FOCUSING QUESTIONS

1. What is a career? What is the difference between a career and a job?
2. Are there typical career stages a school administrator passes through? What are the key issues at each stage?
3. Is stress a part of the school administrator’s job? What are the causes, symptoms, and effects of career stress in educational administration?
4. What are some individual and organizational techniques for coping with administrative stress?
5. Is career development important for both individuals and organizations?
6. What are the components of a comprehensive career development program?
7. What are the special problems women and minorities face in careers in educational administration?
8. Do programs exist to enhance the careers of women and minorities in school administration?

In this chapter, we attempt to answer these questions concerning careers in educational administration. We begin our discussion by exploring the concept of a career. Then we discuss career stages in the context of an administrative career. Next, we examine the role stress plays in educational administration, including causes, symptoms, and effects. We also examine individual and organizational strategies for coping with stress and discuss career development in terms of individual and organizational processes. Finally, we examine the potential administrative career opportunities for women and minorities, including barriers to career ascendance and specific programs for overcoming these barriers.

The Concept of Career

Long hours at an unremitting pace, varied and fragmented tasks, and heavy reliance on verbal communication are all part of a career in educational administration. Good pay and benefits, status, prestige, power, and challenging and interesting work are also
characteristic of an administrative career in education. Does this profile appeal to you? If so, then a career in school administration may be for you.

What is a career? To some people, a career means moving upward in an organization, making more money, having more responsibility, and acquiring more status and power. Others view a career as a specific line of work or a profession. Still others believe that a career is more than movement in an organization or a specific line of work. To them a career means psychological involvement in one's work regardless of the salary, responsibility, or status.¹

A more formal definition of a career is a lifelong sequence of work-related positions integrated with the attitudes and motives of the person as she engages in these positions.² This definition emphasizes that the concept of career does not imply success or failure, that a career consists of both behaviors and attitudes, and that it is a lifelong sequence of work-related experiences. As such, careers are important to people and to the organization. Careers inevitably integrate the needs of people and organizations. Noted management theorists on careers suggest that organizations are dependent on people to perform jobs, and people are dependent on organizations to provide jobs and career opportunities.³ Thus, school administrators should consider career-related issues (e.g., salary schedules and merit pay, job opportunities, and chances for promotion) in establishing administrative policies and procedures.

Career Stages

It is important for school administrators to understand how careers evolve over time. That information will help administrators to better plan their own careers and help organizations to better understand employees’ concerns as they move through career stages. Most careers evolve through several stages during a person’s working life.

Among the numerous career stage models that have been proposed, one framework, which is particularly applicable to school administrators, has been developed by Gene Dalton and Paul Thompson. Based on their study of 550 professionally trained people, they propose that careers evolve through four distinct stages. According to Dalton and Thompson, their model applies to people they call “knowledge workers,” or people in such professions as engineering, accounting, business management, and science. The principles apply to other employees as well, particularly those who climb the organizational ladder, such as school administrators who must rise through the teaching ranks.

Dalton and Thompson propose that the four distinct career stages differ in terms of the activities employees are expected to perform, the relationships they are expected to develop, and the psychological adjustments they are expected to make.⁴

Stage 1: Apprentice

Stage 1, the apprentice stage, begins at the outset of a person’s career. During this stage, beginning professionals must work closely with more experienced persons. The relationship that develops between beginning professionals and their supervisors is an apprenticeship. The major activities in which beginning professionals are to show competence include learning and following directions. To move successfully and effectively through the apprentice stage, beginning professionals must be able to accept the psychological state of dependence. The apprentice stage continues through the first, or entry-level, job, which is usually nonadministrative, even for those who have an administrative

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¹Patrice Cassedy, Education (Farmington Hills, MI: Gale Group, 2002).
²Glen W. Cutlip et al., Careers in Teaching (New York: Rosen Publishing Group, 2000).
⁴Gene Dalton and Paul F. Thompson, Novations: Strategies for Career Management (Glenview, IL: Scott, Foresman, 1986).
career in mind. For example, in most states several years of teaching experience is required before a person is eligible for certification as a principal.

**Activities** Stage 1 involves three types of learning. First, the beginning professional must learn to perform at least some of the organization’s tasks competently and determine which tasks are crucial and which require less emphasis. For example, a new teacher must learn to prepare lessons, present information, diagnose learning, reinforce and correct students, and evaluate learning. Second, the teacher must learn how to get tasks done, using both formal and informal channels of communication. Finally, the teacher must perform these tasks while being closely observed for competence and future potential by one or more supervisors. First-year teachers in Texas, for example, are called “intern teachers” and are assigned a committee of three supervisors: the building principal, a resource teacher, and a university educator who act as mentors to the novice teacher. A similar procedure exists in the same state for first-year principals, except that the three-member committee consists of the superintendent or designee, an experienced principal, and a university educator.

**Relationships** The primary relationship a beginning teacher experiences in stage 1 is that of subordinate. Ideally, the beginning teacher is assigned a mentor who knows the school, is a successful teacher, and has been trained to work with novice teachers. A mentor is a person who provides support and guidance to a beginning professional. The mentor helps with the learning necessary to develop skills for advancement and tenure in the organization.

**Psychological Adjustments** Some professionals cannot cope with being placed in a subordinate state. They feel that they are still being directed and guided by a supervisor, somewhat similar to the professor-student relationship in college. They had anticipated that their first job would provide them with considerably more autonomy. Beginning professionals often find this situation frustrating. However, effectively handling the subordinate-supervisor relationship and the tasks assigned may be crucial to advancement, to achieving tenure, and ultimately in building a successful career.

**Stage 2: Independent Contributor**

Once through the dependent relationship characteristic of stage 1, the teacher moves into stage 2, the independent contributor stage, which is characterized by greater independence. The teacher has demonstrated technical competence in the field and can work independently to produce results. These people understand the requirements for success in their profession and need less direction, support, and guidance. The first real administrative position is usually acquired during this stage.

**Activities** The focus of activities during stage 2 is on gaining exposure within the organization and the profession and on continued competent performance. Because many school districts practice hiring their administrative personnel from the outside, some aspiring administrators may hold several administrative positions during this period while learning more about the occupational choices available to them. In fact, many professionals find that they can move up faster and earn more money by moving from one administrative position to another. Typically, the aspiring administrator might begin as a counