, 1983). This culture employs a lengthy tenure process to reach full-time faculty status before any further promotion can be obtained (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996; Whicker, Kronenfeld, & Strickland, 1993).

Faculty in higher education are promoted in the tenure process by demonstrating their competency within a certain body of knowledge (Long, Allison, & McGinnis, 1993). Tenure is granted to faculty when they demonstrate competency and involvement in areas of research, teaching, and service (Whicker et al., 1993). The evidence used to assess competency in research is primarily found in peer reviewed publications, presentations, and grants (Whicker et al.). Evidence of teaching competency can come from student evaluations, observations, awards, and work with graduate students (Whicker et al.). Service is the most difficult competency to measure of the three;

however, evidence can come from professional associations, editorial and review boards, advisory roles, and committee involvement (Whicker et al.).

The socialization of female faculty in higher education is predominately conducted through the tenure process. Tierney and Bensimon (1996) noted that due to the differences between each university's culture, tenure and promotion are the strongest examples of socializing agents. Tenure has also been described as the final step to higher status within the university culture as a faculty member or an administrator (Tierney & Bensimon).

Women in Higher Education Administration

Climate and culture of an institution impact the overall success of its employees (Hackney, 1998). Despite the number of women who enter the ranks of the professoriate, they constitute only 36% of associate professors, 21% of full professors, and 47% of administrative/managerial positions in higher education (Bellas, 2000-2001; National Center for Education Statistics Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, 2001). Various studies have revealed that the number of men still exceeds that of women in administrative positions in higher education. One study noted that the number of male to female department chairs is 1 in 10 (Carroll, 1991). Another study found that women are still underrepresented in the deanship, with the majority serving as deans in nursing colleges (Wolverton & Gonzales, 2000). The career satisfaction of women in academia is influenced by salary, professional relationships, levels of involvement and influence, and departmental culture (August & Waltman, 2004). It is often more difficult for women to gain the respect of their peers in higher education, thus affecting relationships and career satisfaction (August & Waltman). Often female faculty find the climate of their

departments “chilly” and isolating (Riger, Stokes, Raja, & Sullivan, 1997). In addition, women often feel they are less supported by their male colleagues and tend to be treated differently (Olsen, Maple, & Stage, 1995).

Differences and Similarities in K-12 and Higher Education Administration

Sewall and Smith (1999) argued that the climate and culture of K-12 and higher education differ considerably. They cite the major differences between them in administrative roles, power, and authority (Sewall & Smith). K-12 administrators, according to Sewall and Smith, have more power over their staffs than higher education administrators, who have little to no real power over other tenured faculty members. The other major difference is that higher education administrators must possess a level of charisma and authenticity in order to succeed in their positions, whereas K-12 administrators do not require these characteristics in order to impact their organizations (Sewall & Smith). McCullough (2002) argued that shared governance is more widely used in K-12 education than in higher education. This may be because faculty in the higher education setting, although traditionally espouse values of shared governance, in reality are resistant to such initiatives because of the time commitment; whereas K-12 faculty tend to be more participative in order to feel included in the process (McCullough). K-12 administrators often have to deal with parents and state agencies, whereas higher education administrators seldom do (Sewall & Smith). Higher education faculty and administrators also have much more autonomy than administrators in K-12 education (Sewall & Smith).

Despite these differences, there are several similarities between K-12 and higher education in the areas of personnel, budgeting, and curriculum (Sewall & Smith, 1999). It

is because of their similarities that experience at one level of educational administration should positively impact one's success at another. Women in both educational arenas seem to experience the same barriers to administrative mobility, as well (G. Goodman, 2002).

Women, Organizational Climate and Culture

Organizational climate plays a major role in influencing employees, especially women, and setting behavior patterns (Schonwetter, Bond, & Perry, 1993). Pascarella, Whitt, Edison, Nora, and Hagedorn (1997) concluded that the climates of most postsecondary institutions reinforce that women are "outsiders" and tend to be marginalized in academia (p. 6). Women experience subtle and blatant discrimination and male-dominated norms upon entry to educational administration (Williamson & Hudson, 2001). If institutions of higher education are left unchecked, they tend to "regress to the long standing and traditional" and this can be detrimental to women who aspire to higher ranks at the university level (Newby, 1999, p. 267).

Traditional organizational environment and culture perpetuates "male role authority," trivializing women and stifling their experience (Tedrow & Rhoads, 1998, p. 14). Harter (1993) argued that organizational culture has been defined by men and is sustained by them as well, and if women learn to balance their values of femininity with the culture, they can change the organization and move into influential and successful roles at the academy. Tierney (1997) noted that if individuals fail to socialize themselves so that they fit into the culture, they will fail in their position. Conversely, the extent to which individuals fit themselves into the culture equals success in their position (Tierney).

The majority of women who work in higher education still comprise the lower ranks of faculty membership (K. M. Moore, 1987). Women are excluded from the collegial culture and thus fail to rise above certain levels at the university (S. Clark & Corcoran, 1986; K. M. Moore). This may be caused by the culture and its reliance on sponsorship in order to succeed (S. Clark & Corcoran; K. M. Moore). Moore claimed that women lack the presence of other women in academia, making it difficult for them to find sponsorship from anyone but men. This isolation can lead to "tokenism," which can be harmful to women and to their careers (S. Clark & Corcoran; K. M. Moore).

Furthermore, women face career choices plagued with cultural definitions of appropriateness and discrimination, forcing them to choose "second-rate" positions which afford them less mobility and responsibility (Cole, 1979; K. M. Moore). Women are also scrutinized more closely than men, are forced to "prove themselves," and lack mentorship opportunities to support their advancement (Harris, Arnold, Lowery, & Crocker, 2002, p. 123). Women who do succeed to the upper echelons of academia, tend to be under more pressure due to their token status and isolation (K. M. Moore).

A study of women in educational administration found that three major areas were of concern to women in relation to organizational culture (Hackney, 1998). The first was validation, or the organization's recognition of each woman's importance (Hackney). Organizations that took time to acknowledge the expertise and efforts of their female administrators were viewed more favorably than those organizations that did not, resulting in frustration, ineffectiveness, and isolation (Hackney). The second theme was inclusion, which referred to a sense of belonging and involvement in the decision making process of the organization (Hackney). Collegial work environments produce egalitarian

attitudes and are better received by female administrators (Hackney). Finally, authenticity concerned the organization's ability to practice what they espouse (Hackney).

Authenticity meant that women felt better directed and led, where those in an organization with weak authenticity described themselves as "directionless" (Hackney). Hackney's study revealed that when women are validated and included in an authentic organization, their individual self-esteem and levels of achievement are higher than those who do not have the same experience. If women lack these experiences, they will be disillusioned, disappointed and angry, ultimately resulting in a lack of underdeveloped female leadership and a loss to the organization (Hackney). If a woman's experience with the organization is negative, she may do one of three things: (a) become satisfied with a staff level position; (b) give up any aspirations of promotion and return to the classroom; or (c) "play the game" in order to succeed (Marshall, 1985).

Female leaders in both K-12 and higher education settings face many barriers to their success from a variety of sources (McCullough, 2002). These barriers are most evident when women make a career transition (Ebberwein et al., 2004; McCullough). Billot (2002) argued that women can succeed despite the barriers in an organizational environment by learning the ground rules and creatively managing and manipulating their resources.

Transition

Transition Theory

Career transition has been defined as a period during which an individual either changes roles or changes the orientation to the role he or she already held (Louis, 1980). It has also been defined as "any change in employment status and any major change in

job content, including all instances of job passage, forms of intra- and inter-organizational mobility and other changes in employment status" (Nicholson, 1984, p. 173).

Transitioning between careers can be an ordeal. It includes challenges such as role orientations and settings (Louis, 1980), periods of adjustment (Nicholson, 1984), and issues related to mid-career change (Perosa & Perosa, 1997). Bridges (2001) described transition as a process "of letting go of the way things used to be and then taking hold of the way they subsequently become" (p. 2). He further noted that transition is the way people deal with change (Bridges). Sargent and Schlossberg (1988) argued that "adult behavior is determined by transition not by age...and adult readiness for change depends on the situation, support, self, and strategies" (p. 58).

Barriers to Female Administrator Transition

Several studies have concluded that women do not have the same opportunities as men in educational administration (S. Clark & Corcoran, 1986; K. M. Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Ortiz & Marshall, 1988). The reasons that so few women enter into positions in educational leadership may include a variety of structural and personal barriers (Rader, 1979). Structural barriers include things such as personnel policies and interpersonal issues, including male biases and male socialization which assume that women are inferior to men (Benson, 1998; Rader). Internal barriers are the most difficult to change and overcome because they include a wide range of personal issues including socioeconomic status, job rewards, wage disparities, aspiration, mentorship, and advanced training (Felmlee, 1984; Holloway, 2000; Rader; Shakeshaft, 1987; Shepard, 1999; Skrla et al., 2000; Strober & Tyack, 1980). In addition to these barriers, women

may not choose leadership positions because of the climate and culture in both the K-12 and higher education environments (Sewall & Smith, 1999). Seventy percent of female principals indicated that they felt gender issues had impacted their ability to be successful professionally (Harris et al., 2002). Konrad and Pfeffer (1991) found that women were more likely to be hired for administrative positions in higher education, if a member of their gender had held that position in the past, thus confirming that hiring practices of the past influence hiring practices in the future.

Several studies have concluded that women must possess superior credentials in order to compete for positions with men (Kowalski & Reitzug, 1993; Kowalski & Stouder, 1999; Shakeshaft, 1989b). Kowalski and Stouder argued that this may be because of the stereotypes that still exist about male occupations and leadership. Women often have to endure blows to their professional identity such as being addressed as “sweetie, dear, Mrs., and young lady” when their male colleagues are referred to as “Dr.” (Benson, 1998, p. 22). Women also “stick out like a sore thumb” in departments outside of the social sciences, education, humanities, and even amongst the sciences (Benson, p. 24). H. J. Robertson (1992) noted communication problems as a barrier to the success of women because they often fail to speak up, especially in mixed gender groups, and have trouble dealing with interruptions by males in the group, choosing rather to withdraw from the conversation. Several others have also observed that women have difficulty expressing themselves and gaining the respect of others in a group, especially a group of men (Belenky et al., 1997; Duncan, 1995). Duncan pointed out that a woman’s expertise cannot be noted if it is not shared. The poor socialization of women also contributes to their lack of comfort in administrative positions (Duncan).

The Socialization of Female Administrators

Women in education are learning that they are not valued or equal, based on their sex, and this greatly impacts their abilities to be successful and move up the promotional ladder (Felmlee, 1984). In general, women have been socialized to be passive, dependent, lack self-confidence, discouraged from competing with men, avoid success because it is "masculine," and gravitate toward subordinate positions which are more nurturing than leadership (Rader, 1979, p. 139). Despite the age of Rader's study, these barriers do not seem to have changed very much. Flynn (1993) argued that American society socializes women to compete with other women for men, but not for men's positions. This sets up a dynamic of mistrust among women, especially in leadership positions, and the belief that women must be masculine to compete for male jobs (Flynn).

Women are socialized to more inclusive styles of leadership, which encourage collegiality, comparative norms, and collective decision making (Brunner, 1993; P. Robertson, Koll, Lampe, & Hegedus, 1995). Women have very few role models in educational administration, and those they do have are not necessarily treated well by their peers and superiors (Harris et al., 2002). It is also important to note that a woman's first socialization to administration can impact her transition to other administrator roles throughout her career (Offerman & Armitage, 1993).

Rusch and Marshall (1995) compiled study results from 1985 to 1995 and found that the majority of university preparation programs show a gender preference for male leadership styles. They also concluded that educational administration programs seldom focus on women's ways of leading and communicating (Rusch & Marshall). Although administrator preparation programs focus on leadership as an integral part of their

training and emphasis, very few texts are being used in the programs which have been written by women or focus on women in educational administration (Berube, Morrison, VonKrosigk, & Stader, 2002; Rusch & Marshall). Women who enter these programs believe this education will help to advance them through the ranks of educational leadership; however the academic climate does not favor women, and it often leads to discouragement and frustration (G. Goodman, 2002).

An example of this male emphasis in educational administration is the “multiple lens” theory of organizations by Bolman and Deal (1997) used to describe leadership behavior and decision making. This theory is widely used in educational administration programs and is based on White-male corporate definitions of leadership which protect gender privilege and ideology (Rusch & Marshall). Another major theory guiding research and practice in administrative preparation programs is Transformational Leadership, framed on the work of MacGregor Burns (1978). This theory is based solely on the study of male leaders and does not reframe leadership based on gender identity or influence, nor is it questioned by those who utilize the theory in their own research (Rusch & Marshall).

Structural Barriers

People are hired based on how well they illustrate the organization’s goals and how well they fit with those already in the organization (Tallerico, Burstyn, & Poole, 1993). Winfield, Campbell, Kerckhoff, Everett, and Trott (1989) contended that the United States educational system operates on a “contest” system of job mobility, whose objective is to give status to those who earn status. This may also be known as “gatekeeping” (Lewin, 1947; Shoemaker, 1991). Gatekeeping refers to a theory of

channels and gatekeepers to administrative promotion and success (Lewin; Shoemaker). The channels represent the various means by which one enters selection for a position and the gatekeepers refer to those who use their power to keep some people out and welcome others into the profession (Lewin; Shoemaker). The organization who makes the rules hires the gatekeepers to enforce those rules (Shoemaker). Gatekeeping processes can reflect the individual bias, values, and attitudes of those with the power (Shoemaker). Riehl and Byrd (1997) noted that social prejudices, racial and gender stereotypes, definitions of leadership, and certain ideologies all play a role in career mobility in educational administration. These factors restrict access and contribute to the process of gatekeeping (Shoemaker; Tallerico et al., 1993).

The majority of hiring decisions hinge on issues of trust and reliability (Sagaria, 1988). Because trust is difficult to measure, those who do the hiring most often choose people of "like mind" who will fit in and be accepted by their peers (Sagaria). Sagaria noted that it is because of the subjectivity of the hiring process and the reliance on those doing the hiring that gender may play a role to find the "right-type of person" (p. 310). Furthermore, these decisions may be the current reason why men outnumber women in administrative positions, especially in education (Sagaria).

K. M. Moore and Sagaria (1982) concluded that job mobility is enhanced or reduced by gender and position. Riehl and Byrd (1997) argued that "gender is salient in the career development process to the degree that men and women encounter different circumstances, act differently, and/or experience different outcomes" (p. 46). Women's upward mobility is more constrained than that of men and especially impacted by the type of position held (K. M. Moore & Sagaria). Sagaria (1988) argued that women desire

advancement in their administrative positions, but organizational structures and hiring practices restrict their upward mobility. More men are selected for administrative positions than women, despite the fact that more women apply for administrative position changes (Sagaria). K. M. Moore and Sagaria found that more men held senior administrative positions than women in educational leadership. Women's restricted mobility is due largely to inequalities in administrator hiring (Riehl & Byrd, 1997; Wolverton & Gonzales, 2000). Shultz and Easter (1997) contended that higher education sends women mixed messages. While sending out advertisements encouraging women to apply, they uphold a masculine orientation in hiring, perpetuating stereotypes and power struggles between the genders, which manifests in salary inequity, as women earn only 76.4% of the salary that men in similar positions earn (Shultz & Easter).

Eighty-seven percent of women desire to move up in rank, tenure, or position (Shultz & Easter, 1997). More women aspire to positions as department chair and academic dean than men (Shultz & Easter). Unfortunately, 56% of those women felt there were more institutional obstacles to their success and less personal support for their advancement (Shultz & Easter). These women identified institutional obstacles as heavier work and teaching loads, bureaucracy, demands of committees and research, limited tenure track positions, departmental politics, and "the good old boys network" (Shultz & Easter, p. 10). Eighty percent of women felt that men had an edge over them and achieved career mobility and success more easily (Shultz & Easter). Only 5% felt that men and women were treated equally in professional advancement, opportunities, and success (Shultz & Easter).

Job mobility for women in education seems to be most impacted by administrative role models, personal and professional support, and exposure to transformative styles of leadership (Young & McLeod, 2001). Duncan (1995) argued that the transition from one administrative job in education to another is not easily done, especially for women. Different procedures, expectations and environmental cues exist specific to the organization, which may prohibit an easy transition and make even an experienced administrator a novice (Duncan). Duncan's study revealed that job transitions in educational administration can lead to a sense of alienation, worthlessness, a lack of support, and a need for socialization.

Ebberwein, Krieshok, Ulven, and Prosser (2004) found that adaptability and flexibility, planning for the future, anticipating change and reacting as necessary, achieving realistic goals, and avoiding employment in between career moves are all key to making positive and successful career transitions. In order to transition successfully, one must re-socialize and recognize the conflict between their new role as an administrator and their female socialization (Duncan, 1995).

Why Transition?

Careers have a direction and usually climb a ladder (Kaplan & Helly, 1983). K. M. Moore (1983) argued that most people envision climbing up a ladder and not down. The number of jobs one holds in an area, usually leads to an administrative position in that same area (e.g., student affairs) and career opportunities tend to differ by department and specialty (Sagaria, 1988). Changing employers can also increase one's desire for growth and opportunities (Oplatka, 2001).

Dissatisfaction is another reason for career transition. Mobility is very important because when people feel trapped their morale suffers and ultimately, the organization suffers (Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999). Reisser and Zurfluh (1987) found that 78% of women had considered leaving their top-level administrative positions in education. Forty-six percent of these women cited dissatisfaction with institutional decisions as their reason for wanting to leave their current position. Other factors impacting their decision to transition included dissatisfaction with decision making processes (41%), stress (35%), limited upward mobility (26%), lack of mentoring or organizational support (26%), feelings of isolation (22%), and personal or professional conflicts (20%; Reisser & Zurfluh).

Similarities between K-12 administration and higher education administration in the areas of personnel, budgeting, and curriculum should be a benefit to women who choose to make a career transition between them. Several studies have determined that administrative experience at the K-12 level positively impacts success as a higher education administrator (Belch & Mueller, 2003; D. J. Johnson, 2001). Belch and Mueller concluded that an ideal administrator should have experience at the K-12 level with moderate experience at the college level as both a member of the faculty and as an administrator.

Women and Educational Administration

How are women different?

It is widely acknowledged that women work differently than men (Billot, 2002; Haar, 2002). Performance evaluation is often based on cultural expectations of what is acceptable male and female behavior (Shakeshaft, 1995). Women have been found to use

a “feminine” style of management, are more task-focused and visionary in their leadership (Ouston, 1993), use a more democratic and participatory style in decision making (M. Coleman, 1996), and are more focused on relationships and constructively evaluating staff performance (Shakeshaft, 1995). Women also tend to focus more on learning and instruction, as well as on student needs (Fennell, 1997).

Women choose to enter positions in educational administration for collegial and intrinsic reasons (Ruhl-Smith, Shen, & Cooley, 1999). Upon entry, however, female administrators are plagued with marginality and are always on display and vulnerable to attack (Shakeshaft, 1989b). Many female administrators cite exclusion from the “old boys network” as a primary barrier to their upward mobility with negative gender attitudes and stereotypes as secondary barriers (J. E. Coleman, 1998). Women are different in that they are pressured to adopt male behaviors and leadership styles in order to achieve goals and success (Schonwetter et al., 1993). However, there are benefits to being a woman and serving in a leadership position. M. Coleman (2003) noted that many women felt “freed” because they did not have to fit the typical male stereotype. These women found this freedom especially helpful when dealing with male students and parents, as the typical male aggression was avoided because of their gender (M. Coleman). M. Coleman also found that women felt freedom by playing into typical female stereotypes in order to get their way. Thirty percent of women believe their gender gives them an advantage because they are “given an easier role” in the organization (Harris et al., 2002, p. 123).

These “freedoms” may attribute to women’s success in administration. In general, women have been found to be more successful than men in educational administration,

regardless of their age (D. J. Johnson, 2001). Rosser (2001) supported this notion, noting that female deans are more effective leaders. Female principals are also consistently rated higher than male principals (Zheng, 1996). Helgesen (1990) noted that organizations led by women tend to be more inclusive and value connectedness. This may be the reason for their success.

Leadership Styles

Leadership plays an important role in schools as it reflects “the cultural characteristics and the dynamics” of the school (Harris et al., 2002, p. 57). Women lead differently and have different work behavior than men (Hicks McFadden & Smith, 2002; Shakeshaft, 1989b). Women construct their leadership identity in response to the organization and its norms and expectations, which are predominately based on male experiences (Tedrow & Rhoads, 1998).

Women and relationships. Belenky et al. (1997) noted that women use more relational ways of knowing and understanding the world than men. Relationships are central to the female administrator and thus the staff morale and productivity tend to be higher under this type of leadership (Shakeshaft, 1989b). Haar (2002) noted that women intuitively know how to create, implement, and maintain strong educational organizations by establishing trust and mutual encouragement. Effective school leaders empower their staffs, are open to new ideas, are trusting, compassionate and understanding, and continue in their own professional development (Haar). Haar concluded that women lead from their own beliefs and values, not from a command and control approach. It is because of this natural ability to lead that female leaders can transform an educational environment

(Haar). Women also tend to be more concerned with security, relationships, and physical surroundings (Schonwetter et al., 1993).

Women, teaching, and learning. Teaching and learning are the central focus of female administrators and they tend to exhibit a greater knowledge of teaching methods and techniques (Shakeshaft, 1989b). Women are also more likely to directly supervise faculty and create a school climate conducive to learning (Shakeshaft). Shakeshaft, Nowell, and Perry (1991) found that women are more likely to empower teachers, attend to students both socially and developmentally, emphasize instructional priorities, use facts and collaboration in decision making, and provide immediate feedback.

Women and participation. Women emphasize community building and exhibit a democratic and participatory style of leadership, encouraging an environment of inclusiveness and cooperation instead of competition (Gates & Siskin, 2002; Kezar, 2000; Rosener, 1990; Shakeshaft, 1989b). Because women tend to use a style of leadership which is more participatory than their male counterparts, findings suggest that female administrators are more supportive of their faculty and more prone to involve them in decision making (Harris et al., 2002).

Women and supervision. Shakeshaft et al. (1991) concluded that women focus on different criteria than men in the supervision process based on gender expectations and predispositions. M. Coleman (2003) argued that men and women are similar in their approach, citing that both male and female principals view transformational and participative leadership as the most successful way to lead. Both men and women also claim to use collaboration and a people-oriented approach in their leadership (M. Coleman). Men and women do differ, however, as women use significantly more

complex words, voices, and behavioral components to describe their emotions than men (McCullough, 2002). Women also use inclusive language, promoting community building, and women tend to be more polite and cheerful than men (Shakeshaft, 1989b). Communication has been found to be the number one characteristic of any successful administrator (Harris et al., 2002). Men and women comprehend things differently, communicate differently, and “listen for different information” (Shakeshaft et al., 1991, p. 135). She added, “even when trained in a similar approach to supervisory interaction, males and females may still bring with them expectations and behaviors based upon gender” (Shakeshaft et al., p. 138). There is also evidence which supports that men and women define trust differently, especially in relation to supervision (Garfinkel, 1988).

Theories of women in leadership from outside education. Duncan and Rathmel (1995) noted that women in educational leadership are viewed as successful in business terms if they have attained position, earned titles, and received their doctorates. In other words, they have “broken the glass ceiling” when others have not and in that sense they are successful (Duncan & Rathmel). Women may hold different opinions of what makes them a “success,” however, choosing to incorporate relationship and interpersonal skills among the necessary requirements (Duncan & Rathmel).

Irby and Brown (1995b) found that women place more value on details and thus give more attention to them. Women are perceived as more thoughtful in decision making, more emotional, possessing more “earned” authority through hard work and time, and influenced by role models and training (Irby & Brown). Because of their desire to enhance the self-worth of others and include them in decision making, women gravitate toward situational leadership styles (Rosener, 1990).

Women also lead organizations to value and encourage communication within all levels of the hierarchy (Helgesen, 1990). This leadership focus embraces personality and recognizes that employee relationships are more productive when they are familial (Helgesen). Eagly (1990) found that in 370 leadership studies, women were more “relational and participative” and used a more collaborative style of leadership than men (p. 653). Helgesen suggested that women integrate masculine styles of leadership instead of replacing them with new ones; therefore, female leadership should not threaten men.

K-12 Administration

The low numbers of women in line for leadership positions in K-12 administration are not based on a lack of aspiration on the part of women (Logan, 1998). More women than men are entering the applicant pool for leadership positions every year (Logan). School climate and culture are greatly impacted by the actions of the school leader (Stine, 2002). Therefore, leadership style is critical to the development of outstanding schools (Harris et al., 2002).

Principals

The principal is the primary influence on school culture (Lucas & Valentine, 2002). Lucas and Valentine contend that school visioning is one of the primary roles of the principal. Principals are also responsible for: fostering group commitment, providing support, and establishing a collaborative environment and a unity of purpose (Lucas & Valentine).

Historically, women made up the majority of school principals, until the position was “professionalized” and their numbers began to decline (Riehl & Byrd, 1997). Today more women than men aspire to the principalship and hold many principal positions,

although primarily at the elementary and middle school levels (National Center for Education Statistics, 1999b; Shepard, 1999; Tallerico et al., 1993).

Women who aspire to the principalship are motivated by being a positive influence on students (62%), personal challenge (51%), making a difference (48%), and professional challenge (42%; Harris et al., 2002). The major reasons why women decide not to pursue the principalship include too much paperwork and bureaucracy (42%) and increased time commitment (39%; Harris et al.). Other inhibitors include salary, discipline, isolation, possible litigation, and fear of failure (Harris et al.). These findings confirm previous research claiming that women choose to seek the principalship for intrinsic and service-oriented reasons (Harris, Arnold, Lowery, & Crocker, 2000, 2002; D. Moore, 2000; D. Moore & Ditzhazy, 1999).

A principal's daily routine involves a variety of brief interactions with numerous individuals (Sharan, Shachar, & Levine, 1999). Hughes (1999) found that many principals perceive organizational constraint in the allocation of resources and provisions. Because of the bureaucracy, principals may also find it necessary to circumvent their district in order to get what they need and "work the system" (Hughes, p. 13). This may also be evident in their level of autonomy, either by choice or by circumstance, and is a key element of principal success (Hughes).

Principals who use transformational and participative leadership styles tend to be more successful with their staffs (Bogler, 2001). Despite the low numbers of current female principals, it has been argued that women are superior to men in these positions (Gross & Trask, 1964; Hemphill, Griffiths, & Fredericksen, 1962; Nelson Pavan & Andrade Reid, 1994; Ortiz & Marshall, 1988; Shakeshaft, 1989b; Shakeshaft et al., 1991;

Shantz, 1993; Shautz, 1995; Tibbetts, 1980; Zheng, 1996). Tibbetts (1980) concluded that female principals display greater respect for faculty, were closer with their staffs, effectively solved conflicts, exercised stronger leadership, and exhibited more effective administrative skills. Schools which have female principals were also found to have better teacher and student morale, higher career aspirations of female students, and were more favorably viewed by parents (Tibbetts).

When women transition into the principal position, they tend to reframe their self concept, self efficacy, and role conception, in addition to changing their leadership approach (Oplatka, 2001). This may be due to the challenges female principals face which include maintaining staff morale, time, preventing burnout, balancing the demands of the job, and maintaining focus (Grady & LaCost, 2002). If successful, however, the principal position can serve as a step toward career advancement and the superintendency (Glass, 1992).

Superintendents

Superintendents are vital to any school district, as they are responsible for ensuring that all children learn and be successful (Harris et al., 2002). Superintendents are also responsible for the day-to-day operations and financial issues in a school district (Skrla et al., 2000). Almost all superintendents come from within the teaching profession (Glass, 1992). School boards hire superintendents and they typically select candidates who have been high school principals (Logan, 1998). Logan argued that until more principal positions are occupied by women, few women will be selected as superintendents.

School boards that hire female superintendents tend to be those that have higher status, are more cosmopolitan than rural, and come from communities that emphasize female involvement and influence (Marietti & Stout, 1994). School board hiring can also be impacted by the age, gender, and tenure of the board members, the search procedures used, district problems and community concerns, the age of the superintendent candidates, and past superintendents in the position (Marietti & Stout). Interestingly, however, the majority of school boards that hired female superintendents were male-dominated in membership (42-20) and in 90% of those cases the new female superintendent directly followed a previous male superintendent, breaking "new ground" in the board's decision to go with a woman (Marietti & Stout, p. 382).

The number of superintendent certificates awarded to women has risen over the years (Pavan, 1985). Shakeshaft (1989b) noted that the number of women who enter doctoral programs in educational leadership increases each year, indicating more women aspire to higher level administrative positions. Some research has shown, however, that women may not want to be superintendents. Despite the rising interest of women in higher level administrative positions, the numbers of women who actually pursue the superintendency are relatively low (Ortiz & Marshall, 1988; Shakeshaft). Shepard (1999) argued that more men than women aspire to the superintendency as their ultimate career goal. Female applicants also tend to receive less than half the number of interviews of their male counterparts (Grogan, 1996; Harris et al., 2002). In the US, women make up less than 30% of all superintendents (Mertz, 2002).

Funk, Pankake, and Schroth (2002) concluded that although there are differences between male and female superintendents, they are mostly differences of degree and not

kind. Successful superintendents have been shown to possess the same characteristics, regardless of gender. Unfortunately, however, female superintendents are more likely to be divorced, single, widowed, or make alternative arrangements in their personal lives in order to be successful in the position (Chase & Bell, 1994). Female superintendents also have a more difficult time achieving, retaining, and becoming highly successful in their positions (Funk, Pankake, & Schroth). This may be because many encounter expectations based on societal definitions of gender appropriate behavior (Skrla et al., 2000).

Kowalski and Stouder (1999) found that 54% of female superintendents felt that a major barrier to their success was their gender. In addition, the majority of research done on the superintendency has been conducted on male participants, with a male-biased attitude and approach to leadership (Bell, 1988).

The reasons many women leave the superintendency include a variety of issues and concerns. Tallerico et al. (1993) discovered that women most leave the superintendent position because of a new job, a dysfunctional relationship with the school board, teachers' union issues, or gender-related variables. Women are also asked to work for less money than male superintendents and they suffer scrutiny, manipulation, and bullying (Tallerico et al.).

Success strategies for female superintendents include balancing expectations of role and gender, maintaining purpose, remaining "feminine" in communication and learning to deal with the "masculine" culture, not "act[ing] like a man," letting go of anything that blocks success, remaining a "risk taker," and sharing power and credit with others (Brunner, 1997).

Higher Education Administration

Female faculty learn from the first moment they are hired at the university that the profession is run predominantly by male leaders (Rusch & Marshall, 1995). Women who enter academia often encounter a "chilly climate," experiencing overt and subtle discrimination by their colleagues (Acker & Feuerverger, 1996; Hamrick, 1998). Johnsrud and Des Jarlais (1994) concluded that the climate of the university is more conducive to the needs, priorities, and lives of White men, thus making the environment inhospitable to anyone else. Gender discrimination is the only logical explanation for why women earn on average \$5,000 less than male professors in similar positions (National Center for Education Statistics, 1999). Out of the 10 highest paying universities in the US, only one pays women as much as men in similar positions (Bellas, 2000-2001). Female faculty members do not achieve the high levels of success of their male counterparts (S. Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Long et al., 1993). This may be because female faculty are given larger teaching loads and committee assignments (Bellas & Toutkoushian, 1999). Research has also concluded that women publish less than men on average, possibly because their work is more heavily scrutinized (Bellas & Toutkoushian). In addition, women are often isolated from support networks and lack other female role models and mentors (Long et al.).

Socialization in higher education is predominately done through the tenure process. The tenure process takes a faculty member from an outsider to a marginally accepted member of the group, to a peer, and finally a confidant (Schein, 1971). It is the most significant form of socialization in higher education, as it begins with probationary membership status and if successful, ends in tenure; if unsuccessful, ends in termination

(B. Johnson & Harvey, 2002). Tenure signals the crossing of a boundary and a rising through the hierarchy (Gaffney et al., 2001). This process must also be completed with a relative amount of speed, as time is a critical factor in successfully achieving tenure (Long et al., 1993).

In U.S. educational administration programs, only 12% of the faculty are women (Rusch & Marshall, 1995). Women are less likely to have tenure (42% vs. 66%) and be full professors than men (15% vs. 39%; Bradburn & Sikora, 1998; Nettles, Perna, & Bradburn, 1993). However, women who are professors at universities serve as inspirations to other women encouraging them to enter the profession (Logan, 1998). Long et al. (1993) concluded that "all else being equal, women are promoted more slowly" (p. 720). A doctorate is the baseline credential for any career in higher education, yet many women do not pursue the degree (K. M. Moore, 1983). Only 54% of female faculty have an earned doctorate compared to 74% of male faculty (Bradburn & Sikora, 1998). Due to the dominant male culture in higher education, women who rise through the ranks must be prepared to make sacrifices and be comfortable with who they are (Kaplan & Helly, 1983). Some have even suggested that women have a "birth control strategy" in order to find themselves marketable and available for upward mobility in educational administration (Holt, 1981). Riger, Stokes, Raja, and Sullivan (1997) noted that gender produces subtle differences in the various opportunities and mentoring that female faculty experience, which can ultimately impact their career advancement. The number of women in any academic department is often in proportion to their overall opinion of the environment (Riger et al.). If women view an academic department as friendly and collaborative, they will be more likely to persist than if they experience a

more hostile environment (Riger et al.). Bradburn and Sikora (1998) found that the careers of women in higher education were also shorter.

Academics tend to “fall into” careers in administration, as dean or department chair positions usually serve as breaks in a faculty member’s teaching career (Ross & Green, 1990). Several have argued that most academic administrators have not had formal training for their positions and because of this find the position very challenging, especially in relation to budgeting and finance (Gmelch & Parkay, 1999).

Until colleges and universities are able to “move away from a one size fits all leadership culture of administration,” female administrators will always be hindered by a male-dominated standard by which they cannot compare (Tedrow, 1999, p. 8). The further up the ranks of higher education women go, the fewer of them there are (Harris et al., 2002). Furthermore, women tend to be pocketed in certain positions and departments (K. M. Moore, 1983). This may be due to their already marginal status as a faculty member and issues of institutional equity (Acker & Feuerverger, 1996).

Directors of centers

Academic centers and academic departments have quite a bit in common (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead, 2001). They both have mission statements grounded in the university’s mission and center around research, teaching, and outreach (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead). Centers, however, are more flexible than academic departments in that they are expected to respond quickly to the needs of the university population, while academic departments are bound to stricter policies and procedures (Stahler & Tash, 1994). Most center directors have doctoral degrees and these can come from a variety of discipline backgrounds (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead). This credential is critical to the

program's reputation and success because in order to be viewed as scholarly and reputable, the center director must maintain a credential commensurate to the faculty with which they hope to build relationships (Friedman & Friedman, 1984; Stahler & Tash). It is also important to note that many center directors have held positions and careers outside of the academic arena (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead). Experience in public and private K-12 education, business, public administration, and nonprofit organizations assists center directors to be successful because they can draw on management and personnel skills gleaned from their other positions (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead).

Directors often span the boundaries between the academic world and the business world (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead, 2001). They are responsible for maintaining a number of different relationships with faculty, university administration, and the community at large (At-Twajri & Montanari, 1987). Directors are responsible for maintaining the integrity of the program and cultivating relationships with faculty in order to carry out the program's mission (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead). Center directors often serve in entrepreneurial roles, raising money and finding ways to overcome funding shortages (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead). Stahler and Tash (1994) argued that a program and its director are only as successful as the support they receive from university administration. If the program is a priority, the director will report to a dean, provost, or president, whereas programs with less university priority tend to report to a department chair (Friedman & Friedman, 1984). Support from the administration usually results in more funding for the program and thus a more successful agenda for the center and the director (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead). Friedman and Friedman also noted that the

success and academic credibility of the program depend on the consistency of its mission with the mission of the university it serves.

Department chairs

College and university departments are responsible for academic planning and curriculum review (Stark, Briggs, & Rowland-Poplowski, 2000). They have been called the "custodians of academic standards" (Bennett, 1998, p. 135). In order for this to be done appropriately and accurately, a good department chair is essential (Stark et al.). A department chair position requires different skills than a faculty position (Gmelch & Parkay, 1999). Many faculty members who attempt it find it very challenging (Bennett). They are required to manage both human and material resources, build and maintain a strong and positive department, as well as maintain their own academic and research interests as a faculty member (Gmelch & Parkay). The major roles of a department chair include leader, manager, faculty developer, scholar (Gmelch & Miskin, 1993), facilitator, agenda setter, coordinator, initiator, standard setter, advocate, and sensor (Stark et al.). They are responsible for approximately 80% of all administrative decisions in higher education (Knight & Holen, 1985). Department chairs have often described themselves as making sure that faculty members fulfill their responsibilities, even if it is done in subtle ways (Stark et al.).

After achieving the position of department chair, however, very few are trained or mentored to succeed in the position (Gmelch & Parkay, 1999). Gmelch and Parkay found that many new department chairs faced difficulty when transitioning into their new position, as they experienced role conflict and ambiguity. The difficulties new department chairs experience are mostly because those chosen seldom have the

administrative experience necessary to prepare them (Knight & Holen, 1985). The majority of department chairs come out of the faculty, which focuses on pedagogy and research and places very little emphasis on administration (Knight & Holen). Bennett (1998) argued that department chairs experience three levels of transition when assuming a new position. The first of these is shifting focus from a specialist in an academic area to a generalist (Bennett). The second is looking at the whole department instead of individual areas, as responsibility has been greatly expanded (Bennett). Finally, department chairs must find ways to expand their loyalty to include the entire campus, rather than the earlier focus on their departmental colleagues and their discipline (Bennett). Successful department chairs are often those who can provide high levels of consideration for faculty and structure at the same time (Knight & Holen). They are able to promote communication, provide opportunities for discourse and exchange, maintain healthy interactions with others, and recognize faculty when appropriate (Bennett).

Shultz and Easter (1997) found that although 87% of women desire to advance, the majority set their sights on the position of department chair instead of dean. However, women are seldom department chairs in university programs (Rusch & Marshall, 1995). Although an entry level position in higher education administration, the department chair position does not necessarily serve as entry to any higher level positions in academe (K. M. Moore, Salimbene, Marlier, & Bragg, 1983).

Deans

The deanship has been described as the middle rung on the ladder to the university presidency (K. M. Moore et al., 1983). This position is critical to the academic organization, as deans allocate resources, control information, assess staff performance, and serve as a central administrator between faculty and higher administration (K. M. Moore et al.). Most deans come from within the faculty; as they moved up the ladder from a department chair to the deanship, or from completely outside the institution (e.g., a lawyer to the dean of a law school; K. M. Moore, et al.; Twombly, 1990). The majority of deans do have faculty experience, but there are about 25% of dean positions which do not require that experience in order to obtain the position (K. M. Moore et al.). Those dean positions outside of the academic realm (e.g., Continuing Education, Summer Session, Students, or Extension) also do not necessarily require previous faculty experience (K. M. Moore et al.; Twombly). Most deans have doctoral degrees, a typical prerequisite to the position and are tenured, full professors with many publications to their name (K. M. Moore et al.; Twombly). Women may be shut out of these positions because of the barriers to their upward mobility as a faculty member, a lack of the doctorate degree, and their failure to achieve tenure (Long et al., 1993; Rusch & Marshall, 1995; Shultz & Easter, 1997).

An effective dean possesses skills in communication, management, planning, budgeting, organizing, analyzing, fundraising, and establishing relationships (Bennett, 1998; Martin, 1993). Martin claimed that a good dean argues for the good of the cause and values the many disciplines which compose his/her school/college. They exhibit hard work and dedication and they believe that a strong research mission improves their

college's competitiveness (Martin). Martin noted that good deans also know where the boundaries are with their power and authority. Successful female deans have been shown to enhance educational quality, engage in research and service projects, effectively manage personnel and budgets, and promote diversity (Rosser, 2001). Academic deans depend on department chairs and vice versa (Bennett, 1998). They work together to create a collegial environment which focuses on academic standards and innovation and this relationship is critical to a successful academic discipline (Bennett).

There are very few female deans of business, law, medicine, and engineering, as the majority of female deans are in nursing, arts and sciences, or education (Kaplan & Helly, 1983; Rusch & Marshall, 1995). Shultz and Easter's (1997) study concluded that although 87% of women desire to advance, only 25% wanted to advance to the deanship level.

Summary

Organizational climate and culture contribute to the success or failure of women in educational administration (August & Waltman, 2004; Duncan & Rathmel, 1995). K-12 and higher education have very different climates and cultures, mostly in their power and governance structures; however both educational environments require administrators to possess similar skills in order to be successful (Belch & Mueller, 2003; Hackney, 1998; D. J. Johnson, 2001; McCullough, 2002; Sewall & Smith, 1999). Positions in educational leadership require administrators to focus on relationships, possess a desire to serve, utilize a participative style of leadership, possess appropriate credentials, oversee curriculum and academic planning, and allocate resources (Bogler, 2001; Brunner, 1997; Harris et al., 2000, 2002; Larson & Barnes-Moorhead, 2001; Lucas

& Valentine, 2002; D. Moore, 2000; D. Moore & Ditzhazy, 1999; Rosser, 2001; Stark et al., 2000). Women who served as principals and superintendents who went on to become deans, department chairs, or directors of centers may encounter challenges when they transition between the K-12 and higher education, given the differences in institutional climate and culture.

Several studies have found that women lead differently and focus on different things (Billot, 2002; M. Coleman, 1996; Fennell, 1997; Haar, 2002; Ouston, 1993; Shakeshaft, 1995). Women value relationships, a cooperative style of leadership, and collaborative decision making and it is because of the differences in their style that they have experienced much success as educational administrators (D. J. Johnson, 2001; Rosser, 2001; Zheng, 1996). Despite their success, however, there are few female administrators in education and this may be because of the structural and personal barriers to their career mobility (Benson, 1998; S. Clark & Corcoran, 1986; G. Goodman, 2002; K. M. Moore, 1987; Pascarella et al., 1997; Rader, 1979). These barriers can prevent women from transitioning from one administrative position to another and limit their ability to rise through the ranks of educational leadership (Duncan, 1995; K. M. Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Riehl & Byrd, 1997; Sagaria, 1988; Shultz & Easter, 1997). The limited mobility of women within one level of educational administration makes it a significant achievement if they are able to transition from an administration position in one educational climate and culture, succeed as an academic, be promoted, and obtain an administrative position at another. If they are able to transition successfully, previous experience as a K-12 administrator can positively impact their success as a higher education administrator (Belch & Mueller, 2003; D. J. Johnson, 2001).

The reasons why women choose to make this career transition, how they transitioned, and how they interpreted this lived experience was the focus of this study. The limited number of women in positions of educational leadership and the institutional and personal barriers to their success made it necessary to examine how women who advance in education manage to be successful. The women who made a career transition between these two educational climates and cultures revealed the similarities and differences between the climates and cultures of K-12 and higher education administration. They shared how they adapted and acclimated to their new educational environment and this knowledge will help future generations of women who aspire to leadership positions in educational administration.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Research Design

Previous research has shown that women have less professional mobility in the field of educational administration than men (Felmlee, 1984; Johnsrud & Heck, 1994; Rusch & Marshall, 1995; Twale & Shannon, 1996a). However, the women that have succeeded in the field of educational administration have done so by adapting their leadership skills and approaches to each new environment (Belenky et al., 1997; Brunner & Duncan, 1994; Robinson & Lipman-Blumen, 2003). Women tend to be more collaborative, more competitive and more task focused than men in similar administrative positions (Haring-Hidore et al., 1990; Robinson & Lipman-Blumen). Women have also been shown to be more caring and informed in their decision making, taking the larger picture into account (Haring-Hidore et al.).

This study was conducted to determine how and why women made a career transition between the K-12 and higher education climate and culture and how they interpreted this lived experience. Results of previous research on women in educational leadership have been conflicting. Skrla (2000) found that women who take on leadership roles in education are doomed to fail based on their "femaleness" (p. 293). D.J. Johnson (2001) contended that women are more likely than men to succeed as administrators in education, while Shultz and Easter (1997) noted that institutional and personal obstacles affect the career mobility and success of women in educational administration.

The inconsistent reports about women's ability to succeed (S. Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Logan, 1998; K. M. Moore, 1987), the limited number of women in positions of educational leadership (Mertz, 2002; National Center for Education Statistics Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, 2001), and the institutional and personal barriers to their success (K. M. Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Ortiz & Marshall, 1988) made it necessary to examine how women who advance in education are successful and maneuver throughout. Because of the limited mobility of women within one level of education, it is a significant achievement if they are able to transition from a K-12 administration position in one educational climate and culture, succeed as an academic, be promoted, and assume an administrative position in higher education. By identifying the women in educational administration who made a career transition between the K-12 and higher education climate and culture, it revealed the similarities and differences between their experiences in both educational cultures.

The purpose of this study was to explore how women who served as principals who went on to become deans, department chairs, directors of centers, or vice presidents transitioned between the K-12 and higher education environments, given the differences in institutional climate and culture. Because this study attempted to capture the lived experience of each woman, a qualitative approach was used. One-on-one interviews, demographic questionnaires, and leadership assessments were conducted to identify any similarities amongst the participants. This approach allowed for the lived experiences of the women to serve as the data for this study.

Investigator Reflections on the Research Design

This study was influenced by the researcher's own professional interests and experiences. I worked as a teacher in a K-8 Catholic school for 2 years before becoming an administrator in higher education in a Department of Residence Life. I held this administrator position for 3 years while I worked on my Ph.D. concentrating on both K-12 and higher education administration. After finishing my coursework and achieving candidacy, I became a principal in a K-8 Catholic school. Combining my fields of interest and experience in education and transitioning with my doctoral research was serendipitous. Given the conflicting findings of previous studies on women in educational administration, focusing on the transition of women between K-12 and higher education seemed not only worthwhile, but from my personal experiences (having made this transition twice) it seemed incredibly relevant.

Research Questions

1. Why did these women transition from K-12 administration to higher education administration?
2. How did they describe their transition from one educational climate and culture to another?
3. How did they interpret that lived experience?

Research Methods

The principal means of data collection in this study included standardized open-ended interviews, demographic questionnaires, and leadership assessment instruments. Interviews were selected as the study required extensive conversation and clarification with each participant in order to adequately capture their experiences, perceptions, and

circumstances. Interviewing is “one of the most common and powerful ways in which we try to understand our fellow human beings” (Fontana & Frey, 2000, p. 645). As the purpose of the study was to capture each woman’s lived experience, qualitative methods seemed most appropriate. All participants were given the same series of open-ended questions in a standardized interview format (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2004). The interview questions were open-ended to focus around specific topics; however, each participant had flexibility in her responses (B. Johnson & Christensen; Schwandt, 1997). Participants were given a leadership assessment to identify their current leadership style (Appendix B). These instruments served as baseline information about each participant in order to identify any similarities between them. The interviews took place in person and by phone at times and dates convenient to each participant. Campus visits were arranged so that interviews could take place in natural administrative settings, if this setting was most convenient for the participant. Each participant was asked a series of demographic questions to give the study a frame of reference for use as qualitative data (Appendix C). These questions asked for the participants’ age range, race/ethnicity, the number of years they worked in K-12 (at a public, parochial, private, or charter school), the number of years they served as a principal and/or superintendent in K-12, the number of years they worked in higher education (at a public, private, or technical institution), and the number of years they worked as a center director, dean, and/or department chair in higher education.

All interviews were conducted, audio taped, and transcribed by the investigator using speech recognition software and were manually checked for accuracy. The text was typed into a document and color coded by participant for identification. Multiple copies

of each transcript were made to sort participant responses by content. All data were coded using inductive codes and all participants given a pseudonym to protect their anonymity. The investigator read through all participant transcripts and sorted them for like responses. Responses were then compared and noted in Table 4. Unfortunately, this method did not work in the presentation of the overall results in chapter 4, as it did not capture each woman's story in an engaging way. Therefore each individual experience was presented in a story format. All non-critical information about the participants including full name, personal descriptors, and any names of the educational institutions where they were employed was omitted or changed. The investigator made meaning from the data by noting each participant's tone of voice, the veracity with which she told her story, the number of times a subject was mentioned by each participant, and the amount of detail used in the description of the event. The procedure for categories and themes that emerged from the participant interviews was examined and discussed in the summary, conclusion, and implications section.

Participants

Women who had been administrators at both the K-12 and higher education levels (as a principal, as well as a dean, department chair, center director, or vice president) participated in this study. I focused on the career levels of: principal, center director, dean, department chair, and vice president, to ensure that I examined multiple levels of mid-level managers in both K-12 and higher education. I established criteria to examine the transitions each woman made between the K-12 and higher education climate and culture and to identify the strategies these women used in their transition.

The participants were selected by an initial referral of the investigator's doctoral committee. All of these women had been administrators in K-12 education and also in higher education. Following the initial referral, I contacted participants and asked them to participate in the study and recommend any other woman they knew who had taken a similar career track and met the specific criteria of the study. Subsequently, I contacted those women and each participant signed an informed consent release (Appendix A).

Sampling Procedures

Participants were selected for this study using a "snowball sample" collection method. Snowball sampling refers to participants that are identified for the study and are then asked to identify additional individuals who meet the criteria and may also be willing to participate (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2004). Snowball sampling was necessary for this study because women who met the criteria were more likely to identify others in the field that had similar administrative experiences. Because the participants were collected using the "snowball sample" method, there was an unknowable number of women who could have been included in the sample.

Demographics

Approximately 60 women were invited to take part in this study by mail, email, and phone. These women were found through a snowball sampling method and were located throughout the eastern part of the United States. Only 8 met the criteria and agreed to participate. Eligibility to participate was determined by the investigator after the invitation was sent and accepted in a follow-up conversation by phone. Interview times and dates were scheduled during this initial conversation. Seven of the women were at institutions throughout the Midwest and one was at a university in the South.

Participants for this study were difficult to locate, as their exact professional experiences were not always known to those referring them, nor was this information easy to locate on websites or other materials without a curriculum vita. Many of the women referred had not had administrative experience at both levels of K-12 and higher education, making it difficult to obtain a high number of participants for the study. In addition, several of the women who did meet all of the criteria, chose not to participate because of lack of time or interest.

Initial referral by the investigator's doctoral committee yielded 2 participants and those 2 participants referred 3 others who agreed to participate. One of the investigator's undergraduate professors referred a woman who agreed to participate and she was able to refer another willing participant. Finally, a co-worker knew someone from her graduate experience who also agreed to take part in the study.

Of the women who met the criteria and chose to participate, there were many similarities in their demographic make-up. Seven of the women were Caucasian and one was African-American. One of the women was a Catholic nun and maintains that her experience is really "colored by that fact." Five of the women fell into the 50-60 age range with 2 in the 40-50 age range. Only one woman selected the 60-70 age range. She also had the most experience of any of the participants, having served in her current position as a department chair for 14 years. The positions the participants held at the time of this study were: 2 directors of centers, 3 deans, 2 department chairs and 1 vice president.

The average time spent as a principal was 6 1/2 years out of an average of 14 1/2 years spent in K-12 education. None of them ever held superintendent positions. Their

average time spent as a center director in higher education was 6 years. The average time as a dean was 2 years and the average time as a department chair was 1 1/4 years. Overall, the average time spent in higher education was 15 years.

The demographic make-up of each participant is detailed in Table 1. Their individual career paths are illustrated in Figures 1-8. Their years of experience in both K-12 and higher education are broken down in Table 2. Participant Myers-Briggs Type Indicator scores (MBTI) and Gianmettao Leadership Behavior Preferences are detailed in Table 3. Participants were asked to take these leadership assessments to establish their current style preferences and identify any similarities between and amongst them.

Instruments

The interviews were standardized and open-ended in order to allow participants the opportunity to expand on their reflections and experiences, but also to make sure that all participants were asked the same questions. The interview questions were:

1. What prompted you to move from the K-12 setting to the university?
2. How would you describe that transition?
3. What prompted you to seek an administrative position at the university?
4. What major differences did you notice between the K-12 and higher education administrative culture or climate?
5. What advice would you give to other women interested in educational leadership? To those transitioning between K-12 and higher education

Table 1

Participant Demographics

Position	Age	Race/Ethnicity	Principal Experience	Director Experience	Dean Experience	Dept Chair Experience	VP Experience
Julie	50-60	Caucasian	3.5 years	0	1.25 years	0	0
Brenda	50-60	Caucasian	8 years	0	3 months	0	0
Carrie	50-60	Caucasian	12 years	0	6 years	0	0
Anita	50-60	African- American	10 years	3 years	2 years	1 year	0
Katie	60-70	Caucasian	5 years	14 years	0	3 years	0
Chris	40-50	Caucasian	3 years	5 years	0	0	0
Tara	40-50	Caucasian	4 years	2 years	0	3 months	0
Nicole	50-60	Caucasian	7 years	0	2 years	0	9 years

6. If these issues are not addressed in the previous questions, the researcher prompted for the following areas:

- a. Strategies
- b. Advantages
- c. Barriers
- d. Impacts on administrative skills
- e. Impacts on leadership style

Table 2

Participant Years of Experience in K-12 and Higher Education

Position	K-12 Experience				Higher Education Experience		
	Public	Parochial	Private	Total Years	Public	Private	Total Years
Julie	13.5	2.5	0	16	16	0	16
Brenda	16	0	0	16	15	3 months	15.25
Carrie	8	15	0	23	4	6	10
Anita	15	0	0	15	15	0	15
Katie	6	0	7	13	0	22	22
Chris	14	0	0	14	10	0	10
Tara	4	0	0	4	13	0	13
Nicole	0	15	0	15	0	18	18

Data Collection

I collected data using both phone and face-to-face interviews. Demographic questionnaires and assessment instruments were administered by mail. Interviews were conducted in a standardized open-ended format and lasted approximately 1 hour each. Completing the demographic questionnaire (Appendix C) and the leadership assessments (Appendix B) took no more than 15 minutes and were coded to identify which participant completed the instrument. No formal training was required to administer the instruments. Resumes or vitas were also collected to gather information about each participant.

Table 3

Participant MBTI and Gianmettao Leadership Behavior Preferences

Position	MBTI	People Score	Task Score
Julie	ENFJ	7	3
Brenda	ENFJ	6	2
Carrie	ENFP	8	3
Anita	ISTJ	6	2
Katie	INFJ	7	2
Chris	Not reported	6	2
Tara	ESFJ	3	2
Nicole	ENFJ	7	1

Data used in this study were collected during October, November and December of 2005, with one interview extending into January 2006. I scheduled each interview individually and based the time and place on each participant's convenience and preference. I sent demographic questionnaires and leadership assessments to the participants both electronically and by mail. Participants had the option to return them during their interview or to fax them back to me whenever they were complete. Every participant returned all parts of the packet, with the exception of one, who was unable to

access the MBTI online and had not taken the instrument in some time. She was therefore unable to report her type preference.

Overall, the majority of the women who met the criteria were eager to participate in the study. They cited reasons like “remembering what it was like as a doctoral student,” personal interests in the research topic, and the ability to discuss an experience that no one had asked them about before. Only one participant was reluctant and she was asked several times before she finally agreed. She was referred on two separate occasions by both another participant and a committee member, but when she was interviewed she was not very forthcoming about her experience. Her interview was actually the least informative of the eight and it was difficult for the researcher to ensure that her “lived experience” was completely captured, as the details of her transition and the emotion used to express it were minimal. It might have been inappropriate to include her in the study, as she seemed unwilling from the beginning to participate. I received several other referrals, but the women referred did not meet all of the criteria. Although they were eager to participate, they could not be included in the study.

Data Analysis

I analyzed data throughout the course of the study and insights gained from earlier interviews were used to inform later interviews. I used a collective case study approach to analyze the data, which relied on each subject’s “lived experience” to describe the phenomenon of transition, but also used several cases concurrently to gain an in-depth understanding of the nature of transition (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Van Manen, 1990). Phenomenology was used to inform this study, however because phenomenology aims to describe an individual’s experience of a phenomenon and understand his or her

“lived experience,” it was difficult to ensure that the “essence” of each participant’s experience was fully captured given the length of the interviews, the lack of time each woman was able to devote to the study, and the highly demanding roles these women possess (B. Johnson & Christensen; Van Manen). Collective case study, also known as multiple-case design (Yin, 1994), uses several cases concurrently to gain an in-depth understanding of the subject. Advantages to this approach include comparison of similarities and differences between cases, observing results of multiple cases at once, and better ability to generalize research findings (replication logic) due to the multiplicity of cases (B. Johnson & Christensen; Yin). This study also relied on each subject’s “lived experience” to describe the phenomenon of transition. Van Manen (1990) noted that:

Lived experience is the starting point and end point of phenomenological research. The aim of phenomenology is to transform lived experience into a textual expression of its essence – in such a way that the effect of the text is at once a reflexive re-living and a reflective appropriation of something meaningful: a notion by which a reader is powerfully animated in his or her own lived experience (p. 36).

I used a phenomenological approach in collecting the “lived experience” of each participant and the collective case study approach was used in the collection of multiple data (i.e., interviews, demographic questionnaires, and leadership assessments), as well as in the search for themes in a cross-case analysis method (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2004).

I searched for significant statements from each interview in order to construct themes and conduct a cross-case analysis of the data (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2004).

This was an interpretative process and relied on low inference descriptors and reflexivity to ensure research validity (B. Johnson & Christensen). Inductive coding reduced and interpreted the various patterns, categories, or themes which emerged from the interviews, demographic questionnaires, assessment instruments, and participant documents (B. Johnson & Christensen). I also used coding to label various chunks of information (e.g., words, phrases, and paragraphs) in order to assign meaning to the data collected (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Because the purpose of the study was to explore the meaning of transition from the K-12 administrative culture to the higher education administrative culture, data analysis focused on identifying themes common to all participants and used examples from the data to illustrate these themes.

Major Contextual Factors

As previously mentioned, a contextual factor of the study included the collection of participants using the "snowball sample" method. Because this subject area was difficult to track on a national scale, there were an unknowable number of women to be included in the sample, as there were no quantitative data on women who had held administrative positions in both K-12 and higher education. The individual experiences of each participant also varied and thus did not follow the same exact career path. In addition to the other contextual factors, it was impossible to predict the types of institutions/school systems or areas of the country that each woman had worked in as administrators; therefore the comparisons between individual experiences were broadly focused, rather than focused on individual school, institution or state characteristics.

In addition, these interviews were conducted both by phone and in-person and the setting of the interview may have impeded the ability of some to be completely

forthcoming in relating their experiences. The interviews were also 1 to 2 hours in length. More time may have been needed to fully capture each woman's lived experience. The women in this study did not reflect on their own responses as several said they could only participate in only one interview due to lack of time. Participant reflection and "member checking" may have also drawn further information from these women and led to a more reflective and thorough "essence" of their transition experience.

Summary

The participants in this study were women who had been administrators at both the K-12 and higher education levels. I used snowball sampling in this study because women who met the criteria of the study could only be identified by others in the field who knew of their administrative experiences. Because this study attempted to capture each woman's lived experience, I used a qualitative approach utilizing one-on-one interviews, demographic questionnaires, and leadership assessments. This study required extensive conversation and clarification with each participant and that is why I selected interviews as the primary method of data collection.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

This study captured the lived experiences of women who served as principals in K-12 administration and who later went on to become deans, department chairs, or directors of centers. The intent was to see how they transitioned between the two educational environments. These lived experiences served as the data for this study. Each woman's experience was presented as a story in order to describe and explain her career path. Each vignette captured her educational background, why she chose to transition from K-12 to higher education, and how that transition experience affected her personally and professionally. Each vignette also contains a pictorial account of her career for a graphic representation of her journey.

Julie: Dean #1

Background in Education

Julie began her career as an English teacher in a public high school in northeast Ohio. She taught there for over 10 years and pursued her Masters degree and principal certificate. She enjoyed teaching, but she wanted to do something "different," so she accepted a principal position at a Catholic high school not far from where she began her career in education. After a few years, an opportunity for a national internship became available. Julie applied and accepted a 1-year appointment where she was responsible for organizing national conferences for school administrators all over the country. This experience allowed her to "keep up on current issues in education and meet a lot of

people.” The connections she made during this internship led her to her next job as a K-12 administrator, where she also pursued her doctorate in Curriculum and Instruction and her superintendent certificate.

Julie's Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

When Julie began the doctoral program, she chose to study curriculum and instruction, educational leadership, and human resources because she could not decide what she ultimately wanted to do. Her work in human resources not only helped her pay her tuition, but it gave her experience with large companies such as Toyota and Procter and Gamble, where she helped them create leadership development programs for their employees. She was also a graduate research assistant to the dean, taught several courses, and sat on various university committees. These experiences as a graduate student led her to transition from K-12 administration to higher education faculty. Pleased that she felt prepared for higher education, Julie remarked:

These experiences gave me a very full experience in higher education, so the transition was not as difficult for me because I had spent 3 years going to school and working at the university. I felt very prepared to go into my first faculty position. I had spent 3 years writing, getting articles published, doing research, teaching classes, sitting in on administrative meetings, and doing administrative work when I was the dean's graduate assistant, so I had a full range of experiences in 3 years. The move to higher education for me was relatively smooth.

She accepted a faculty position in a Department of Educational Leadership at a large public research university, teaching courses on curriculum to teachers and

prospective school administrators, but before she could receive tenure, she moved to another large public research university which offered her an opportunity to start up a Middle Childhood Education Program. She helped to develop that program, teach undergraduates and graduate students, and it was there that she went through the tenure process.

Tenure. Julie described the tenure process as “very challenging,” but she never expounded on how it was challenging other than to mention that she was balancing working with students and coordinating a program at the same time. She initially said she did not believe the tenure process was stressful for her because she knew what was expected of her and she had strong credentials. However, she also mentioned that she had a muscle spasm in her back for 3 years, which she had been treated for medically, but as soon as she got tenure it “went away.” During the conversation it seemed that she was perplexed by that realization, almost as if she had not made the connection before that moment. Julie never mentioned tenure as a barrier to her transition experience. Rather she said she “felt very prepared to go into [her] first faculty position” because of the experiences she had as a graduate student in writing, teaching, researching, and publishing.

Julie's Transition into Higher Education Administration

After several years developing a Middle Childhood Education Program at a university, Julie found herself ready for a new challenge. When a dean position came open in the college, Julie hesitated in applying because she truly enjoyed her position as a faculty member with some administrative responsibilities coordinating a large undergraduate program in Middle Childhood Education. She recalled, “I was able to do

both administration and teaching at the same time and in many ways it was ideal.”

Ultimately, however, Julie got a new position which also let her teach and take on an administrative role, Dean of Undergraduate Studies in Teacher Education and Director of Teacher Education Programs. She was happy with this position because she said, “I got to keep the teacher ed. [sic] piece and I still get to teach once or twice a year.” She commented that she has “gone back and forth [her] entire career” between administration and teaching, so much so, that she doesn’t “know what [she is] better at anymore or what [she] likes more.”

The Challenges of Transition

Research. When Julie was a doctoral student, she noticed the need to publish and that no one was going to give her the time or the energy to do it. She mentioned, “You just have to claim it...because I wanted an academic position. I had to have some publications.” Julie worked her way through her doctoral program and juggled many different things, but the advice she continually received was “to carve out time to write, otherwise everything else will eat up your time.” She had three or four publications when she began looking for her first academic position and she recalled, that “really helped set me apart from other candidates who were on the job market.” Having these experiences researching and publishing, made the transition into a faculty position in higher education easy for Julie, but as an administrator in higher education, Julie found that she has less time to focus on researching and publishing, than she did early in her faculty career.

In my current position, I really feel badly because I’m not able to do much of anything academically. I solve problems all the time, much like I did in K-12.

That's all I do all day long. It's hard for me because I'm not 21 anymore and I can't go home and write like I used to and balance my life.

Networking. An important strategy that Julie used in both her K-12 and higher education experiences was the ability to work with different people to get things done. She remarked that she “definitely learned that in the K-12 setting” and having now used the skill in higher education, she noted disappointedly that “most academics don't have that same skill.” Her ability to network helped her to navigate the differences between K-12 and higher education.

Climate and Culture Differences that Affected the K-12 to Higher Education Transition

Hierarchy. Julie found the culture of K-12 to be more focused on obedience and hierarchy than the culture of higher education. She commented that she does not follow orders in higher education the way she did in K-12 where “things are highly regulated and there's a clear, distinctive hierarchy. You know who's in charge.” She elaborated:

The advice I got when I moved into higher ed. [sic.] was “that is the dean and he really wants you to do this, but it's more important for you to establish your own academic career.” That was very difficult for me because I wanted to stay home and do what the dean wanted me to do because I was so used to following orders in K-12. In a K-12 school, if the principal says “We're going to do this” there is a greater likelihood that it will happen. There may be resistance, but at least there is some semblance of who is in charge. The dean is in charge, but it's in such a different way because of academic freedom.

She also mentioned that trying to “figure out what is what in the hierarchy of higher education” was challenging for her because it was very different from her K-12 experience.

I problem-solved as a principal constantly and there were no answers to many of the problems I had to solve. I had to work with people to do that and I find that it's the same thing here, I work with people to solve problems in creative ways and to get a lot of different needs met, but there's no hierarchy and I have no authority. I can tell faculty what I would like them to do, but they can do whatever they want. My job is really to facilitate getting things accomplished.

In addition to the difficulties Julie experienced with the hierarchy of higher education, she also explained how she found the change process frustrating:

There is a democratic process [in higher education] and it takes years and multiple committees to make any kind of change. If you skip any steps then it's hard. I think that's one of the biggest adjustments that people have to make is with the slowness and the fact that no one's really in charge except the faculty over curriculum. If you disrespect that or skip any steps, you are going to be viewed as a person who's anti-academic freedom.

Another major difference that Julie found was in the job expectations. She noticed that in higher education, “your job is wherever you can do it. An academic doesn't have to be in their office to be counted as at work.” In K-12, however, “your presence is demanded. You need to be there early in the morning until your job is done at the end of the day.” She commented that this autonomy “was probably the most difficult thing” she

experienced in her transition between the culture of K-12 and higher education. For instance, she related:

There so much more immediacy in a K-12 school. You have children in your classroom at 7:00 or 7:30 in the morning. You can't be sitting around the library reflecting into research and reading. There's no time to do that, but in higher ed. [sic], there is the time to reflect and to think about things. In K-12, it's difficult to make decisions based on a lot of different evidence because you're faced with the immediacy of all these different children, different periods of the day, and very little time.

Time. Julie found the way things "operate" in higher education to be a major difference and a challenge to her transition. Having experienced the slowness of decision making in higher education while she worked in K-12, she decided that she was not interested in moving into higher education. This was prior to her doctoral work, which helped to change her mind:

I was appalled at how slow things worked at the university. In K-12, you're under the gun to get things done very quickly and the university folks just like to sit around and talk. It actually drove me crazy.

Rewards. Julie also found the reward system in higher education to be very different from her K-12 experience. She remarked that the rewards in K-12 "are for student achievement and there's little else," but the rewards in higher education, she contrasted, are in "developing your career." She also noted that in K-12, "you're not really developing a career, but you can become a better teacher or better administrator and as an administrator you can climb the ladder." She emphasized that in higher

education, the incentives are much more “intrinsic” and “the culture rewards you in the tenure process for the ability to do different kinds of tasks and to make a contribution to a body of knowledge.” Julie’s career path is illustrated in Figure 1.

“Brenda”

Dean #2

Background in Education

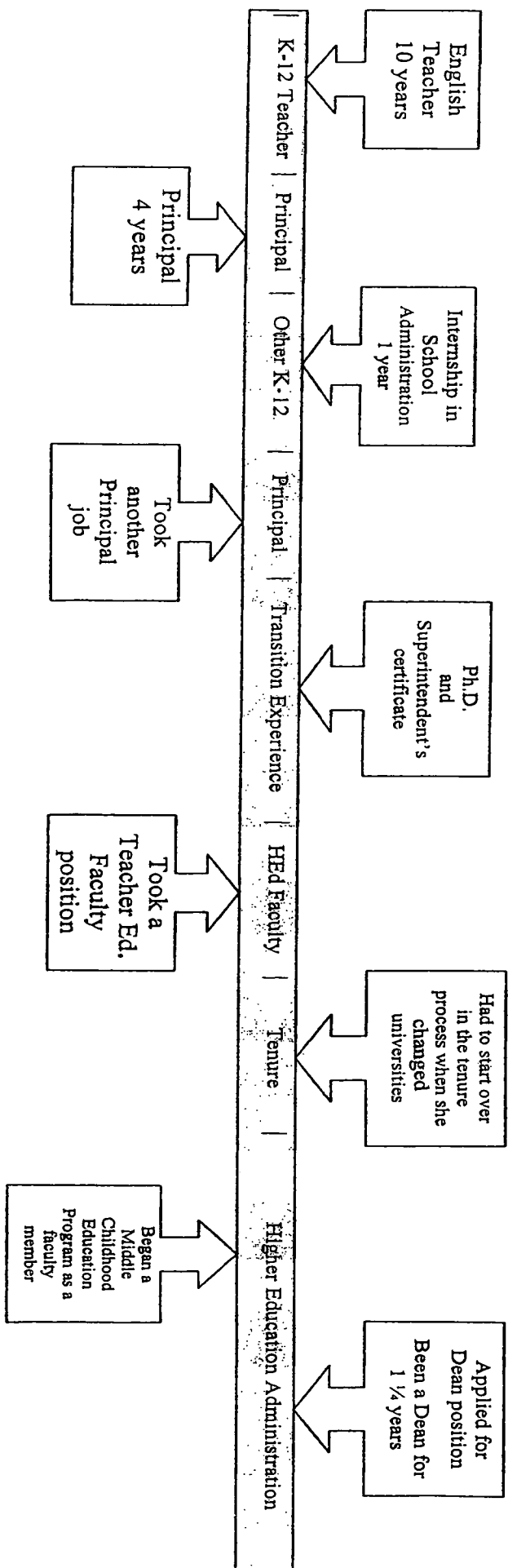
Brenda began working on her doctorate while she taught and served as an administrator in a public K-12 school district. After a few years, she moved into different positions within the central office as a Curriculum and Mathematics Supervisor and a Staff Development Coordinator. When she finished her Ph.D., she returned to the dual role of teaching and working as an administrator because she “missed the contact with kids.” However, she found that two jobs were difficult on her both personally and professionally because she had young children at the time and “it was hard enough with one job.”

Brenda’s Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

Brenda transitioned into higher education as a faculty member in a Department of Education at a large state university. Her experience in scholarly research and practice from her doctoral experience led her to believe it would be a good fit for her professionally. In addition, she also had several years of experience in public K-12 education as both a teacher and administrator and she believed that helping to train future teachers was a good move for her at that point in her career.

Figure 1. Career Path of "Julie" Dean #1

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Tenure. She went through the tenure process at the large state university where she found her first faculty position and found the process to be "quite stressful." When Brenda spoke of the tenure process, she was disappointed and somewhat disillusioned. She spoke little of her own experience, but she mentioned working with several faculty members who had just gone through the process and she described them as "basket cases." She remarked that she only wanted to "play the game and get tenure" to ensure some job security for herself and her family. She recalled, "I didn't care if I ever got promoted, but being a single mother, I just wanted the job security." Brenda's experience seemed tumultuous. She described her experience with higher education faculty as "it's almost like we both can't be competent. In order for me to be competent, I have to say that you're not." She repeatedly discussed that merit pay "isn't what it says it is" and her demeanor seemed as if the tenure process itself had taken a toll on her as a professional in her field. She admonished, "Merit pay came up to bite me. I don't think the best teachers get the best raises." She had trouble with the tenure process relying solely on the presentation of paper credentials and she sadly remarked that you "never get to sit down and have a one-on-one with anyone." She found it "hard to brag" about herself and she emphasized that you have to "learn to do that in the tenure process." She also commented that in her experience as dean, she finds that new faculty often want to be told what to do to get through the process. "They think it's easier when someone tells them to do this and this, but it's political and it shouldn't be that." Her experience as dean has not changed her views on the overall process. She stated, "I still don't find that merit pay is what it says it is, but that could be my emphasis on teaching coming out."

Brenda's Transition into Higher Education Administration

Brenda's transition from faculty into administration in higher education was a result of the connections she had made along the way. She jokingly noted that she did not go "looking for a deanship," but when a position at the large state university became available, she was approached by a member of the Executive Council, who asked her if she had ever considered applying. She recalled:

I just laughed and went on my merry way, but he kept persisting and coming back. That was how I became the Associate Dean of Undergraduates. I liked the notion that I could still keep my faculty status and teach one class a quarter. I had contact with the students that I liked, but I had the administrative responsibilities.

Brenda's status as an associate dean was short lived however, as the dean with whom she was working left when a new president and provost started at the University. Even though that dean left of his own accord, she chose to go back to a faculty position. She described this event as very "political" and noted that she really liked the dean who left the University. Because he left, she was adamant that she "couldn't possibly work for nor have the same allegiance to anyone else." She made the analogy of the President and Vice president of the United States. "It's sort of like if Bush were replaced. The Vice president goes with the President." She was very happy to return to her faculty status, so she did not pursue other job opportunities. Again, however, her connections in higher education produced a job offer. She recollected:

One of my acquaintances e-mailed the president here and told him that they knew someone they should go after and they did. So, I came to this University as a dean, but my job responsibilities haven't changed from when I was an associate

dean. It's exactly what I did at the other university. The size of the institution dictates the dean's job responsibilities.

The Challenges of Transition

Hierarchy. Brenda noticed that a lack of direction was evident in both her K-12 and higher education administrative experiences. She summed up her "first day" experiences at both by lightheartedly commenting:

It's almost like they put you in the office with the filing cabinet and say, "take it from there." That was also true of the K-12 administrative jobs. Other than giving me a map of the county and saying "Here are the schools, now plan an in-service day on August 29th" that was it.

Brenda remarked, however, that in her K-12 experience she was "trained and licensed as a supervisor." She highlighted the classes she had to take to become a principal. This was not her experience in higher education, however, as Brenda observed that "administrators are not trained to be administrators" and in her experience most administrators in higher education have to "do what I did and figure it out on their own." She was frustrated with this approach and she mentioned that she did not understand it or "quite know what the thought is there."

Sexism. Brenda unhappily noted that her experience in education administration has been that it is "a man's world." She describes women as more thoughtful and inclusive in decision making and commented that this "is sometimes seen as a weakness." She reluctantly pointed out that both K-12 and higher education have "very few women in charge" and that may be because administration is historically male-dominated. As a

K-12 administrator, she experienced blatant sexism on a regular basis. She recalled one repeated instance:

I found in meetings men would shake hands with other men, but I would get a hug or a pat on the back. I learned that I had to go up to the guys and hold out my hand. If I didn't put out my hand, they didn't shake it. I don't really think they meant it disrespectfully, but it was an obstacle to me.

Leadership Style. Brenda did not make changes to her leadership style when she transitioned between K-12 and higher education, but she did find that some of the things she had done in K-12 did not work as well in her higher education experience. She remembered one situation using the team approach that backfired:

The problems for me, I think, arose because I always assumed that people were doing a good job, unless they gave me a reason. It's when they're not doing a good job, that the problems come up and that my strategies did not work as well as I'd like. I'll put up with a lot, as long as someone is a good teacher. I don't like to tell people when they're not doing it right. That approach has backfired on me though, especially when I finally had to get rid of one person in higher education. I guess I should've been negative all along and it would've been easier in the end. The "team" approach did not work as well in higher education supervision, as it had worked in K-12.

Climate and Culture Differences that Affected the K-12 to Higher Education Transition

Politics - "The Domino Effect." Brenda noticed that anytime there was a change in upper-level administration in higher education, it resulted in a "domino effect." She remarked that this "domino effect" was how she ended up in her current position as dean

because when there was a change in presidents it necessitated a change in the provost, which required changes down the line. She did not find this to be the case in her K-12 experience, as most new principals or superintendents value experience in faculty and staff for stability in the schools and the district. She mentioned that merit pay did not exist in K-12, as everyone "got the same pay regardless," but she also noted that everyone knew how long people had been in their positions and how much education they had, as well. She was careful to point out that just because there was a pay scale and everyone knew what everyone else made, there was still "grumbling" about who received what in terms of salary, and that has remained the same in her higher education experience.

Time. As a single mother, Brenda also found that higher education provided less structure to her day and allowed her significantly more flexibility. She found one of the biggest differences between K-12 and higher education revolved around when the day began and ended:

In K-12, your day begins at 7:30 a.m. and ends at 4:30 p.m. and of course, you end up doing things in the evening, especially as a principal, but during the day you are pretty well in your building. In higher ed. [sic], I find my day still filled, but I have more flexibility. The downside of that is that if there is some reason that you need to miss a class, there are no substitutes to call and that is difficult as a single mother.

Brenda found balancing a teaching job and an administrative one "frustrating." She felt her teaching suffered "because the administrative work had to be done, so the teaching was "done on the cuff." She lamented, "I always felt like [sic] I was short-

changing my students by having to balance my time.” Brenda did find more flexibility in higher education, “but it kind of depends on how you are with time management. You have to be more of a self starter in higher ed. [sic]. If you're not a person who is self motivated, than higher ed. [sic] can be deadly.” In her K-12 experience, Brenda found balancing both teaching and administration to have the same challenges. The only difference, however, was that K-12 situations required more of an “immediate” response, but she found that time management was still critical to her success as an administrator. Brenda’s career path is illustrated in Figure 2

“Carrie”

Dean #3

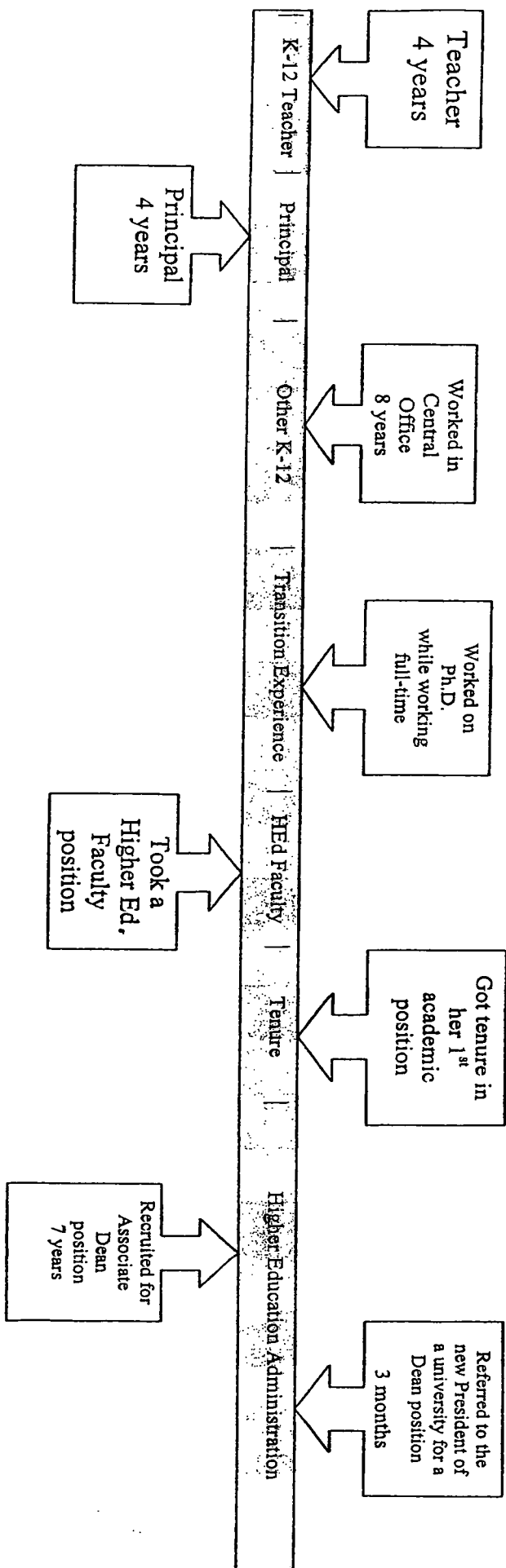
Background in Education

Carrie taught middle school for 11 years, during which time she finished her principal certification and then accepted a principal position. She spent 12 years in four different K-12 buildings because her husband was often transferred. Between moves she completed her doctoral work as a full-time student, after which she chose to return to K-12 as a principal. She believed that there should be more “scholarly practitioners in K-12,” but she was disappointed to find that this was not the case, and she no longer felt as though she “fit” in the K-12 culture. She observed uneasily:

It just didn't feel right. I had somehow grown away from K-12 and I found it very difficult to fit back in to a principal position. I should've been looking for a faculty position in higher ed. [sic]. The kind of work, the kind of student that I was, the kind of writing I was doing, [my advisors] just felt that I wasn't making the right move going back into K-12 practice. I think it was especially true

Figure 2. Career Path of "Brenda" Dean #2

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because the district that I went to did not want to hear about research, so I was not a good fit there. I think that exacerbated the situation and expedited my move back to higher ed. [sic].

Carrie's Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

Because her parents were ill, Carrie accepted an academic position in higher education administration at a large public research university that was close to her hometown. She found her transition to be "surprisingly easy" and attributed the ease of her transition to her experience as a graduate student and to the connections she made while researching her dissertation in various school districts.

She recalled a meeting with her advisor:

My chair said, "I know you've only been here a few months, but it's like you've always been in higher ed. [sic]." Maybe in another life, I don't know. It was a very easy transition for me. I think the transition from principal to grad assistant was more difficult for me. This was just like getting back on a bicycle.

Tenure. It was during this first faculty position that Carrie went through the tenure process. She described her tenure experience as "full of angst." She noted that she did not have a scholarly record as she was a new Ph.D. and she was in the process of building one, but she found the process "nerve-racking" and noted that she was often rejected while trying to publish her first few articles and present at conferences. She said she finally got the "hang of it" and received tenure:

I think that the tenure process does produce a lot of anxiety, especially if you are not an entrepreneur of your own work or interests. If you don't take the initiative, you could very easily fall by the wayside.

Carrie's Transition into Higher Education Administration

Carrie was not a faculty member long before she was approached by other members of a cross-university committee who suggested she apply for an open dean position. She excitedly commented that "the 'administrative blood' kind of stays with you" and she always knew she wanted to work in academic administration. She applied and was offered the job as Dean of Graduate Studies.

The Challenges of Transition

Mentors. Carrie said that although she had good mentoring in her K-12 experience, she did not in her doctoral program or in her first position in higher education. She was appointed a mentor as a new faculty member in higher education, but she found him to be very protective and in turn silencing. He "handled" some situations with other male faculty members for her and Carrie eventually had to tell him that she was "a big girl" and she could handle it on her own. This lack of mentoring made Carrie feel that she had to create her own opportunities for writing, research, and publication, and this was a challenge during her transition.

Leadership style. She found that her leadership style changed throughout her years as an administrator and especially as she transitioned from K-12 administration to higher education administration. When she was a principal, she believed she had to be "responsible for everything" and she described herself as "far more directive." She said she felt superior in the principal role and believed that she had "far more education" than

a lot of the people with whom she worked and supervised, as she knew “what was current and how we should be doing certain things.” As a higher education administrator, she finds herself asking more questions than answering them to “help people figure things out for themselves.” She feels that her leadership style has “evolved” along with her age and experience. She remarked laughingly, “I’m past 50 years old now and it’s like ‘too bad’ in terms of who I am or what I decide.”

Carrie’s experience as a higher education administrator has also led her to become more of a collaborative decision maker. Her current position allows her to work with people from a variety of disciplines and points of view. She recalled:

I work with incredible scholars and the cool thing about this position is I’m working with theologians and artists and historians, as well as educators. So I’m working with people who are bringing such varied perspectives to the table and to our councils, than I did as a principal when everybody came in from K-12.

Carrie’s experience in both K-12 and higher education administration has been enhanced by her ability to be comfortable with herself. She stressed that this skill is important for anyone in a leadership position because she remarked that you need to “authentically lead.” In addition, Carrie mentioned that, “You have to be able to respectfully stand up. Be respectful of the culture, be respectful of the history, but push the envelope.” She mentioned that she’s been called “the conscience of the group,” but she further explained that “the man who said it to me might have been making fun of me, but I took it as a compliment.” She used this example to illustrate leading with her values utmost in mind.

Carrie stressed that reading and learning about leadership, especially the feminist ethic had been helpful to her in her administrative work in both K-12 and higher education. She believed that there should be mandatory reading on feminism and the feminist ethic in administrator preparation programs. She was very persuasive when she observed:

There's plenty in the literature that is affirming the fact that as women, we bring something to the organization that men can't bring, and that's as varied as we are women. Women should definitely study the feminist ethic. To be a feminist is to embrace the ethic of social justice. It's not just looking out for women who have been marginalized, but women, the poor, the aged, and all the people who've been marginalized and whose voices haven't been included in what leadership is. So I think it's vitally important. I think we do students a disservice if they go through a traditional educational leadership program and they never have a course in gender studies or feminism. I'd like to make that mandatory because otherwise our preparation programs don't discuss them. They are never awakened to the kind of inconsistencies that still exist socially beyond poor kids and poor schools.

Carrie believes that women need to lead differently than men. She remarked that half of the superintendents in her state are women, but she noted that if those women continue to lead the way that men have always led, "What's the point? Who cares if they're women?" She noted that the same thing is true of minorities in administration and leadership positions. She offered a parallel, "If minorities are behaving and leading the same way as White males have led for eternity, than what's the point? It doesn't matter if there are women or minorities in positions of power and leadership."

Sexism. Carrie held her first principal position when she was 34 years old. She was in a large school district which only had two female principals and she discovered that sexism was overt and oppressive in that environment. She mentioned that the “big boys” ruled the show and they could be extremely intimidating and controlling, especially when they were together. Carrie recalled vividly:

There would be a gang of these very loud, very controlling men from the state Department of Education and from the different universities. I remember at one point, they clustered and I had to kind of sit on the outskirts of the group. They circled their wagons! I remember at one point during this meeting, I started trying to offer something and make a contribution and they just cut me off. Finally, I thought that's enough of that! When they did it one more time, I said “Stop. Listen guys, I'm beginning to feel like a silenced woman over here.” They stopped and said “Oh alright. What do you have to say?” I had to make a deliberate effort to put them in their little places. Most of them were older than I and had been very well respected and established and they hadn't had to deal with women in educational administration. So they didn't like some mouth, a woman, coming in and saying “No. I don't think I like that. What about looking at it this way? What about this group?” Of course, as Catherine Marshall says, “chieftains certainly want to retain their power.” They don't want to be challenged.

Carrie also encountered oppressive silence and paternalism in higher education, but she had established connections and networks that prevented them from affecting her success. She recollected another incident earnestly:

There was a man who was having a fit with what I was teaching in leadership because it has always been taught a certain way. "She's teaching this newfangled crap and it's making my stuff look bad" and there was a lot of trying to silence me. My male students would run back to these older guys and say, "Do you know what she's teaching? Heresy!" So I would be schooled and reprimanded by some of these older guys and they didn't have any power over me except for promotion and tenure, but I found that I had established myself. You just have to understand that culture and I created enough powerful connections, so consequently when votes came up, this one guy always abstained. When it came to me he never voted "no" on anything. He always abstained because he knew he better shut up in that group.

In addition to the "big boys," Carrie found sexism evident in some of the female leaders in higher education, especially when there was an opening in her department. She was noticeably irritated when she mentioned one particular incident:

Our dean, a woman, came in and said "When so-and-so retires and that position opens, we'll get a retired superintendent and we'll bring him in as a full professor and get him close to \$100,000." I thought that was interesting. Who are the rest of us, chopped liver? It was definitely a bias toward a male and his experience. He was more valuable than us and they would get him twice the salary, actually more than twice the salary. That was the most overt sexism I've seen, but that was also on the part of a female, too.

Carrie found that her experiences with "the old guys" caused her the most barriers during her transition from K-12 into higher education, as she encountered overt

paternalism, oppressive silencing, and general preferences for the male perspective in education. She noted disappointedly that she was often accused of “not being a team player and this was especially true if you challenged their thinking.” She added:

I think a woman's definition of teaming and a man's definition of teaming is very different. The man's definition is there's a coach and the coach tells you what to do and you do it if you're a good team player. You do it for the good of the team. A woman thinks about a team as collaborative, someone who cares, sharing ideas, open dialogue; nobody has any more power than anybody else.

Her experience with these “old guys” meant that she was supposed to support the “way it’s always been.” She found this to be very challenging as an administrator in both K-12 and higher education and refused to be silenced in meetings or change the way she taught.

Climate and Culture Differences that Affected the K-12 to Higher Education Transition

Focus. Carrie said the focus of her K-12 experience was on practice. She noted unhappily that this focus on practice “not even pedagogy” made her last principal position very difficult, especially after she completed her Ph.D.:

I was trying to encourage people to inquire about their own practice and analyze test scores. Just because we've done the Mayan Indian project every spring for the last 20 years, and by god, it's a good project, doesn't mean we're going to do it again. The culture of K-12 was more stale [than higher education]. There were of course fabulous teachers who were inquiring about their own work all the time, but it was tied up in standards, in testing, in the history of what fifth grade is like here. In higher education, there's some of that of course, but there's freedom and

inquiry is encouraged and not discouraged. I just felt that to try to chip away at the K-12 culture was very difficult.

Carrie also found that the focus on practice in K-12 caused her problems with the district union when she conducted some professional development and attempted to change the culture. She recollected a particular instance with teachers when:

We did surveys and came up with some ideas, but when I started implementing them, it was all voluntary. I had them sign in when they came in for a professional development session. For my purposes only, I needed to know who was at which schools and where could I contact them, but it was interpreted as taking attendance and the people who weren't there were penalized in some way. It's just a different way of thinking and I don't find it as much in higher ed. [sic]. There are still some overgrown fourth grade teachers, but on the whole the focus of the faculty is on continuous learning.

Hierarchy. Carrie found the differences between the K-12 and higher education hierarchy to be a challenge, as she noted that principals and deans are seen as "the big boss," but a major difference between the two positions is that deans "don't have much power." Carrie remarked that the dean position is very different from that of a principal position because of academic freedom, especially when evaluating faculty in higher education. She mentioned several times that she believed "the best preparation for the deanship was the principalship." She remarked laughingly that she often finds similarities between her experience as a dean and her time as a principal:

It's so funny. There are times I'll be in my office and a group of students will come in and I'll think, "This is like when the first graders used to come in,"

especially with the faculty. This one isn't getting along with that one, etc. The issues are the same, but the setting is different. There are some faculty members who are just grown-up fourth grade teachers and there are some faculty members who are wonderful adult scholars, but I often laugh because I'm using the same experience, without having to worry about substitutes. So it's very interesting.

Networking. Carrie found being highly visible beneficial to her transition from K-12 to higher education. She remarked that "even though you're not sure what you're supposed to be doing, you are reading, researching, spending time in your office, walking the halls, and stopping in to see people and building those relationships is very important." In her experience, being visible allowed others to "get to know you as a professional" and then they were able to share their scholarly work and interests. This helped her to form mutual respect amongst her peers, both personal and academic. She made a concerted effort to "deliberately speak with the chair and make sure I stopped in to see the dean" in order to stay visible, get to know them, and form connections. In one instance, she recalled:

One of my dearest friends now is a professor of curriculum theory. He and I found that what we have in common was a belief in democracy in education. So he started introducing me to a lot of readings that I wasn't familiar with because I was new in the field and I started sharing things with him. We began writing together and he was a full professor, so that carried weight. He could speak to my academic work and people could see that I was publishing and I was working with him -- he had a very good reputation. There was one other guy who was the "publication king" and I'd ask him to read everything I wrote that was getting

ready for publication. "Would you help me? What do you think of this? Tell me if you think it's publishable or what I need to do differently." You can't do it alone. A lot of academics tend to be introverted and they feel like they're lone rangers. I think it's very hard for them with their egos involved to say, "I really need help to get started here."

Carrie also formed connections and stayed "visible" outside of the university, as well. She made deliberate visits to local superintendents in the area and within the county where the university resided to develop new partnerships and to strengthen existing ones. Carrie emphasized the importance of visibility:

I was in the schools a lot. I established a lot of friends. I went to superintendent meetings and I asked to be on programs. The visibility piece and the relationship piece both within the university and externally have been incredibly important to my success.

Carrie's career path is illustrated in Figure 3.

"Anita"

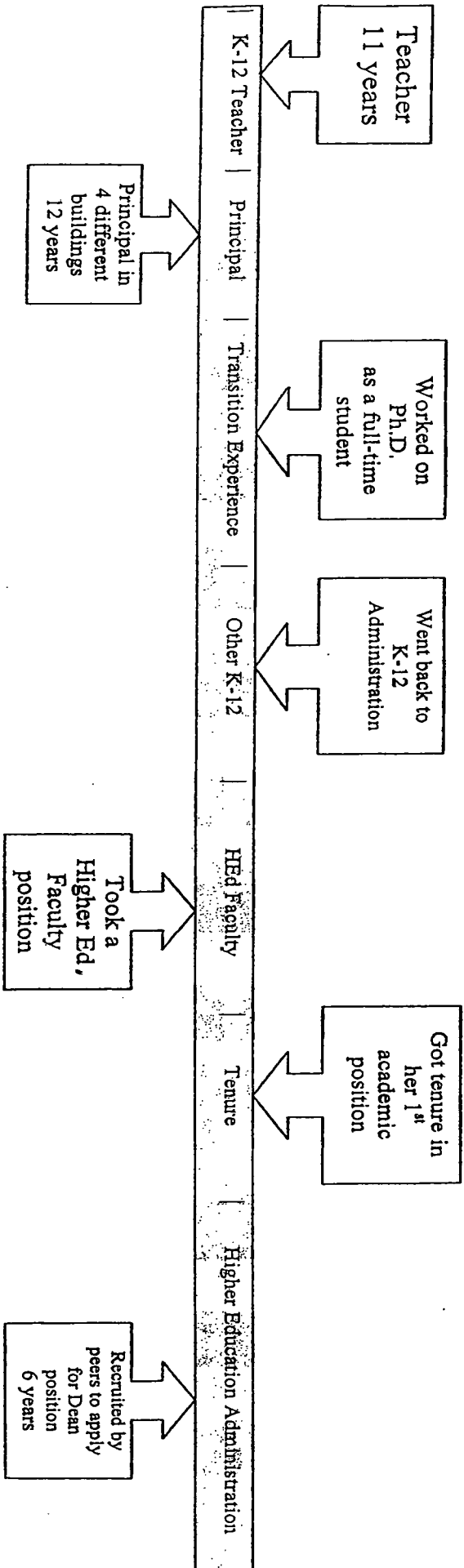
Department chair #1

Background in Education

Anita knew when she got her teaching certificate that she eventually wanted to pursue a career in educational administration, as she is from a family of educators. Her mother was both a teacher and a K-12 administrator and it was from watching others firsthand that she first became interested in the field. She said she wanted to "broaden [her] impact and [she] thought administration would do that, not just by touching students, but by touching teachers and parents, as well." Anita views school and

Figure 3. Career Path of "Carrie" Dean #3

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schooling as separate issues. She reasoned that "schooling implies a broader reach and is more expansive."

Anita taught for 5 years and after she received her doctorate in educational administration, she accepted her first principal position. Although she was happy in the position, she was invited to another district to close one of its buildings, after which, she returned to the district where she had been a teacher and accepted an administrative post in the central office. After a few years, she accepted a second principal job.

Anita's Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

A few years after accepting the second principalship, Anita received a call to apply for a position as a project director for a major university grant. She believed it to be a worthwhile effort and was excited to take on the challenge because:

The nature of the grant fascinated me. The initiative was to increase the pipeline, or actually establish one, between community colleges and 4-year institutions. At that time, little had been written about it, but everyone knew there was a need. So I accepted the challenge working between a state university and a community college.

She observed that the project director position allowed her the opportunity to demonstrate her abilities and it was because of this position that she was invited to join the university as a faculty member in a Department of Elementary Education and coordinate a university program. Somewhat irritated, she said that she "naïvely" accepted the job to coordinate the largest program in the College of Education, while she was brand new to the faculty and untenured. She commented on how this additional position caused her a great deal of stress:

I was able to do it, but it is challenging because you're on the clock. You need to focus on your research, teaching, and service -- the trilogy. It made me think very carefully about how I was going to plan out my research and teaching.

Anita was asked to move into the Department of Educational Administration and that is where she remained and went up for tenure. She chose to stay in that position for a number of years before she was asked to become Special Assistant to the Dean in Faculty and Administration. After a few years, she assumed a post as associate dean at the same university. She casually remarked that all of her administrative positions came to her "by way of invitation." She did not seek any of them out. She also mused that she tends to stay in positions for only a "2 to 3 year period." Following her post as associate dean, Anita was accepted into a fellowship program for leaders in higher education. When she completed the fellowship, she was asked to become a department chair to an education department which housed seven different program areas.

Tenure. Anita did not focus much on her tenure experience except to say that she was "on the clock" and she really needed to focus on research, teaching, and service, but accepting a collateral administrative position made that challenging. She mentioned that she had to be careful when planning her research and teaching and she also stressed that she was "naïve" and probably should not have taken the collateral assignment that early in her faculty career.

The Challenges of Transition

Anita did not mention barriers to her transition from K-12 to higher education; however she stressed the need for proper credentials when making the transition and mentioned that it would "probably be a barrier if those were absent." She did find that

within higher education there were “more apparent and blatant hurdles” than in her K-12 experience because it was “traditional in terms of being male-dominated, middle-aged, and White.” However, she did not focus on any specific challenges to her transition or to her success as an African-American woman in the field.

Salary. Anita did point out that men “typically fare better” when it comes to salary negotiation because they are able to “negotiate a salary package much more adeptly than women.” She said that although she is not the best negotiator, she has developed the skills throughout the course of her career and now considers herself more proficient than when she began. She has found this gender disparity in salary negotiation in both her K-12 and higher education experiences.

Networking. Building relationships has been a key strategy to her successful transition between K-12 and higher education. Anita stressed that knowing whom to trust and building a team environment was helpful to her in all of her administrative positions. She noted enthusiastically that the relationships and connections she established throughout her career helped her in her ascent through educational administration.

Climate and Culture Differences that Affected the K-12 to Higher Education Transition

Setting. During her transition, Anita discovered that the K-12 and higher education cultures are very different. She thought they would be “much more allied” than they turned out to be. She found the culture of higher education “difficult to understand” and remarked that she had to assess the “fit” of each school and institution to decide what was best for her and her personality. “I think there are a lot of people who can be good administrators in either, but I think that often, you can be an even better administrator or faculty member, depending upon the kind of setting you’re in.”

Hierarchy. One of the more significant differences that Anita found between the cultures of K-12 and higher education was in how administrators are “viewed.” She commented that there were differences in parameters and levels of autonomy between the two educational environments. In K-12, she found that she had more autonomy than as an administrator in higher education because of the “collegial community” and “continuous peer review.”

Despite having several different administrative positions in higher education, Anita could not discern if she had been more successful in any one position, as she gave them all her best effort. She explained how each experience differed:

As a department chair, you are much closer to the faculty than as a dean, which is more of a staff role with line responsibilities and more interface with central administration. As chair, you have staff and personnel reporting to you and your responsibilities make you more accountable to the faculty. Each position is different, but I don't know if one is more challenging than the other.

Anita's career path is illustrated in Figure 4.

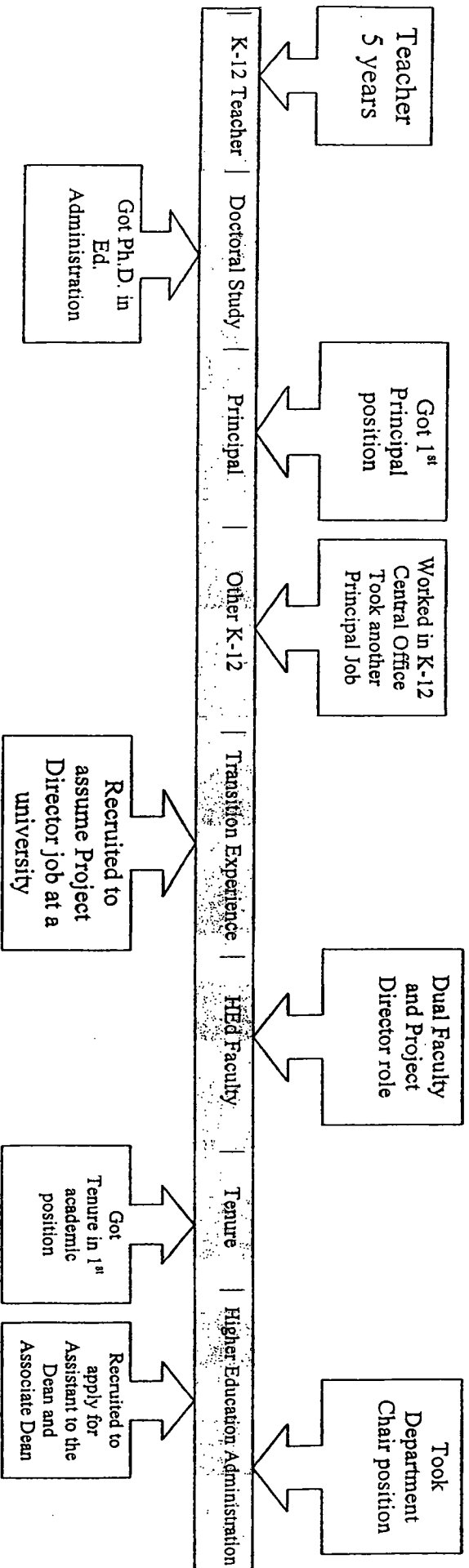
“Katie”

Department chair #2

Background in Education

Katie studied health and physical education as an undergraduate “before girls did such things.” She took her first teaching job in a public school district and taught there for 6 years before she “caught the eye” of a principal who wanted her to take on more responsibilities. She reminisced that this principal saw some “potential” in her and when she was teaching junior high school science and health, she also assumed more and more

Figure 4. Career Path of "Anita" Department Chair #1



administrative responsibilities. She became a principal while working on her Masters degree in Educational Administration and Supervision. As a principal for 7 years, Katie was supervised by a headmaster [superintendent] who micromanaged her and did not allow her to exercise her own authority in her position. That situation made Katie jaded and bitter and she decided that she was not interested in ever pursuing another principal position. When the situation with her superintendent escalated, Katie made a pivotal decision to go to back to graduate school and begin her doctorate.

Katie's Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

When Katie entered her doctoral program, she did not intend to study higher education administration. Her original area of interest was in outdoor education as it "brought together a lot of [her] personal interests and experiences." When she arrived at the university, the nationally recognized scholar with whom she had aspired to study had just left to go to another school. Katie did not want to start over as an educator because of her undergraduate degree, so she opted to study faculty professional development. She remarked lightheartedly that "it turned out that it became my passion and my dissertation topic." Katie found that the advice and direction of her doctoral advisor helped her to realize her potential as a faculty member in higher education. She recalled:

My doctoral advisor basically tricked me into team teaching a graduate class with him because I told him that I really didn't feel qualified to do it. I don't know why. So I started team teaching graduate classes with him and he suddenly started developing schedule conflicts and I was too dense to understand that he was trying to help me have a positive experience. How grateful I am to him today, but at the time I thought "Boy, he sure has a lot of excuses for not coming to class." I

look back at that with humor because I very much appreciate that I had the opportunity to develop a belief in my own experience. It definitely helped me understand that this was what I wanted to do.

Katie's first academic experience in higher education also helped her to make connections which would impact her throughout her career. She "joined forces" with another professor, who became her mentor. She recollected:

One summer, I was teaching an advanced teaching methods course and I talked about the characteristics of effective teaching. Every other sentence out of my mouth was about effective instruction and the class kept telling me about this one professor and how he was outstanding. According to them, he did everything I talked about. So I wanted to meet him and tell him that the students thought so highly of him because you don't get that kind of feedback in higher education very often. He asked if I could come watch him teach and tell him what he was doing wrong. I said no, but I could come and watch him teach and tell him what I saw. You're the only one who can really judge well, because of the content, what you're doing correctly and incorrectly. I videotaped his course for the whole semester and he and I became great friends.

Tenure. Katie did not have much to say about the tenure process. She successfully got tenure, but she found that gender and salary politics were much more evident in her higher education experience than in her K-12 experience. She noted, however, that the challenges she faced with gender and salary discrimination did not affect her bid for tenure.

Katie's Transition into Higher Education Administration

Through the course of their relationship, Katie revealed her vision for the university to her friend and mentor. She wanted to establish a Center for Teaching and Professional Development that provided resources and opportunities to its faculty members. She rationalized, "Our university had only modest funds available to go to a conference. I used to joke that it bought a ticket there, but not a ticket home. We also didn't have any ways of recognizing or rewarding good teaching." Katie and her mentor started a "brown bag lunch" to discuss teaching strategies and best practices.

After awhile, Katie considered leaving the university because she no longer believed that her job was a good match for her. Her mentor suggested to the provost without her knowledge that Katie start a professional development program at the university. The provost thought the idea was a good one and took the idea to Katie. She had no idea how or why she was chosen for the job. Very animatedly, she remembered:

It took me about a year to figure out that he had gone to the Provost and suggested that I start a professional development program. I didn't know that and he didn't want the credit; he just did it, but I owe it to him.

Because of the actions of her mentor, Katie began her fourth year in higher education as the Director of the Center for Faculty Development. After 14 years as the director of the center, she needed a change. She described herself as "pretty burned out" and she spoke with the provost about going back into teaching full-time. The provost, however, was "looking for some chairs." Katie decided that after having matured and learned a few things since her first principal position, she could "approach things differently than before" in supervision and administration.

She has had a positive experience with both her position and her dean, so she volunteered to do a 2-year term and then she could be re-elected for another 2-year term. She has been a department chair for 3 years in the Department of Education. She believes it takes at least 2 years in any position to learn everything and make lasting change. She observed, "It takes a full year to get a picture of it. It takes a second year to find out if you can do anything or not."

The Challenges of Transition

Hierarchy. One of the challenges that Katie encountered in her K-12 experience was with the superintendent of her school system. She mentioned that she felt hindered by him professionally and was obviously annoyed as she noted that, "He loved to give you responsibility without the authority and a lot of people were pretty frustrated with it." She remarked further that it was "very difficult to carry out that job" and this experience almost influenced her against a career in educational administration.

Burnout. Katie got tired of running the center after 14 years because turnover in upper-level administration made it difficult to function in that position. She was irritated when she remarked that the university went 1 ½ years without a provost and she reported directly to the provost, so it was very difficult for her to make any progress. She also said the university had a lot of turnover within its dean positions and the new deans that came in "weren't totally in sync with the goals of the program because new folks sometimes think that you've never done anything before they got there."

When asked to reflect on her experience, Katie was amazed by her decision to return to educational administration at all. She remarked that "there are days [she] can't believe [she] is a chair" because she had such a negative experience as a principal. In

hindsight, she now realizes that she did not have the freedom to do the job and she was “micromanaged without knowing it” and she lacked someone to help her recognize that fact.

Networking. Katie remarked that her experience with professional organizations helped her to network with others across the country and share information about their positions. She noted enthusiastically:

Some people had been chairs for a while, so we were able to go back and forth with discussion groups that got to the nature of the job. We were able to brainstorm and use the experience of others who were telling us how things could work, what not to do, how to do it, and how to adopt things to different settings.

Katie believes that if you start with your own content area and progress outward you will find people at other institutions that are going through similar experiences. “Sometimes it's good to talk to them and realize that your situation is not totally unique and that other people are having some of the same kinds of experiences. You can get a better perspective.”

When she entered higher education, Katie took time to get to know people across campus, as well. She found that making connections was an important strategy during her transition and it helped her to not only create professional networks for research and teaching, but also for support.

Climate and Culture Differences that Affected the K-12 to Higher Education Transition

Focus. Katie noted that there are differences within the culture of K-12 education, as the K-8 and 9-12 experiences are very distinctive. She reasoned that:

High school is a little bit closer to the climate of college, in that you tend to have a faculty who are content specialists and therefore tend to be more independent in their thinking. In K-8, you tend to have more grade level expertise and more people who are inclined to work in team situations. You don't have to create those team opportunities in K-8. It's more natural.

Katie also found that credentials were not as important in the culture of K-12 as they are in higher education. She offered this distinction:

Sometimes in private schools, you can get away with having the job before you get the credential. Not so much in public school, but I've even seen it happen in my career where they issue temporary certificates or licenses to people who are almost through with their program. That's if the school district endorses them.

She noted, however, that the Ph.D. was a necessary requirement for higher education and for any credibility in the field.

In her higher education experience, Katie found that she missed working with students. She just did not realize how much she would miss that and it took her "a full year to get over it." She recognized that her first year in higher education was difficult because her mind "was on the K-12 school calendar." She also found that in higher education, her contact with students was much less than in K-12. She did not like focusing on tasks over people and believed this to be one of the reasons she was unsuccessful in K-12. She found that as a K-12 administrator, she had to make task-oriented decisions, especially those which caused people to lose their jobs. She was very uncomfortable with this role at the time, but finds that she is much more comfortable with it than she used to be. She reflected:

I can see that sometimes it's a much larger picture than the individual person. It's the welfare of the students. In promotion and tenure decisions, you make a lifetime commitment. When you choose to continue someone, you are going to have them around for awhile and you have to make sure when giving tenure that you are choosing someone who is right for your institution and right for your students. Before, I couldn't see beyond the person. I think now, I can put that person into a larger context a lot more easily. It's a lot less painful to do it and I realize that it's the right thing to do. Before I would give three, four, five chances because I couldn't bring myself to the closure point.

Rewards. Katie highlighted that a major difference between K-12 and higher education is in the reward system. She noted that higher education is more oriented toward scholarship, whereas public schools are more focused on standardized test scores. She also found that higher education creates a different atmosphere for the faculty than in K-12 and it encourages you to "explore possibilities and see what you can do." She commented that in K-12 the focus was not on the faculty, but rather on the students and their levels of achievement.

Salary. Katie found the politics in higher education to be "nastier" than she thought they would be and that there are more games played. She first discovered this when she found out that she was not paid the same as the man who held the position before her. She overheard the Dean discussing the budget with someone and she commented that, "whenever he couldn't make something work, he would cut another thousand from my position." Eventually, someone asked why Katie was being paid approximately \$5,000 less than the man who held the position before her for doing the

same work. Several people went to the dean to plead her case and eventually she did get an equitable increase in pay. She laughingly remarked that the university was conducting a gender equity study at the time and she “came up as a blip” because she had gotten such a “dramatic increase versus everyone else that year.” She noted that the dean called her and said that he had received a call from Affirmative Action about her. Katie told him it was “about gender.” She commented that she thinks “the gender politics are terrible in higher education.” She further compared it to her K-12 experience noting that “it was more progressive than places [she’s] been to since then, in terms of gender equity. There were women administrators in those schools and there were Black administrators.” She also mentioned that her mentor told her when she first started in higher education that she should “observe the politics, but keep from getting embroiled in it.” She believed this advice helped her to understand the nature of higher education early in the transition. She commented that she “was aware of things to look for and maybe some land mines to avoid.” Katie’s career path is illustrated in Figure 5.

“Chris”

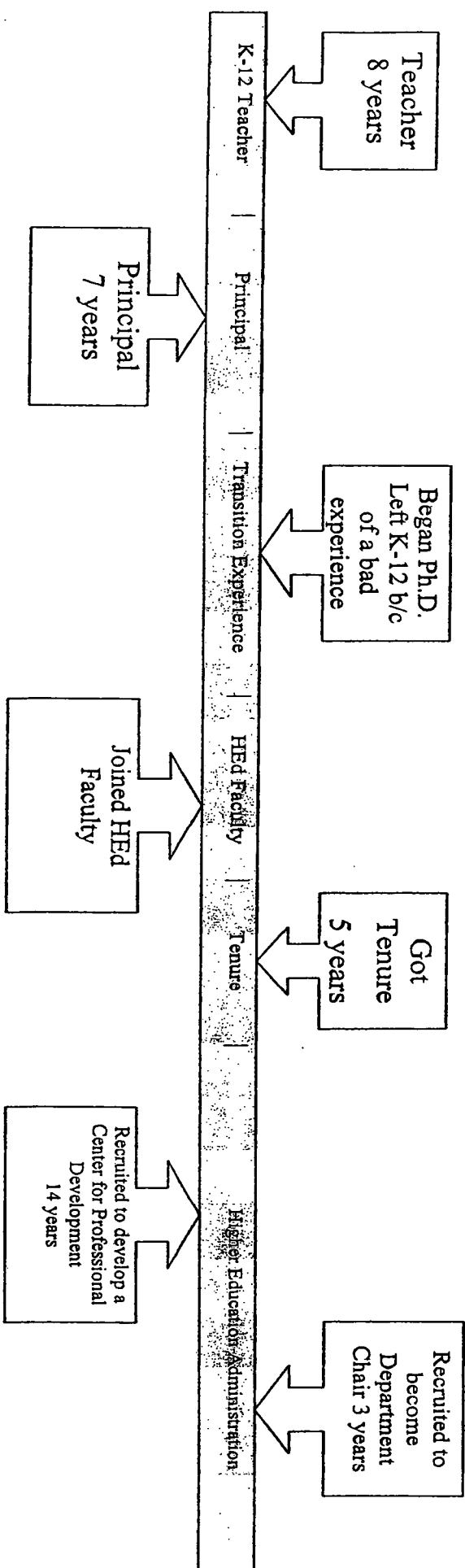
Director of a Center #1

Background in Education

Chris was both a classroom teacher and a gifted education specialist before she took an administrative position with a gifted education program within a public school system. She received her administrative certification and then she was asked to take a job as an assistant principal. She was later promoted to a principal position at a middle school.

Figure 5. Career Path of "Kaite" Department Chair #2

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After 3 years as a principal, Chris was recruited by a state agency to run a collaborative program involving 14 public school systems and four universities. She had that position for 2 years before she applied and received a national scholarship to complete her doctorate as a full-time student. After receiving her Ph.D., she accepted a post as an assistant professor at a major research university where she would have the most opportunities for K-12 and higher education collaboration, as this was her primary area of interest. Seven years later, she was hired as the director for a research center within the College of Education.

Chris's Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

Chris noted it was the idea of "working hand-in-hand" with school systems and being able to make a difference that prompted her to transition into higher education. She remarked:

I guess it was the transitional work I did between school systems and institutions of higher education because I really enjoyed that work and I've always been a big believer in the need for K-12 and higher ed. [sic] to do more things collaboratively. When I started out as a classroom teacher, especially when I was in gifted education, I tapped into our local university very heavily and did a lot of collaboration that way. The work of the institute that I run is to improve the quality of education and the quality of life for all citizens of our state. This position gives me great latitude to be out in the field and conduct action oriented research and find ways to integrate my research into practice.

Tenure. When asked about her experience with the tenure process, Chris did not have much to say. She did not experience any barriers to her success when seeking

tenure, but she mentioned that she has encountered more professional “jealousies” and feelings of competition in her higher education experience than she did in K-12.

Chris's Transition into Higher Education Administration

Chris's transition into higher education administration was prompted by the Interim Dean at the university, who was also the former director of the center Chris now runs. She courted Chris to come to the university and as soon as Chris arrived, she began working with the center evaluating programs. She remembered this experience fondly and noted that she “became very closely connected with the work of the institute in [her] very first semester” on campus. She later “filled in” as interim director of the center during her seventh year and she applied for the position when it became available. She remarked that when she was hired as the director, “it was kind of a natural fit to move into it” because she had been working closely with the center since her first day at the university.

The Challenges of Transition

Politics. Chris observed that the transition from K-12 to her position as the Director of Collaborative Programs “was a tougher transition for me in some ways than transitioning into higher education” because of the politics of dealing with many different K-12 schools and universities at the same time. She noted that she was used to working with school systems, but reflected that “anytime you're working with 14 schools, it's obviously much different than just working with one.” She emphatically stated the politics she had to navigate were “wild” and she found working with these different types of institutions in both K-12 and higher education challenging because of the politics involved. She commented that when she was working with the four institutions in higher

education, they were all very different. She worked with a state university, a major research university, a private 4-year college and a community college. She laughed and said that "the politics just among those four institutions were interesting."

Jealousy. Chris found that she encountered many professional jealousies when she accepted an administrative position in higher education. She noted that having been a faculty member first when she was offered the opportunity to be the director of the center, some of her colleagues were "just horrible" in displays of jealousy, sometimes in subtle ways. She found this to be very different from her K-12 experience and she felt that "for the most part" in K-12, people were happy for you when you were promoted. In higher education, however, Chris found that professional jealousy was displayed through snide comments, faulty comparisons of ability and experience, and an overall sense of competition. She noted disappointedly that these jealousies are "far more so than one would hope" and she mentioned that she has to "watch [her] back."

Salary. Chris commented that her current salary is "halfway decent" and it is comparable to the other directors at her university who are also female. She talked about her department and how the focus is "supposedly on fairly equal footing" in regard to salary. She mentioned, however, that the department heads are primarily male and they "make substantially more than the directors." She could not identify whether that was gender related, however, as she cited that those department heads have "been here a lot longer than most of us have, so it's hard to say, whether it's them being here longer or what." Ultimately, though, she revealed that the job responsibilities of both the department heads and the directors "are on the same tier."

Climate and Culture Differences that Affected the K-12 to Higher Education Transition

Time. In general, Chris found that the differences between K-12 and higher education revealed themselves in small ways, like the time she would arrive for work. She recalled, "I would be there at 7:00 a.m. and no one else would show up until 10 a.m. because I was so used to my K-12 administration background."

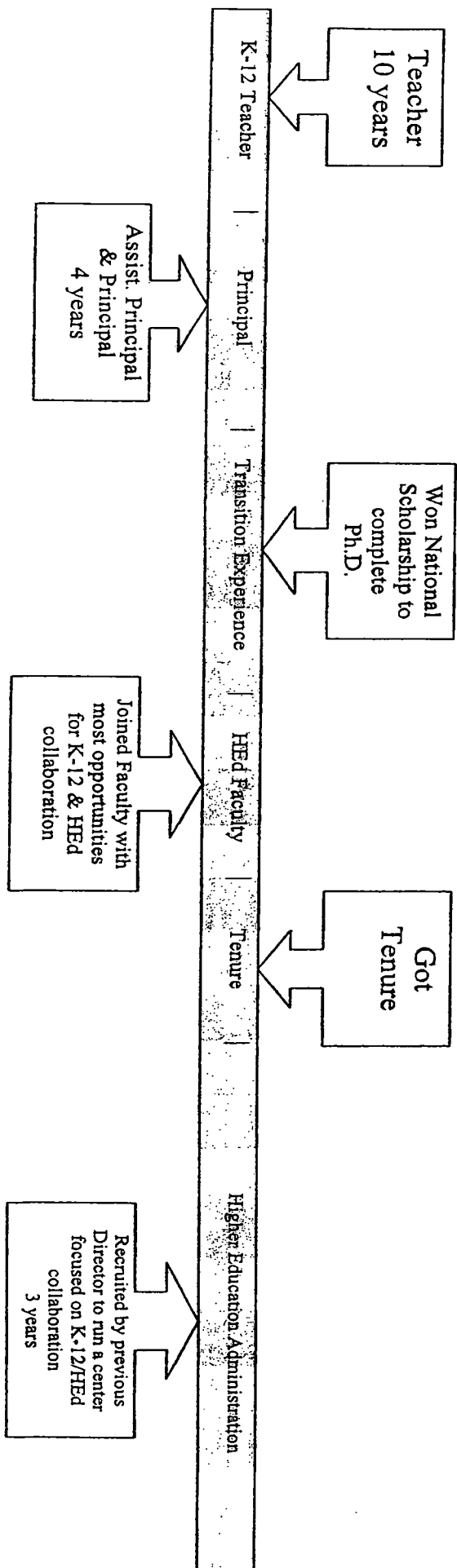
Budget and politics. She found that both K-12 and higher education emphasize budget issues, policy changes and have "political undercurrents." She noted the differences in how budgets are set and money is obtained noting that her center is not run on any university funds, but it relies heavily "on grants and contracts." She remarked that this creates a "different emphasis in the culture that way, in that you're more entrepreneurial in keeping the center afloat." Chris also found that the speed with which change occurs is vastly different in higher education. She remarked that the culture of K-12 is "more outcomes oriented" and "crisis-driven" than higher education and she cited one experience in particular that made her realize the difference:

When we were first establishing a memorandum of the agreement between the presidents of the four institutions of higher education, the major research university wanted to go through different lawyers and that was a real eye-opener for me -- just how long things took to get through higher ed. [sic] compared to the K-12 mentality that "we need it done yesterday."

Chris's career path is illustrated in Figure 6.

Figure 6. Career Path of "Chris" Director of a Center #1

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“Tara”

Director of a Center #2

Background in Education

Tara received her undergraduate degree in special education. She worked as both a teacher and a principal in public schools for 5 years before she taught an introductory course for a semester at a public university, where she supervised student teachers. She enjoyed the experience and decided to spend a year teaching full-time as a visiting instructor at the university before leaving to pursue her doctorate.

Tara's Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

After Tara finished her doctorate, she returned to teaching special education at another large public university, but she found that she wanted more. She reflected:

I was there for 6 years, got tenure, and said this isn't it. I ran a nonprofit for a year that worked with families where children were identified with hearing loss and we provided resources and information. I also did K-12 advocacy in schools, but that did not turn out as I thought it would. A position opened up at a university close to my hometown at the same time I was looking for something else and I've been here for the last 9 years.

Tara said she decided to transition into higher education because she needed some time off to have a child. She was frustrated that her transition from K-12 into higher education was “more difficult” than her experience working with students “with significant disabilities.” She attributed that to the “system” and the politics. She was happy to find that the university had a “broader focus on education” than what she was used to in K-12 and she found that she had more freedom in higher education. In K-12,

she was working with a specific group of students all day and she remarked that “it was like you were constantly re-creating the wheel.” With regard to her experience in higher education, Tara has “much more diversity” in her day and she noted that it “keeps [her] going” because it is never the same.

Tenure. Tara described the tenure process as “bizarre.” She did not mention any challenges that she had personally with the process, but she apprehensively noted, “It’s just clear that it’s not the same for everybody.” She said she had been in departments that genuinely wanted people to succeed and were upfront about the expectations. She commented further that she does not want the tenure process to change or be taken away “because being on the other side of it, I have a fairness jag.” At her University, the entire tenured faculty votes in the tenure process. She observed, however, that “some departments have different standards than others and it depends.”

Tara also mentioned that at her university it is “very clear between the tenured and the untenured.” She noted that untenured faculty cannot vote and there are other things in which they are not able to participate, but she casually highlighted that she was untenured when she spent a summer as the department chair in the Department of Special Education.

Tara’s Transition into Higher Education Administration

When asked about her administrative experience, Tara realized that she had been recruited for every administrative position that she has held in education. She said she does “cleanup jobs” and all of her administrative experiences in K-12 and higher education administration required some “clean up.” She was asked by the dean to serve as the department chair for one summer and she was also asked by the dean to serve as

the Director of the Reading Center and refocus that program. She noted that “for whatever reason, the Dean thought I could do it.”

The Challenges of Transition

Jealousy. Tara found that when she transitioned between K-12 and higher education, some of her K-12 colleagues “felt like [sic] [she] had gone over to the other side -- jumped ship.” She noted that she felt sad about being made to feel as though she was a deserter and the whole thing seemed somewhat ridiculous. Tara also mentioned that she encountered “battles” over gender and age that she said she did her “best to ignore.”

Age. Some of the challenges Tara encountered during her transition into higher education were due to her age. She described herself as “much the youngster” when she arrived, as she was only 28 years old. She marveled on the diversity of age in her department when she started at the university:

There were definitely a whole lot of my colleagues that had 10 years on me. I was accepted because I got the doctorate right away, but for many years I was the youngster in the crowd. It never played out in a political way because I always looked old. I had gray hair and most of them did not know what my age was, but I know I got away with something there. There was a real diversity of age. I remember walking into my first faculty meeting and there was a woman who said she had 386 more days to retirement. That was my first day.

Climate and Culture Differences that Affected the K-12 to Higher Education Transition

Hierarchy. Tara finds that as an administrator, she “jumps” when the dean calls. “It’s the expectation.” She said that in general the faculty does not have that same

expectation because “the chair does not have as much power.” She noted that chairs can ask for things, but they do not have the power to enforce anything. Tara commented that the expectations as a faculty member are to do your research, teach your classes, and “go on your merry way.” She noted that no one questions you “unless there is a problem and even if there is, it can be quite large before it is dealt with.” If a meeting is called and you will be out of town, Tara remarked that “most people don't say anything;” if you are an administrator, however and the dean calls a meeting, “you better make other plans” to be present.

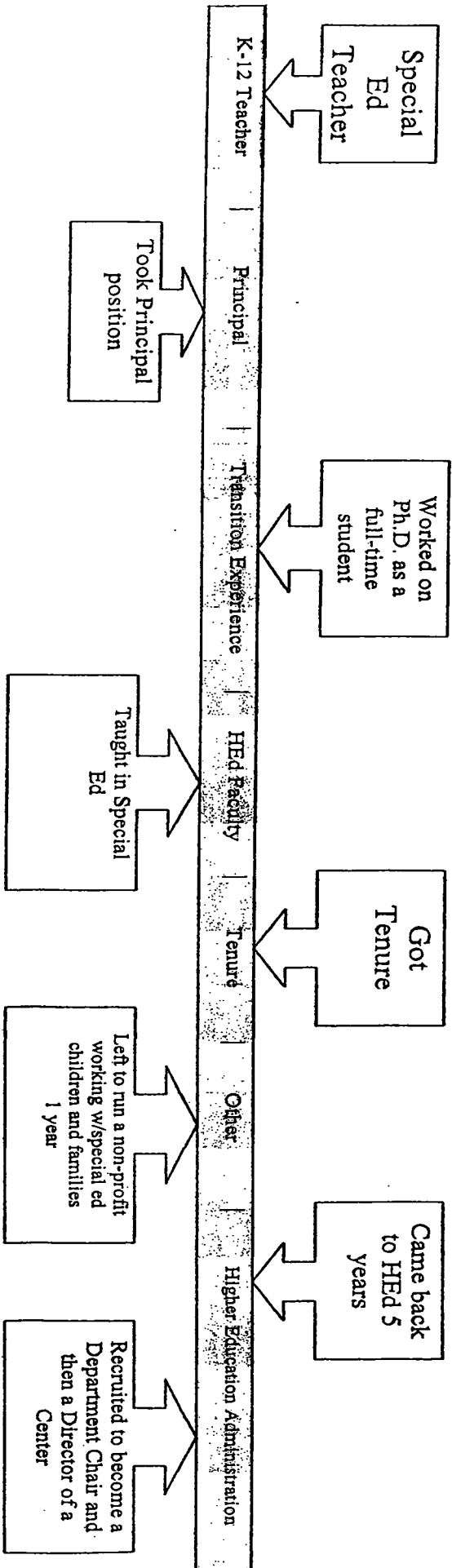
Collaboration. Tara had an interesting example of how the culture of K-12 differs from higher education. She said she thinks the “example is indicative and its food related.” She shared lightheartedly:

In K-12, there were things like “Friday morning Doughnut Club.” There was an aura around food. There was also a whole different level of collaboration that went on and it doesn't here. People did things that were really collaborative within the classroom and a certain amount of it was social. People ate lunch together and those kinds of things created an atmosphere of camaraderie. I have noticed things are quite different at the university. There's no “Friday morning Doughnut Club.” There are periodically groups that go to lunch together and individuals that do things socially, but there's no large social planning. The department has a Christmas dinner, but not everybody shows up. There's not that sort of communication. People might have little project groups, but there's not the larger atmosphere of collegiality.

Tara's career path is illustrated in Figure 7.

Figure 7. Career Path of "Tara" Director of a Center #2

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"Nicole"

Vice president

Background in Education

Nicole said that her experience in education is "really colored by the fact [she is] a religious sister." She is a member of the sponsoring congregation of several K-12 schools and a baccalaureate college, so she has "a whole system and a network that [she] grew up with, literally, that enabled [her] to move from one level to another." She taught at both a Catholic high school and a parish elementary school and got involved in administration early in her experience. When she was 25 years old, she was asked to be the Dean of Girls at a large Catholic high school, and she eventually chose to pursue the principal position. Altogether Nicole spent 15 years in K-12 parochial education, 10 of which were in administration. She believed herself to be "in line" to become the principal of a Catholic high school, but the job was given to a priest. This event still upsets her years later, and she remarked cynically that "it was very political." She wanted to stay in high school administration, so she began interviewing for other principal positions.

Nicole's Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

Nicole's status as a sister and as an alumna of the college influenced her transition between K-12 and higher education. When she was denied the principal position at the high school, one of the sisters from her community, who was also a college president, approached her about a position at a small Catholic liberal arts college. Nicole accepted and became the associate dean of a flexible baccalaureate degree program for adults. She described the transition between K-12 and higher education to be "really easy" because she moved into a college that was sponsored by her congregation

where she knew sisters who worked there already and she was an alumna of the college. She recollected, "It was a coming home." Nicole found that things had changed significantly since she went to school there. She reminisced cheerfully:

It was a sister formation college back in the 50s. Sisters were encouraged to be adequately prepared for their teaching positions, so different religious orders took it upon themselves to start colleges that were only for women in the convent. That was back in the heyday -- lots of vocations -- lots of women in formation programs. My college was actually a junior-college at the time when I was a student there. I was with other young women who also wanted to be sisters. In the time since I've left and returned, it has gone baccalaureate and opened its doors to any student, male and female. It is a very different institution.

Although Nicole enjoyed the position as associate dean, she wanted to work on her doctorate. She went back to school full-time at a large Catholic university and when she began working on her dissertation, she found a position as an assistant to the president. After completing her doctoral work, she returned to the same private Catholic liberal arts college where she had previously worked and was promoted to a vice president of student services position.

Tenure. Nicole did not have to go through the tenure process to get her administrative positions because most of the positions she has held have been outside of the academic realm. She has worked more with the departments of Student Services and Enrollment. In her current position, Nicole takes care of Academic Services for students, Academic Advising, the Career Center, and the Tutoring Center. She also helps faculty

with assessment and coordinates a center. She feels "fortunate" that she did not have to go through the process to get her positions in administration. She commented that faculty:

Are asked to serve on committees that are not the best, do a lot of service, and be really great teachers and a lot of the time they don't have any mentoring help. We don't establish the kind of mentoring relationships there should be for faculty and their teaching role and then we expect them to find the time to do research, when they're dealing with all these other responsibilities. It's a lot of pressure on the person and especially for the women I see who have young children or are pregnant during the whole process. It's very difficult to lead a balanced life.

The Challenges of Transition

Credentials. Although Nicole found the transition "natural" and "easy," she was challenged when she first entered higher education, mostly because she did not feel credentialed for the position she held. Nicole did not have a Ph.D. and describes herself as feeling "very insecure about that." She remarked that it does make a difference and when she returned to the university with the degree, she felt she had "some stature." She disappointedly noted that the process is "pretty snobbish" in some ways and she has found that faculty "look down on administrators. They don't see them as their intellectual equals." Nicole said before she got her Ph.D. she would "occasionally get the feeling from faculty that [I] didn't quite know what was going on, but it wasn't so much directed toward me as much as what I observed being directed at other people who were not sisters." After she got her Ph.D., she noticed that it helped her in her work with other faculty. She noted that when choosing a graduate program she "made sure that I would get a degree that let me have Ph.D. behind my name. I think that carries a lot of clout, at

least around this university.” She did notice that credentials were not as “important” in K-12 “because a lot of people don't have Ph.D.'s.”

Climate and Culture Differences that Affected the K-12 to Higher Education Transition

Hierarchy. Nicole was aware that higher education was a much different culture than K-12, but she noted that she “wasn't always sure of what the differences were” and it took her a little while to “figure out that there were different rules.” In her K-12 experience, people were seen as “equals.” She remarked that everyone was invited to the parties: the faculty, the secretaries, and the maintenance staff. She also said that everyone went to the football games and sat together. She stated, “It didn't matter who you were or what your job title was.” When solving problems in K-12, they would have meetings and everyone would have “something to contribute.” She pointed out:

There was much more a feeling of camaraderie and that we were all contributors in a different way. Everybody had their own gifts. Everyone was essential to making a go of it. We were socialized as equals and titles weren't so important.

Nicole has not found this to be the case in higher education because “the faculty has a privileged role and it's a whole political game of how you get things done.” She noted that this was a challenge for her because she “didn't have a heightened political awareness of who you bring to the table and how you finesse things. You get faculty on your side when you have a proposal and want to see something changed.”

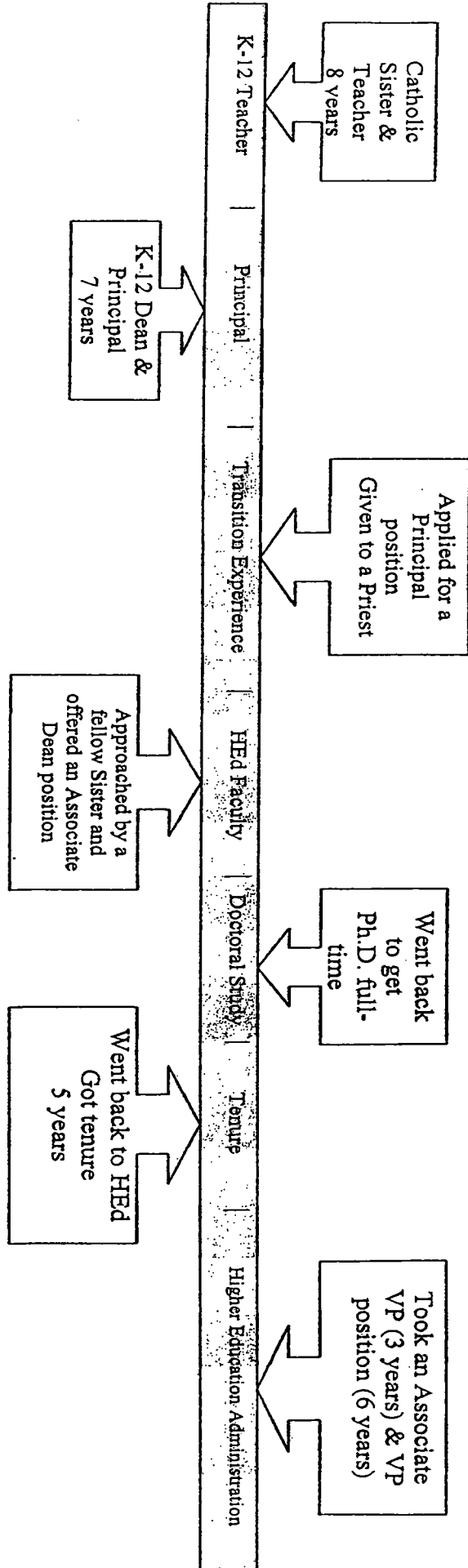
She remarked that the class system in higher education is much more evident than in K-12. Nicole alleged that faculty “feels they are the center of life in higher education and they know more than anybody else and therefore they deserve more respect than anybody else.” She said she does know some faculty who “are not like that,” but she has

often witnessed this kind of behavior with secretaries and the “behind the scenes maintenance folks.” She has also found that faculty express an “antagonism toward administrators” because of academic freedom and very often administrators have little power.

Nicole recognizes though, that her experience has been different from that of others because she is a sister. She expressed lightheartedly that her status as a sister “always brings a little aura” to things and because the college is also sponsored by her congregation, “being a member of the sponsoring community gave me an added respectability.” Nicole’s career path is illustrated in Figure 8.

Figure 8. Career Path of "Nicole" Vice President

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CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

Summary of the Study

Statement of the Problem

This study was conducted to determine how and why women made a career transition between the K-12 and higher education climates and cultures and how they interpreted this lived experience. Inconsistent reports about women's ability to succeed (D. J. Johnson, 2001; Skrla et al., 2000), the limited number of women in positions of educational leadership (Gerdes, 2003; McCabe, 2001; National Center for Education Statistics Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, 2001), and the institutional and personal barriers (K. M. Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Riehl & Byrd, 1997) to their success made it necessary to examine how women who advance in education survive and succeed. Because of the limited mobility women often face within one level of education, it is a noteworthy achievement if they are able to transition from an administration position in one educational climate and culture, succeed as an academic, be promoted, and assume an administrative position at another. By identifying the women in educational administration who made a career transition between K-12 and higher education, the similarities and differences between their experiences in both educational cultures could be noted and underscored.

Research Procedures

The participants in this study were women who were once K-12 administrators who transitioned into higher education and eventually sought administrative positions. Snowball sampling was used in this study because women who met the criteria of the study could only be identified by others in the field who knew of their administrative experiences. Because this study attempted to capture each woman's lived experience, a qualitative approach utilizing standardized open-ended interviews, demographic questionnaires, and leadership assessments was conducted. This study required extensive conversation and clarification with each participant and that is why interviews were selected as the primary method of data collection. Low-inference descriptors and reflexivity ensured that internal validity was achieved, as many direct quotations were used to describe each participant's account.

Data were analyzed using a phenomenological, collective case study approach, which relied on each subject's "lived experience" to describe the phenomenon of transition, but also compared several cases concurrently to gain an in-depth understanding of the nature of transition (B. Johnson & Christensen, 2004; Van Manen, 1990). A phenomenological approach was used in collecting the "lived experience" of each participant, but the collective case study approach is evident in the collection of multiple data (i.e., interviews, demographic questionnaires, and leadership assessments), as well as in the search for themes in a cross-case analysis method (B. Johnson & Christensen).

In discovering how these women transitioned from one educational climate and culture to another and how they interpreted that lived experience, this study probed for the reasons why each woman chose to transition from K-12 to higher education, how they moved into higher education administration, the challenges they encountered during their transition from K-12 to higher education, and the differences they noted between the climate and culture of both educational environments. Each woman's reason for transitioning and the challenges she faced are illustrated in Table 4.

Conclusions and Implications

Research Question 1: Why did these women transition from K-12 administration to higher education administration?

Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

The reasons each woman decided to transition from K-12 to higher education were varied, but several of them shared parallel experiences which led them from one educational environment to the other.

Socialization in higher education. Julie, Brenda, Carrie, and Katie transitioned from K-12 administration to higher education administration because they had begun working on doctoral degrees and after completing their degree program, they chose to move into faculty positions in higher education. Their previous experience as doctoral students socialized them into a culture very different from their K-12 environment. They found that the culture of higher education strongly emphasized researching and publishing that was extremely different from their K-12 experience. They also found a high need to be self-motivated in the higher education environment because time was always scarce. The doctoral experiences of Julie, Brenda, Carrie, and Katie provided a

natural transition from their K-12 experience to this new world of higher education. It seemed that it was easier for them to become members of the faculty in higher education after completing their doctorates, than it was to go back to the drastically different culture of K-12. Tara chose to apply for a position within higher education because she enjoyed her experience as a visiting professor; however, she also chose to make this transition after she had studied as a doctoral student and received her Ph.D. Her familiarity with the culture as a student, coupled with her experience as a visiting professor, provided her a natural transition into the field of academe.

Fit. The socialization they experienced as doctoral students not only served as a way into higher education, but it also made one of the women feel like an outsider in her field of K-12 education administration. After receiving her Ph.D., Carrie found that she no longer “fit” in the culture of K-12 and chose to go back into higher education as a faculty member. She cited reasons like “growing away” from K-12, the inability to “fit back in” and the lack of research orientation as just a few of the reasons why she no longer felt comfortable in the K-12 environment.

Connections. Another reason that several of the women chose to transition from K-12 to higher education was because of connections they had made and the career opportunities those connections made available to them. Nicole was denied a promotion in K-12, but through her connections she was offered a position in higher education. She went from an elementary school principal to an associate dean. Using her connections, Chris was recruited to apply for a position working collaboratively with universities and K-12 school systems. This position not only allowed her to utilize her K-12 experience, but it was also a job which fit well with her personal and professional research interests.

Table 4

Participant Experiences during their Transition from K-12 to Higher Education

Participant	Why did they	How did they	Challenges they encountered during	Differences noted between the
	transition?	get into Higher Education	transition	Climate/Culture of K-12 and Higher Education
Administration?				
Julie	Ph.D.	Applied	Networking	Research
Brenda	Ph.D.	Connections	Leadership	Hierarchy
Carrie	Ph.D.	Connections	Leadership	Mentors
				Sexism
				Hierarchy
				Focus
				Networking
	Didn't Fit			
Anita	Connections	Connections	Networking	Salary
Katie	Ph.D.	Connections	Networking	Hierarchy
				Salary
				Focus
				Rewards
Chris	Connections	Connections	Politics	Jealousy
				Salary
				Politics
				Time
				Budget
Tara	Applied	Connections	Age	Jealousy
				Hierarchy
				Collaboration
Nicole	Connections	Connections	Credentials	Hierarchy

(table continues)

Coding for Transition

Ph.D. = Study for the Doctorate led to an interest in higher education

Didn't Fit = Ph.D. made transition back to K-12 difficult

Connections = Connections led to a position

Applied = Applied for position without any connections

Coding for Challenges/Differences between Climate/Culture

Age = Issues involving age discrimination

Budget = Differences in how budgets are set and/or how money is raised

Burnout = Challenge faced because of job demands, pressure, and responsibilities

Collaboration = Differences in how collaboration is approached between K-12 and higher education

Credentials = Lack of the proper credential or degree for the job

Focus = Institutional or educational focus (i.e. research, pedagogy, etc.)

Hierarchy = Differences in the way things are structured, the chain of command, expectations, direction, roles, and authority

Jealousy = Professional and personal jealousies due to promotion and/or transition

Leadership Style = Changes or adaptations in leadership style

Mentors = Challenges faced without mentorship

Networking = Establishing strong connections to assist both personally and professionally

Politics = Political issues, barriers, and issues involving power

Research = Finding the time to read, write, and publish

Rewards = Intrinsic and extrinsic benefits and/or rewards, including issues of salary and merit pay

Salary = Differences in pay based on issues of gender, tenure, and merit

Setting = Type of institution (i.e. public, private, parochial)

Sexism = Gender discrimination and paternalism

Time = Issues involving the way the day is structured, flexibility, and autonomy.

Anita was the only participant who seemed to have little difficulty transitioning from her full-time doctoral work back to the K-12 environment. She only chose to transition into higher education because she was invited to do so and it happened to be a position that was not only interesting to her, but it also fit into her field of doctoral research.

Transition from Higher Education Faculty to Administration

Every woman in this study but one chose to transition from faculty status in higher education to an administrative position because of connections they had made. Only Julie chose to apply for an administrative position without prodding. Interestingly, however, none of these women were advised to apply by a "mentor," but rather by various members of university committees, Executive Councils, doctoral advisors, state agencies, and members of their sponsoring congregation, some of whom these women did not know well. The individuals that recommended them were not necessarily close friends or acquaintances of the women in this study, making it difficult to determine exactly how and why they were selected and urged to apply.

Discussion of transition. The women who chose to transition after completing their doctorates, especially Carrie who determined that she no longer "fit" into the K-12 culture confirms previous findings which argued that transition occurs due to desire for growth and opportunities (Oplatka, 2001; Ruhl-Smith et al., 1999), job dissatisfaction (Hackney, 1998; Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999), increased entry to doctoral programs (Shakeshaft, 1989b) and career direction changes (Kaplan & Helly, 1983; Marshall, 1985). Nicole's experience of being "passed over" for a promotion, which was ultimately given to a man, illustrates the notion that women tend to comprise the lower levels of

educational administration and fail to penetrate the glass ceiling (Duncan & Rathmel, 1995; Mertz, 2002). The three women in the study who were recruited for their positions in higher education, Nicole, Chris, and Anita, corroborate Young and McLeod's (2001) idea that job mobility for women in education is impacted most by administrative role models and personal and professional support. Only Tara chose to apply for a position in higher education without being recruited or having a bad experience in her K-12 environment. Tara's reasons for transition illustrate Kaplan and Helly's (1983) argument that careers have direction and usually climb a ladder.

The fact that the majority of the women in this study found their transition to be relatively easy and natural could be largely due to their previous experiences with the culture of higher education as graduate students. The anticipatory socialization they experienced as graduate students may have eased their transition into the culture of higher education as faculty members (Weidman, Twale, & Stein, 2001). In addition, the experience each woman had in graduate school with the emphasis on scholarly production (Long et al., 1993; Whicker et al., 1993), collegiality (Bennett, 1998; Hellawell & Hancock, 2001), the differences between individual departments and expectations (B. R. Clark, 1987; Lee, 2004), and participatory leadership (Kezar, 2001) may be some of the reasons why the women found their transition "easy" and "natural." They already knew what type of environment they were entering and it was not a complete mystery to them.

Sewall and Smith's (1999) findings seem to be refuted in this study. They argued that varying requirements of leadership skill and ability between and among the different positions in educational administration may be a reason women do not transition between

the two educational environments. The women in this study found their K-12 administrative experiences very helpful to their positions in higher education. Both Carrie and Brenda specifically mentioned that the best training they received for their positions as a dean was their previous experience as a principal. They cited specific examples and noted that as a dean they often used the same administrative experiences, they just had different concerns (i.e., substitute teachers). The women also commented that the skills needed to supervise faculty in K-12 and higher education were often very similar. These similarities are not surprising, as both positions are critical to the academic organization and are responsible for allocating resources, controlling information, assessing staff performance, and serving as a central administrator between the faculty and higher levels of administration (Lucas & Valentine, 2002; K. M. Moore et al., 1983; Rosser, 2001).

Implications of transition. Because half of the women chose to transition from K-12 to higher education because of advanced study at the doctoral level it seems relevant that further research be done on women in education seeking terminal degrees and their career aspirations. The participants of this study were women who began in K-12 and chose to study for a degree that was not mandatory to their success in K-12 administration. After obtaining it, however, some found they no longer “fit” in their K-12 environment. The reasons they cited regarding “fit” included a change of focus to scholarly pursuits, acclimation to the culture of higher education, lack of time for research and reflection, and the freedom and ability to explore possibilities in their own research interests. In addition to further study on women seeking terminal degrees, the power and influence of recruitment also played a role with the participants of this study and the reasons for their transition into both higher education and higher education

administration. Further research should be conducted on recruitment and its effect on female administrators at both the K-12 and higher education levels. Are women targeted for future administrative roles because of their demonstrated ability and/or training in leadership? Does the mere fact that these women are approached about the opportunity inspire them to apply for positions they may not have otherwise aspired to achieve?

All of the women studied were recruited for administrative positions at least once during the course of their careers. In addition, they all spoke of networks and connections which afforded them opportunities and helped them to overcome barriers to their advancement. Every woman in this study, with the exception of Julie, was recruited for an administrative position in higher education. The power of these professional connections and their influence on the job mobility of women in education are areas in need of further study, as they could not be fully addressed here due to the study's concentration on the transition experience. The collegial support the participants experienced directly refutes the findings of Harris et al. (2002) which noted that women lack mentorship and opportunities which support their professional advancement. The participants of this study may have had different experiences with mentorship, but all of them except one received support and opportunities which advanced their careers. This support did not necessarily come from a "mentor," but often from an acquaintance or a peer. Because the majority of women in this study benefited from professional connections, it seems relevant that further research be conducted to find out if other women in educational administration at both the K-12 and higher education levels have similar experiences. Professional opportunities and connections may be critical to the

advancement of women in the field of educational administration and only further research will verify that contention.

Research Question 2: How did these women describe their transition from one educational climate and culture to another?

The majority of the women in this study perceived their transition from the K-12 environment to the higher education environment to be easy and natural. The reasons they cited for this were: connections, experiences in graduate study (e.g., assistantships, researching, and publishing), research orientation and interests, and mentorship.

Each woman did encounter challenges during her transition from K-12 to higher education and some of those included differences between the culture and climate of K-12 and higher education; gender, age, and salary discrimination; leadership styles; lack of training; jealousies; tenure; professional credibility; and mentorship.

Gender, Salary, and Age Discrimination

Brenda and Carrie both experienced gender discrimination during their careers in both K-12 and higher education administration. Carrie noticed a definite predisposition toward a male and his experience during a university search for a professor of education; and that sexism was on the part of a female dean. Brenda and Carrie experienced sexism at some point in their administrative careers in higher education and this manifested in challenges such as, condescension, being accused of not being a team player, having male students "report" on what was being taught in their classes, overt and oppressive silence by men during meetings, being addressed "differently" than their male colleagues, and experiencing paternalism by their appointed mentors. In addition to Brenda and Carrie's experiences, Anita and Nicole also mentioned that educational administration is male-

dominated at both the K-12 and higher education levels. Carrie noted that she experienced blatant sexism in meetings and when she attempted to speak her mind.

Katie was paid substantially less than the man who held the job before she did and Tara encountered challenges based on her age when she first entered higher education at 28 years of age. She found that although she looked older because she had gray hair, there were definitely barriers associated with her age and gender that she tried to ignore. She never went into detail about what those barriers were, but she noted that despite some incidents with jealousy, feeling ostracized, and believing that she “got away with something” because of her age, these experiences never worked against her in a political way or in the tenure process.

Discussion of gender, salary, and age discrimination. Carrie’s experience with sexism, especially on the part of her female dean, confirms the findings of several studies which argued that stereotypes still exist about male occupations and leadership and substantiates the notion that women may need to possess superior credentials in order to compete for positions with men (Kowalski & Stouder, 1999). Carrie’s exclusion from the table at male-dominated meetings reinforces the notion that this exclusion is a primary barrier to women and their mobility (J. E. Coleman, 1998). Brenda experienced blows to her professional identity when she needed to be the one to initiate handshakes with her male colleagues. Her experience demonstrates that women’s professional identity in leadership positions is still very much a challenge of transition. Benson (1998) noted that women struggle to maintain their professional identity when they are addressed differently by their male colleagues (e.g., “sweetie, dear, Mrs., and young lady” while males are referred to as “Dr.”; p. 22).

Being silenced in meetings by the men at the table has been noted as another barrier to the success of female administrators. H. J. Robertson (1992) observed that women often fail to speak up and have trouble dealing with interruptions by males in the group. Duncan (1995) pointed out that a woman's expertise cannot be noted if it is not shared and the current socialization practices for women contribute to their lack of comfort in administrative positions and settings. In addition, the experiences both Brenda and Carrie faced with sexism during their transition and entry into administration also confirms the findings of Williamson and Hudson (2001) who concluded that women experience both subtle and blatant discrimination upon entry to educational administration.

None of the women in this study chose to pursue the superintendency at any point during their careers. This seems to confirm the findings of previous studies which argued that despite the increasing number of women who pursue doctoral degrees in educational leadership, the number of women who pursue the superintendency is low (Ortiz & Marshall, 1988; Shakeshaft, 1989b). None of the women in this study spoke of interest in the superintendency or applying for the position. Only Julie pursued a superintendent certificate, but she also obtained this certificate while concurrently pursuing her doctoral degree. She was also the only woman in this study who had experience as a high school principal and previous studies have noted that school boards typically hire superintendents who have had that experience (Logan, 1998; Marietti & Stout, 1994). That may have been a reason she initially pursued the certification, but she never elaborated on this topic during the interview. It may not have occurred to other women in

this study to pursue the superintendency, as their experiences in both the K-12 environment and their doctoral research helped to shift their professional focus.

The professional interests of Julie, Brenda, Carrie, and Katie changed after their doctoral experience and they found they wanted to research and publish in an environment that supported them. Tara found that teaching in higher education prompted her desire to transition. Nicole was denied a promotion in K-12 and left feeling betrayed and resentful. Chris was recruited to work in a collaborative way with both K-12 and higher education, serving both her research and professional interests; and Anita was also invited into a position in higher education which served her both personally and professionally. These experiences and opportunities, coupled with their lack of high school principal experience, may have influenced their decision not to pursue a superintendent position within K-12. They may have also decided against the superintendent position as it is one fraught with uncertainties for professional and personal success and is especially impacted by gender.

Katie's experience with salary discrimination and Tara's challenge with age confirms that there are indeed internal barriers to the successful transition of women in educational administration (Shepard, 1999; Shultz & Easter, 1997), as well as gender issues affecting their ability to be successful professionally (Harris et al., 2002). Gender discrimination, according to the National Center for Education Statistics (1999b) is the only logical explanation for why women earn an average of \$5,000 less than men in similar positions. This is the exact amount of wage disparity that Katie encountered in her higher education experience.

Implications of gender, salary, and age discrimination. It would seem that “gender is salient” in the transition experiences of these women from K-12 to higher education (Riehl & Byrd, 1997, p. 46). Their experiences with gender, salary, and age discrimination show that not much has changed in educational leadership in the last 20 years. It is still a male-dominated field, if not by the number of male educational administrators in the field, at least by a culture which upholds expectations of behavior and leadership based on stereotypes (Haring-Hidore et al., 1990). It would be interesting to see if women at all levels of educational leadership still encounter instances of gender, salary, and age discrimination at some point during their careers. Despite the growing number of women in the field of educational administration, the culture does not provide for female leadership and role expectations, especially at the higher levels of educational administration. A quantitative study which examines a number of women in administrative positions at both the K-12 and higher education levels may yield further information on the current culture of educational administration and how far it has progressed in terms of the acceptance, credibility, and role expectations of women in the field.

There may be no one “reason” why these women chose not to pursue the superintendency, however given that less than 30% of all superintendents in the US are women (Mertz, 2002), it would behoove the field of education to find out why more women do not pursue this career objective. Further interest warrants study to determine why women depart K-12 environments in lieu of seeking the superintendency and also how widespread this might be. A qualitative study on why women choose to pursue or not to pursue the position may yield valuable information on what can be done to

encourage and support those who desire the job. In addition, an updated study on which K-12 schools yield the most superintendents would be helpful to determine if the high school principalship is still seen as a path toward the superintendency (Logan, 1998).

Leadership Style

Several women spoke of how their leadership style did not change much during their transition between K-12 and higher education. Brenda noted that her style was not as successful in the culture of higher education as it had been in K-12 and she had to adapt, especially in supervision. Carrie pointed out that women must lead differently because if they continue to lead the same way men have led, then it does not matter if they obtain positions of power.

The Gianmettao Leadership Behavior exercise showed that all of the women in this study scored higher on the people orientation than task orientation. This would indicate that relationships and a concern for morale are more important to these women than bureaucratic tasks and paperwork. The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) results indicated that the majority of the women shared preferences of Extroverted, Intuitive, Feeling, and Judging (ENFJ). ENFJ types tend to make decisions based on their personal values (Myers, 1998). They tend to seek harmony and are accepting of others (Myers). They also have a tendency to assess the impact their decisions will have on others and take a personal approach in their relationships at work (Myers). Their complete results are illustrated in Table 3 in chapter 3.

Female leadership identity and style is often constructed in response to the organization and its expectations (Tedrow & Rhoads, 1998). Because this leadership style is so important to the dynamics of the school (Harris et al., 2002) and because effective

school leaders tend to be more empowering, open, and relational in their supervision (Haar, 2002), it seemed relevant that the leadership style of these women be addressed, especially in light of the barriers to successful female administrator transition. These barriers include structural and personal barriers such as personnel policies, interpersonal issues, mentorship, and aspiration (Benson, 1998; Rader, 1979; Shakeshaft, 1987).

Discussion of leadership style. The women who noted that their leadership styles did not change much during their transition also remarked on the importance of relationships (Belenky et al., 1997), leading from their own values and beliefs (Haar, 2002), concerns with teaching and learning (Shakeshaft, 1989b), encouragement of a cooperative environment and not a competitive one (Gates & Siskin, 2002), and the importance of communication (Fishel & Pottker, 1975). Carrie's point about the differences in female leadership supports the findings of many previous studies which indicate that women lead differently. Shakeshaft et al. (1991) concluded that women focus on different criteria than men, especially in the supervision process, and this is largely based on gender expectations and predispositions. Haar (2002) noted that women establish trust and mutual encouragement. Although the cultures of K-12 and higher education are different, the women in this study who transitioned and found that they did not need to change their leadership styles much could be because issues involving personnel and supervision in both the principalship and higher education are the same (Sewall & Smith, 1999). Another possible reason is that women's leadership styles rely more heavily on values and beliefs, which tend not to alter because of a career change (Haar).

The results of the Gianmettao Leadership Behavior exercise revealed that all of the women in this study scored higher on the people orientation section than the task orientation section indicating a higher concern for relationships and morale than for bureaucratic tasks and paperwork. This finding confirms previous research which argued that relationships are central to the female administrator and thus staff morale and productivity tend to be higher under this type of leadership (Shakeshaft, 1989b), women use more relational ways of understanding the world than men (Belenky et al., 1997), women exhibit more democratic and participatory styles of leadership (Gates & Siskin, 2002; Kezar, 2000; Rosener, 1990), and women tend to be more supportive of faculty and involve them in decision making (Harris et al., 2002).

The Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) results indicated that the majority of the women in this study shared preferences of Extroverted, Intuitive, Feeling, and Judging (ENFJ). These findings also confirm previous research on female leadership in education. ENFJ types tend to make decisions based on their personal values, seek harmony, are accepting of others, constantly assess the impact their decisions will have on those around them, and focus on relationships at work (Myers, 1998). The fact that the majority of the women in this study showed a preference for Extraverted, Intuition, Feeling, and Judging confirms the findings of Haar (2002) which noted that women create, implement, and maintain strong educational organizations by establishing trust and mutual encouragement and women tend to lead from their own beliefs and values. Haar also argued that effective school leaders empower their staffs, are open to new ideas, trust, and show compassion and understanding. Further study of women who transition to leadership roles in other cultures and climates in terms of their Myers-Briggs

typing is suggested. Four of the women in this study shared Extroverted and Intuitive preferences. The Extroverted and Intuitive type preferences are often initiators of change and this type may be predictive of those who will choose to make a career transition because they tend to take on risks and challenges differently than the other MBTI types (Myers, 1998).

Professional jealousy and competition was another challenge several of the women in this study faced during their transition. When Tara left K-12 for higher education, she said that her former colleagues felt that she had betrayed them. Chris noted that when she made the transition from faculty member to center director some of her former colleagues displayed jealousy, made snide comments, and exhibited rude behavior. She experienced more competition in higher education than she had hoped and she found that she had to "watch her back." Their experiences corroborate previous findings involving the idea of mistrust among women (Flynn, 1993), female competition for "male jobs" (Rader, 1979), and scrutiny by colleagues (August & Waltman, 2004). Anita, Chris, and Nicole stressed that knowing yourself and having a "thick skin" are very important to the success of women in the field of educational administration. Their advice confirms Haar's (2002) conclusion that because women lead with their own values and beliefs utmost in mind, they are able to transform educational environments and find longevity in their positions.

Implications of leadership style. Women's leadership styles in educational administration should be examined more closely to see if styles are similar within the various levels of the administrative hierarchy. This information may yield some of the personality and individual strategies women use to transition from one career level to

another. It may also indicate if certain “types” of women are more successful in obtaining specific positions and given longevity in those positions, why they have been successful. Although the leadership styles of the women in this study were addressed, they were not the focus of the research because the majority of the women did not identify their leadership style as a benefit or a detriment to their transition between K-12 and higher education. Brenda was the only one who found that her style was not as successful in the higher education culture and she had to adapt. Perhaps the women in this study did not focus on their leadership style when discussing transition because it was not a hindrance to them and went unnoticed. Further qualitative research on women who have made this transition and their leadership styles would be useful to determine if it was a factor during their transition between the two.

It would also be useful to further study professional jealousy and competition among women who are promoted through the ranks of educational administration, especially within the K-12 and higher education cultures. This information may highlight how supportive and relational women are in the workplace or if they are continuing to perpetuate stereotypes of male leadership. In addition, finding out what causes this professional jealousy and competition may yield data on how women can better support one another in a male-dominated environment and increase the number of women who aspire to leadership positions in educational administration.

Professional Credibility and Tenure

Lack of credentials was noted several times as a barrier to advancement and credibility in higher education. Katie was given a position in K-12 without the perceived authority to do the job. It was part of the reason she eventually chose to leave K-12 and

transition into higher education. Nicole transitioned into higher education before obtaining her Ph.D. and the lack of the credential made her very insecure. She eventually went back to get the degree, so she would feel more credible in her position.

The tenure process also caused stress and uncertainty for several of the participants. Julie, Brenda, Carrie, Katie, and Chris spoke of the anxiety, having to be an entrepreneur of their own work, initiative, pressure, difficulty leading a balanced life, and hidden stresses which manifested in physical maladies. Job security and not promotion was Brenda's primary focus because she was a single mother and only pursued tenure to ensure her family's stability. While reflecting on her experience, Katie was able to see the enormity of the tenure process noting that the welfare of the students is ultimately at stake. Tara commented that she does not want to take the process away because she is concerned about fairness, but she has witnessed that the process is not the same for everyone. Some of the women also remarked on the clear distinctions between tenured and non-tenured faculty and cited it as a barrier to communication and relationships in higher education.

Discussion of professional credibility and tenure. The lack of credentials as a barrier to advancement and credibility supports the findings of Stahler and Tash (1994) who suggested that credentials are critical to a program's reputation and success. They use the example of a center director who must maintain credentials commensurate to the faculty with which they hope to build relationships to illustrate this point (Stahler & Tash). Being given a position without the authority to do the job properly trivializes women and stifles their experience (Tedrow & Rhoads, 1998). It also leads to

dissatisfaction and disillusionment, which eventually leads to career transition, as it did in Katie's case (Johnsrud & Rosser, 1999).

That several of the women found the tenure process stressful is not surprising and reinforces previous research which suggests that the tenure process remains an institutional obstacle to women's success in higher education (Shultz & Easter, 1997). The difficulties they encountered in the process may be because the climate of higher education is more conducive and encouraging to men (Johnsrud & Des Jarlais, 1994), women lack other female role models and support networks (Bellas & Toutkoushian, 1999), and the higher education environment is more vague and seemingly more arbitrary than K-12 (Kezar & Eckel, 2000).

Implications of professional credibility and tenure. Much has already been written on the necessity of credentials to the advancement and credibility of women in higher education (Brunner, 1997; Friedman & Friedman, 1984; Kowalski & Stouder, 1999; Rosser, 2001). However, it may be helpful if similar research is conducted on women in the K-12 culture and how their professional credibility is strengthened or weakened by advanced degrees and experience. Additionally, continued research on women in K-12 who have obtained an administrative position, but lack the authority to carry it out, may yield information on prediction of career paths, transition into higher education, and an understanding of what causes dissatisfaction and disillusionment in female K-12 administrators.

It is no surprise that many of the women found the tenure process to be stressful and full of anxiety. Continued research on women's experience with tenure, in addition to the examination of college and university tenure processes in regard to fairness and

equity, may help to amend the culture of higher education to become more welcoming and forgiving of female work styles and preferences, especially in relation to collegiality, research, service, and teaching. It would also be interesting to see if a large number of women pursue tenure for job security reasons and not because of a future interest in administrative promotion through the higher education ranks. K-12 education does not offer job security in the same way as higher education with the tenure process, as K-12 offers "tenure" in the form of multi-year contracts, but not lifelong job security. In addition, neither K-12 nor higher education offers administrative tenure; however, as faculty members they can have tenure. It would be beneficial to find out if women choose higher education for those reasons, if their choice is in any way based on their perceptions of transferable skills between the K-12 and higher education environments, or if it is for job security as tenured faculty even though they may eventually seek an administrative position.

Mentorship

The benefits of having a mentor were discussed by almost every participant in this study. They noted having things in common with other faculty members, utilizing the skills and talents of others, and being socialized to understand the politics of the educational culture as critical to a new faculty member's success. Without mentorship, many of these women struggled to learn the culture and climate of higher education and that became the most difficult challenge during their transition from the K-12 environment.

Discussion of mentorship. The experiences of the women in this study are common. Lack of mentorship opportunities to support the advancement and acclimation

of women in educational administration has often been discussed. Riger et al. (1997) noted that subtle differences exist in the various opportunities and mentoring that female faculty experience, which can ultimately impact their career advancement. Without this necessary mentorship, women must work extra hard to learn the culture of the organization (Polleys, 1999), socialize and “fit” themselves into the culture (Tierney, 1997), and transition into their new position. Gmelch and Parkay (1999) used the example of new department chairs who often face difficulty when transitioning into their new position, as they experience role conflict and ambiguity. Women are also scrutinized more closely than men, are forced to “prove themselves,” and lack mentorship opportunities to support their advancement (Harris et al., 2002, p. 123). Others have focused on the culture of higher education and its reliance on sponsorship in order to succeed (S. Clark & Corcoran, 1986). Offerman and Armitage (1993) argued that the socialization and mentorship women receive during their first administrative experience can direct their success and any transitions they make throughout their careers. Katie, Carrie, and Nicole recognized the importance of finding a mentor, networking, and seeking advice in their careers and advised that women interested in educational administration and transition do the same to ensure their success and acclimation.

Implications of mentorship. Increased research on how mentorship opportunities are created and presented to new female faculty and administrators would be beneficial to increasing the number of women in educational administration at both the K-12 and higher education levels. If no opportunities are made available and women are left on their own to create those connections, it is no wonder they are not as successful as they could be with support from their institutions. Further, education at both levels must, at the

very least, assist women to learn the culture of the organization. Without training or supervision when the new faculty member arrives, or the new administrative position is assumed, success can be jeopardized. Preparation and orientation provide an opportunity to acquaint new faculty with the college and university culture and climate and to help ensure their professional re-socialization and career success. The women in this study had different experiences with mentorship, but they all recognized the hindrances or benefits to the mentor-mentee relationship and its impact on their success.

Impacts of Climate and Culture of K-12 and Higher Education that Affected Transition Similarities

Not many similarities between the climate and culture of K-12 and higher education were highlighted by the participants in this study. As the schools and institutions where each woman in this study worked had their own distinctive personalities and environment, no similarities between the climate of K-12 and higher education were discussed. The only similarities between the climate of K-12 and higher education that were mentioned included budgeting and politics, the influence of politics on policy and decision making, communication or the lack thereof, and administrator focus on problem solving. Many of the participants focused more on the striking differences rather than the subtle differences between the two educational cultures.

Discussion and implications of similarities. The similarities between the culture of K-12 and higher education mentioned by the women in this study validate previous findings on budgeting and politics and the influence of politics on policy and decision making. Sewall and Smith (1999) noted the major similarities between K-12 and higher education exist in the areas of personnel, budgeting, and curriculum. A reason that the

women in this study found so few similarities between K-12 and higher education may be because of the distinctive environments of each school where they had previously worked. These distinctive environments corroborate the findings of several studies which note that every institution is different and consists of rituals and subcultures unique to the environment (B. Clark, 1970; Lunsford, 1963). These rituals and subcultures may make the differences between the culture and climate of K-12 and higher education more overt than their similarities. Women's success may ultimately fall into which culture and climate they have been socialized based upon how well their doctoral program prepared them to make that transition (Weidman et al., 2001). Examining how well different doctoral programs prepare educational administration students for professorial roles in higher education is suggested.

Because most of the women in this study did not notice many similarities between the climate and culture of K-12 and higher education, further research on the similarities between the two educational cultures would be especially helpful in making comparisons between various administrative positions and job responsibilities. It is difficult to draw those conclusions from the results of this study, as the participants spent more time discussing the differences between the two educational cultures. It may be that there are very few, if any, similarities between the culture and climate of K-12 and higher education; however without further study, it is difficult to discern.

Differences

Environment. The K-12 environment was described by the women in this study as more immediate, crisis driven, and outcomes oriented than the higher education environment. Because the culture of K-12 is more "crisis driven," the women noted

situations which demanded making decisions without much time for reflection. Because higher education, by contrast, is deliberate and unhurried, it allows for plenty of reflection and deliberation time.

The lack of research orientation in K-12 was another difference stressed between the two cultures. In the experiences of Julie, Carrie, and Nicole, K-12 did not allow for research or data driven discussion outside of student achievement on standardized test scores. The culture of K-12 was described as stale and the faculty was depicted as uninterested in analyzing their own teaching, test scores, or making inquiries into best practices. When these women entered higher education and received a doctoral degree, did they become more invested in the culture of higher education, notice the cultural differences between K-12 and higher education, that they would have more options, and realize that going back into K-12 was no longer a good fit for them professionally? Further study is warranted.

All of the women, with the exception of Chris, found the differences in hierarchy between K-12 and higher education to be a challenge. The culture of K-12 was described by Julie as one that requires obedience, has a clear and distinct hierarchy, and is more task-driven. She remarked that the culture of higher education lacked clear authority (only the faculty over curriculum), but supported exploration and academic freedom, and boasted a broader focus on education which emphasized learning at all levels. Carrie mentioned that the culture of higher education allows for more varied perspectives than the K-12 environment. Tara and Nicole commented that higher education lacks the collaboration and camaraderie of K-12 education and is more focused on a caste system with the faculty at the apex. Although K-12 was said to possess a more distinct hierarchy,

Katie and Nicole both found that titles and credentials were less important in the culture of K-12, but were critical to the culture of higher education. In addition, turnover of upper-level administrators in both K-12 and higher education has made some women's positions challenging. There is a "Domino Effect" which tends to occur, especially in higher education, when an upper-level administrative position changes, such as a president or provost. When upper-level positions change in K-12 (i.e., the superintendent), those principals that directly report to the superintendent may turn over due to differences in educational focus. Brenda, Carrie, and Katie all experienced challenges when upper-level administration changed in both the K-12 and higher education settings.

Discussion of environment. The women described the K-12 environment differently than that of higher education. Previous research supports their assessment of the K-12 culture as more immediate (Weick, 1976), crisis driven (Campbell et al., 1990), and outcomes oriented (Brint et al., 2001) than higher education. Decisions are made in response to environmental demands and with constant adaptation to change (Campbell et al.). The women in this study noted that higher education was very different from the culture of K-12 education in allowing for reflection and deliberation in decision making. This major difference is primarily impacted by the collegial culture of higher education, especially in regard to consensus and decentralization of authority (Baldrige, 1971). Decisions are not made with the same immediacy because they rely on a shared governance model (Berdahl, 1991). This model has often been criticized as counting on participation that is fluid and unpredictable (Kezar & Eckel, 2004), less flexible, and slow to change (Greenfield, 1985; Schuster et al., 1994).

Julie, Carrie, and Nicole's experiences in K-12 did not allow for research or data driven discussion. This lack of research orientation could be largely based on the socialization structure of K-12 which is extremely resistant to change (Williamson & Hudson, 2002), ineffective preparation of administrators as researchers (Greenfield, 1985), restrictions to access of information (Campbell et al., 1990), and time.

The clear and distinct hierarchy that Julie experienced in K-12 corroborates the findings of several previous studies. Campbell et al. (1990) noted that the hierarchy of K-12 administration is delineated by office. Kezar (2001) argued that the culture of higher education has moved away from traditional, hierarchical leadership and begun a movement toward more participatory and collaborative leadership, making it more difficult to establish a definitive line of authority in decision making. Tara and Nicole's observation that higher education lacks the collaboration and camaraderie of K-12 education confirms previous findings on the subject. Hellawell and Hancock (2001) contended that collegiality in higher education is the norm in interpersonal relationships; however it decreases the higher up the administrative ladder one goes. Both Katie and Nicole's experience with titles and credentials align with the notion that titles and credentials are critical to successful socialization and promotion in higher education (Long et al., 1993) and success is most evident in the tenure and promotion process (Tierney & Bensimon, 1996). B. Johnson and Harvey (2002) argued that tenure is the most significant form of socialization in higher education. The tenure process takes a faculty member from an outsider to a marginally accepted member of the group, to a peer, and finally a confidant (Schein, 1971).

Turnover of upper-level administrators has also been shown to result in the “Domino Effect” Brenda described, as issues of gatekeeping (Lewin, 1947), “fit” (Tallerico et al., 1993), individual bias, values, and attitudes (Shoemaker, 1991), and issues related to trust and reliability (Sagaria, 1988) play a role in administrator hiring. Shoemaker argued that gatekeeping represents the various means by which one enters selection for a position, and the gatekeepers use their power to keep some people out and welcome others into the profession. Further study would be beneficial on how welcoming the higher education environment is to women in general, as well as specifically to those K-12 administrators who make the transition to higher education administration. The success of those who transitioned to higher education from K-12 administration over time may reveal that previous experience in educational administration is one mode of training for future administrative roles in higher education.

Administrative training and responsibilities. The participants of this study noted that training for administrative positions, differences in the roles of supervision and autonomy, and issues of perceived and actual power were noteworthy differences between the two educational cultures. Brenda and Carrie observed the lack of training for higher education administration, but also commented on requiring training and certification to become an administrator in K-12. Carrie, Nicole, and Tara all commented that principals in K-12 are seen as having power by their school communities, whereas deans, directors, and department chairs were often described as lacking power.

Julie and Anita found that K-12 administrators had more autonomy than higher education administrators. Julie noted that administrator presence is required at all times in the culture of K-12, but in higher education the job can be done wherever and whenever

it is needed. In addition, Chris commented that the focus of administrative positions in higher education is different from K-12, as it tends to be more entrepreneurial, especially in regard to university centers and fundraising.

Despite the significant differences in administrator training and responsibilities, Brenda and Carrie commented that their experiences as an administrator in K-12 was good preparation for their experience as an administrator in higher education, especially in organization, planning, and supervision.

Discussion of administrative training and responsibilities. Previous findings support Brenda and Carrie's experiences with lack of administrator training (Alvy & Robbins, 1998); Julie and Anita's encounters with differences in the level of supervision and autonomy (Hughes, 1999; Louis, 1980), the focus on entrepreneurial efforts by administrators in higher education which Chris experienced (Larson & Barnes-Moorhead, 2001), and Carrie, Nicole, and Tara's issues of perceived and actual power (Twale & Shannon, 1996a). Alvy and Robbins (1998) argued that preparation programs historically fail female administrators in preparing them for the day-to-day expectations of school leadership. Sewall and Smith (1999) contended that the climate and culture of K-12 and higher education differ considerably, especially in administrative roles, power, and authority. Larson and Barnes-Moorhead (2001) argued that administrators in higher education, especially center directors, often serve in entrepreneurial roles to raise money and find ways to overcome funding shortages. It has also been claimed that although K-12 and higher education have very different climates and cultures in their power and governance structures, both educational environments require administrators who possess similar skills in order to be successful (Belch & Mueller, 2003).

Brenda and Carrie's comment that their previous experience as a K-12 administrator was good preparation for their administrative experience in higher education corroborates several previous studies on the subject (Belch & Mueller, 2003; D. J. Johnson, 2001). D. J. Johnson noted that past experience as a K-12 administrator should assist the success of a higher education administrator in areas of organization, planning, coordination, and staff personnel. Both Brenda and Carrie found this to be true in their experience.

Time. Time was also found by the women in the study to be a big difference between the two educational cultures and many of them found it to be a challenge to their transition, at least initially. Chris arrived at the office much earlier than her colleagues because of her experience with the K-12 environment. Time flexibility in higher education was described by Brenda as both a blessing and a curse, as there was a greater need to stay motivated or suffer from the lack of structure.

In addition, the amount of time things take in the culture of higher education was another major difference. The culture of K-12 stresses getting things done very quickly due to time constraints. In higher education, however, Chris, Julie, and Brenda found that there was more time for conversation and debate and sometimes this conversation could take a very long time to produce any result or change.

Discussion of time. Autonomy and time flexibility in higher education have been noted in several previous studies as differences between the two educational cultures. Sewall and Smith (1999) argued that higher education administrators have more autonomy than administrators in K-12 education. Previous studies also confirm the

participant's experiences that decisions and change take a very long time to produce change in higher education (Kezar, 2001; McCullough, 2002; Parker, 1998).

Implications of differences. The environment of K-12 is different from higher education in a number of ways. Unless the curriculum of higher education becomes state mandated like that of the K-12 curriculum, the environment will continue to differ dramatically. In addition, the hierarchical structure of K-12 and higher education will continue to differ significantly unless the culture of shared governance and collegiality in higher education is replaced with a more delineated line of authority like that of K-12. These differences make the transition from the K-12 culture to the higher education culture a dramatic one, at best, for these transitioning women. Although some administrator skills and experiences may be the same, the differences in educational structure, climate, and culture make the two environments very unique and these differences may prevent women from easily transitioning from one to another without some anticipatory socialization or on-the-job-training. Brenda and Nicole found that just being aware of the differences between the two educational cultures was very useful to them during their transition validating the contention that one must understand the distinct differences between the climate and culture of K-12 and higher education, if they are to persist and succeed (Sewall & Smith, 1999).

It may be useful to conduct further research on why so little training and support is given to new administrators at both levels of education. Some of the differences between the positions cannot and will not change unless the culture of the environment changes and that is unlikely. Issues of power and authority, differences in supervision and autonomy, and entrepreneurial efforts are creations of the culture and will not easily alter.

However, increased training and support for administrators can only strengthen their skills and abilities to better the organization, regardless of whether it is K-12 or higher education.

Research Question #3: How did the women interpret their lived experience?

Every woman in this study interpreted their "lived experience" in different ways. Overall, the majority of the women were eager to participate in the study. They cited reasons like "remembering what it was like as a doctoral student," personal interests in the research topic, and the ability to discuss an experience that no one had asked them about before as impetus for their participation. Julie, Brenda, Carrie, Katie, Chris, Tara, and Nicole articulated their experiences in great detail with animated descriptions of the setting, the people involved, and their feelings about the circumstances. Their interviews were approximately 1 hour in length and incredibly descriptive. They were not reluctant to delve into some of their most personal stories regarding transition and their experiences with discrimination. They did not need prodding to expound on their statements and they shared stories which illustrated their example and highlighted their statements. They conversed easily and despite the circumstances under which they were being interviewed (face-to-face and by phone), they easily established rapport and a connection with the investigator.

Only Anita was reluctant and she was asked several times to participate in the study before she finally agreed. She was referred on two separate occasions by both another participant and a committee member, but when she was interviewed she was not very forthcoming about her experience. Her interview was actually the least informative of the eight and it was difficult for the researcher to ensure that her "lived experience"

was completely captured, as the details of her transition and the emotion used to express it were minimal. She gave brief explanations including only necessary information. Whether this lack of information came from a sense of repression, fear, lack of interest or reticence is unclear. Her reluctance to share her story could stem from her MBTI preference of Introverted Sensing Thinking Judging (ISTJ). As she was an Introvert and the majority of the other women were Extroverts, it may have played a part in her lack of detail and enthusiasm for discussing so personal a time in her life. It is uncertain. It may also have been inappropriate to include her as she was not as willing to participate from the beginning. I am not certain that her "lived experience" was fully known to her at this point in time, if it was fully expressed, or if it was not, why it was not. A follow-up inquiry and career following into the life of Anita 5 years from now may reveal more information about how she interpreted this time in her career and how it impacted her both personally and professionally. However, a follow-up inquiry may also encounter the same response the researcher experienced in this study, as her personality may be very private and giving in-depth answers to questions may not be her inclination. She may also have encountered a lack of privacy during her career and therefore she is not quick to trust when personal questions are asked. It may have just been that she was not interested in participating due to lack of time or interest and only chose to participate because she was asked more than once. As this interview took place without a prior introduction and because it took some prodding to even get her to participate, it is difficult to determine what the issues were.

Discussion and implications of the interpretation of lived experience. It is obvious from each woman's varied explanations that increased orientation, training, and support

are essential to guaranteeing that new faculty and administrators acknowledge the differences between the educational cultures and are aware of the skills and the expertise necessary to become fully invested and socialized in their new environment (Gmelch & Parkay, 1999). Gmelch and Parkay argued that most academic administrators have not had formal training for their positions and because of this find the position very challenging. Some have noted that although administrator preparation programs focus on leadership as an integral part of their training and emphasis, they use very few texts written by women or focusing on women in educational administration (Berube et al., 2002). This denies the differences between male and female leaders and inadequately prepares women for the field of educational administration.

Summary

All of the women in this study were principals at the K-12 level before transitioning into higher education. They all sought a Ph.D., albeit not all at the same time in their careers, for the same reasons, or in the same career sequence. This can be easily seen in each of their career paths, which are illustrated in Figures 1-8 in chapter 4. Interestingly enough, however, none of the women in this study aspired to the superintendency, confirming previous research which argued that the number of women seeking this upper-level administrative position in K-12 remains very low (Mertz, 2002; Ortiz & Marshall, 1988; Shakeshaft, 1989b; Shepard, 1999). The perception that the grass had to be greener may have sparked their journey to higher education administration. These women may not have had or perceived that they stood a chance in the male-dominated, hierarchical environment of K-12 and what they absorbed as students being socialized in their graduate programs may have provided them with enough impetus to

bridge the gap to higher education. They may have perceived their chances for success to be more realistic in a new environment because they knew they had reached the glass ceiling as principals in the K-12 environment. This may be one reason why they sought solace in an environment outside of their current one (Twale & Shannon, 1996a). A broader study of all principals would be helpful to note gender differences in career aspirations and why they chose their respective career paths.

The women all gave advice to others who desire positions in educational leadership and to those considering a career transition between K-12 and higher education. Recommendations include that women should not be afraid to take risks, study leadership, and be careful not to burn out, all of which corroborate the findings of previous studies. Brunner (1997) noted that a good success strategy for women in educational administration is to become a "risk taker." Twale, Ridenour, and Schaller (2005) and Ridenour and Twale (2005) argue that preparation for risk taking needs to be incorporated into doctoral study. Continuing to study leadership and breaking down the barriers of societal predisposition to male leadership has been highlighted by Rusch and Marshall (1995). Finally, Grady and LaCost (2002), point out that a major challenge to women in educational administration is preventing burnout.

Overall, the results of this study confirm that the culture of an organization affects the overall success of its employees. Hackney (1998) noted that organizational climate and culture contribute to the success or failure of women in educational administration. This study also confirms that the career satisfaction of women in academia is influenced by salary, relationships, and departmental culture (August & Waltman, 2004). The women in this study were treated differently by their male colleagues, which validates the

findings of Olsen, Maple, and Stage (1995) who argued that women tend to feel less supported by their male colleagues and are treated differently. The results of this study also confirm that women experience many structural and internal barriers to their success, especially when making a career transition. It has been noted that female leaders in both K-12 and higher education settings face many barriers to their success from a variety of sources and these barriers are most evident when women make a career transition (Ebberwein et al., 2004). The findings presented here confirm that despite these barriers, women can successfully transition by making the best use of the skills they have previously learned (Billot, 2002) and adapting their styles, as necessary, to fit the organization's culture, thus validating Belenky et al. (1997) who contended that women who have succeeded in the field of educational administration have done so by adapting their leadership skills and approaches to their new environment.

The choice to focus on women in educational administration was made because although education has long been recognized as a "woman's field," there are very few women who serve in positions of educational leadership (Blount, 1999; Bronstein & Farnsworth, 1998; Gerdes, 2003; Hubbard & Robinson, 1994; McCabe, 2001; McGrath, 1992; Mertz, 2002; National Center for Education Statistics Integrated Postsecondary Education Data System, 2001; Polleys, 1999; Shakeshaft, 1987, p. 199). In addition, reports have been inconsistent about women's ability to succeed (S. Clark & Corcoran, 1986; Logan, 1998; K. M. Moore, 1987) and the institutional and personal barriers to their success (K. M. Moore & Sagaria, 1982; Ortiz & Marshall, 1988). These factors made it necessary to examine how women who advance in education are successful. Because of the limited mobility of women within one level of education, it is a significant

achievement if they are able to transition from a K-12 administration position in one educational climate and culture, succeed as an academic, be promoted, and assume an administrative position in higher education. Although men may encounter some of the same barriers to transition, research has shown that women lead differently (M. Coleman, 1996; Hicks McFadden & Smith, 2002; Ouston, 1993; Shakeshaft, 1989b, 1995), experience barriers to upward mobility associated with gender and stereotypes (J. E. Coleman, 1998; Mertz, 2002; Schonwetter et al., 1993; Williamson & Hudson, 2001), are often treated differently than men (Olsen et al., 1995), are more closely scrutinized (Harris et al., 2002), and experience isolation and tokenism (S. Clark & Corcoran, 1986; K. M. Moore, 1987).

The findings of this study were as follows:

Research Question 1: Why did these women transition from K-12 administration to higher education administration?

- Anticipatory socialization to higher education during their doctoral study provided a natural transition from K-12 to higher education.
- This same socialization made them feel as if they no longer “fit” in the K-12 environment due primarily to the culture differences between K-12 and higher education in a research focus.
- Connections allowed for job opportunities to be made available and in most cases these women were recruited for positions, especially in higher education administration.

Research Question 2: How did these women describe their transition from one educational climate and culture to another?

- For some, the transition was easy and natural in most cases because of the anticipatory socialization.
- Gender, age, and salary discrimination were noted.
- Leadership style was addressed as a challenge, but not a significant hurdle to their transition and/or success.
- Professional credibility was needed to succeed in the tenure process.
- Mentorship was needed, although job referrals were noted in several cases.
- Similarities in budgeting and politics across cultures were noted.
- Differences in environment, administrative training and responsibilities, and time were noted.

Research Question #3: How did the women interpret their lived experience?

- The majority were incredibly forthcoming and descriptive when discussing the transition experience and the challenges they encountered.
- They saw their lived experience as a journey, but they did not necessarily make conscious choices to transition or seek administrative positions in higher education.
- The majority noted that their transition was not planned, but rather an event that transpired in response to something else. In addition, the majority of the participants of this study also found themselves recruited for administrative positions.
- When describing the lived experience of this transition, most of the women were surprised by their realizations and made connections that they had not previously recognized.

- Only one was not as open and willing to elaborate. It is difficult to note if this is her personality or if there is another reason why her story was not as detailed as the others.

In general, the findings indicate that anticipatory socialization to the culture of higher education during doctoral study may provide a natural transition from the K-12 to higher education environments because some programs prepare students for faculty positions when others prepare practitioners for K-12 roles. Professional connections also provide for increased job opportunities and recruitment, especially in higher education administration. Finally, the results of this study allude to the fact that the culture of an organization affects the overall success of its employees and their aspirations for career mobility because these women chose not to pursue the superintendency in favor of a higher education career. Although it is unclear, this may be due to the political nature of the superintendency and the predisposition of these particular women to avoid that career choice.

Emerging Questions

Although the findings of this study indicate that anticipatory socialization during doctoral study may provide a natural transition from a K-12 to a higher education environment, this study brought numerous other questions to light. A few of those questions include:

- Were the women who chose to participate in this study different than the other women who chose not to participate in the research?
- Are these findings transferable to other populations or were these women a part of a larger subpopulation?

- Why didn't these women pursue the superintendency? Was it due to a lack of political savvy or administrative skills?
- Did these women choose to transition into higher education instead of the superintendency because it seemed to them that higher education would present them with fewer problems than if they stayed in the K-12 environment?
- Were these women able to "easily transition" because they were good at transitioning or did they just possess transferable administrative skills?
- Why didn't these women see their transition experience as traumatic? The women in this study treated their transition as a "rite of passage" instead of a major shift in the culture and climate of their work environment.
- Is it possible to get a phenomenological "essence" as Van Manen (1990) describes when attempting to study people in highly visible and highly demanding roles?
- Would men have the same experience as these women in their transition? Would their reasons for transitioning be the same? Would they be aided by their "maleness?"

Further research is needed to answer the above questions, as well as the numerous others that this research has generated.

Investigator Reflections on the Research Findings

Interviewing the women in this study was very enlightening. Listening to their experiences, especially their observations of the principalship, validated the experiences that I have as a principal and it is comforting to know that my situation is not unique. As the majority of the women in the study were eager to participate, the interviews were extremely informative and worthwhile. I was able to develop an immediate rapport with

several of the women, as they shared very personal stories and experiences without hesitation. It was disappointing to hear that so many of the women experienced gender, age, and salary discrimination at both levels of education. It was also disheartening to learn that some of the women felt they lacked support and training for every administrative position they have held. In my experience, advanced study has been helpful when dealing with issues of curriculum, leadership, and research; however, the stories the women presented about their "training" (e.g., being left in a room with the filing cabinet on their first day in the new administrative position and being told to "get to it") has also been my experience in educational administration in both K-12 and higher education. My administrative experience in higher education has helped me greatly to transition to the principalship, as the skill set and levels of autonomy are the same.

For the most part, I felt that the stories of the women in relation to transition and that lived experience were complete. Their tone of voice, emphasis on certain events, and the honesty with which they shared their experiences made the stories appear to be holistic interpretations of their lived experience in regard to transition. Some of the women seemed to have "ah ha" moments as we spoke connecting things like physical maladies and the tenure process, the fact that they were consistently recruited for administrative positions and they did not seek them out, and the amount of discrimination they experienced throughout their careers. These moments often occurred halfway through the conversation and it was obvious, as there would be an inflection in their voice and they would be surprised by their own realization. It seemed as if our conversation helped them to recognize their lived experience and "connect the dots." It is almost as if they had not spoken of their transition before the moment that they were asked the

question and never realized how much or in what way their experience had affected them. This is not entirely surprising to me, as I did not recognize that my interests in this topic were even related to my own transition experience between K-12 and higher education until near the end of the study when I was writing up the results and struggling to be reflective on how my experience was similar or dissimilar to the women with whom I spoke. This suggests that opportunities for women in administration to reflect on their own experiences and discussion are critical to their personal and professional growth. This was definitely the case for me during this experience.

After completing this study, I became more aware of my own experience and I have been able to realize that my transition experience was also unique. In many ways, I am the opposite of the women I studied, as I chose to go back to K-12 following my higher education experience, as both an administrator and a doctoral student. I do agree with many of the observations these women made regarding the differences between the climate and culture of K-12 and higher education, but I found that my choice to transition was more of a "calling" or "vocation." I would not summarize my own experience in the same way because I feel that I was "called" to a specific position at a specific time. None of the women in this study discussed their own lived experience in that way. I am thankful that I chose this area of study, as it has enhanced my understanding and reflection of my own transition experiences and made me feel united with other women who have also made this career transition.

Informed Consent Form

Title of the Study: ONE CAREER TO ANOTHER: WOMEN WHO TRANSITION BETWEEN K-12 AND HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

Investigator: Cheryl Ann Spain, Doctoral Student at The University of Dayton, cspain@cdeeducation.org, 614-323-8286

Dissertation Chair: Dr. Darla J. Twale, School of Education and Allied Professions, The University of Dayton, darla.twale@notes.udayton.edu

Purpose of Research: I am studying female administrators who have transitioned from the K-12 climate and culture to higher education. I am doing this with the hope that your stories will highlight any experiences, education, personality characteristics, or approaches to leadership that you found successful as you maneuvered the transition, the varying climates and cultures of education, and the structures of education and administration.

Procedures for this Research: I will ask you a series of questions about your experience as a K-12 and higher education administrator. The questions will focus on your transition within the educational climates and cultures in which you worked, and the experiences you had working in educational administration. I will interview you using an audiotape recorder and I may ask to talk with you about your experiences more than one time. Interviews will last approximately 2 hours each. I will also ask you to complete a short leadership assessment and demographic questionnaire and refer me to other women in educational administration who meet the criteria of this study.

Anticipated Risks or Discomforts: The interviews will take place at a time and date convenient for you. The questions you will be asked will require you to reflect on your own past and current experiences as a woman in educational administration. Some questions may make you uncomfortable or cause feelings of embarrassment or distress. You may withdraw your consent and discontinue the interview at any time. You will not be required to give any reasons for doing so and there will not be any penalty for having done so.

Benefits to the Participants: Your participation in this study is voluntary and you will not be compensated for participating. Your experiences will highlight the differences and similarities within the varying levels of education administration. It will benefit future generations of women in educational leadership to uncover any strategies you utilized which enabled you to transition and what similarities and differences you experienced in the various climates and cultures of education administration.

Protection of Confidentiality: You will be assigned a pseudonym for the purposes of my study and all written reports of this research. I will remove or change all non-critical features of you in any public reports of this study, in order to protect your anonymity. This includes: personal descriptors, your full name, and any names of the educational

institutions where you have or currently work. Your name will never appear on any reports, documentations, or presentations of this research. All audiotapes, written transcripts, and other materials will be kept in a locked filing cabinet in my home, available to only me. When the study is complete, these items can be returned to you or destroyed. All discussions amongst committee members will be confidential.

Contact Person for Questions or Problems: You may contact me or my dissertation chair with any questions regarding the research in this study. For questions regarding your rights as a subject of the study, please contact Jon Nieberding, Chair of the Committee for the Protection of Human Subjects, Kettering Laboratories, Rm. 542, (937) 229-2113, jon.nieberding@udri.udayton.edu

Consent to Participate: I have voluntarily decided to participate in this study. The investigator named above has answered all of my questions regarding procedures, confidentiality, and participation. I understand that I may ask any questions of the investigator at any time regarding this study and my participation as a subject. I also understand that at any time I may withdraw my participation from this study without any penalty or loss of benefits, to which I am entitled. Further, I understand that the investigator may terminate my participation in this study at any time, if she feels it is in my best interest or in the best interest of the study.

Name of the Participant (Print)

Signature of the Participant

Date

Name of the Investigator (Print)

Signature of the Investigator

Date

Gianmettao Leadership Behavior Exercise

Please respond to each item the way you would be likely to act if you were the leader of a work group designing a program for phasing student activities into a college or university semester schedule.

Circle whether you would be likely to behave in the described way:

(A) Always (F) Frequently (O) Occasionally (S) Seldom (N) Never

- | | |
|-----------|--|
| A F O S N | 1. I would most likely act as the spokesperson of the group. |
| A F O S N | 2. I would allow members complete freedom in their work. |
| A F O S N | 3. I would encourage the use of uniform procedures. |
| A F O S N | 4. I would permit the members to use their own judgment in solving problems. |
| A F O S N | 5. I would needle members for greater effort. |
| A F O S N | 6. I would let the members do their work the way they think best. |
| A F O S N | 7. I would keep the work moving at a rapid pace. |
| A F O S N | 8. I would turn the members loose on a job and let them go to it. |
| A F O S N | 9. I would settle conflicts when they occur in the group. |
| A F O S N | 10. I would be reluctant to allow the members any freedom of action. |
| A F O S N | 11. I would decide what shall be done and how it shall be done. |
| A F O S N | 12. I would push for increased production. |
| A F O S N | 13. I would assign group members to particular tasks. |
| A F O S N | 14. I would be willing to make changes. |
| A F O S N | 15. I would schedule the work to be done. |
| A F O S N | 16. I would refuse to explain my actions. |
| A F O S N | 17. I would persuade others that my ideas are to their advantage. |
| A F O S N | 18. I would permit the group to set its own pace. |

MBTI Preference Report

Please visit the following website to take the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator, if you do not already know your four letter preference and the strength of those preferences. You will find the website at: <http://residentialprograms.udayton.edu/tests/jtypes.asp>

When you have completed the assessment you will be given a four letter code (Type Indicator) followed by a numerical code (strength of preferences).

Please write your four letter code here: _____

Please write your numerical code here: _____

Demographic Questionnaire

Please fill out the following questionnaire to provide some baseline information for the study. Thank you.

Select the appropriate category for each of the following:

Age Range:

- ☐ 20-30
- ☐ 30-40
- ☐ 40-50
- ☐ 50-60
- ☐ 60-70
- ☐ 70 +

Race/Ethnicity:

- ☐ African-American
- ☐ Caucasian
- ☐ American Indian
- ☐ Hispanic
- ☐ Asian
- ☐ Pacific Islander
- Other _____

K-12 Experience:

- ____ Years at Public School
- ____ Years at Parochial School
- ____ Years at Private School
- ____ Years at Charter School

- ____ Years as Principal
- ____ Years as Superintendent

Higher Ed Experience:

- ____ Years at Public Institution
- ____ Years at Private Institution
- ____ Years at Technical Institution

- ____ Years as Director of Center
- ____ Years as Dean
- ____ Years as Department chair

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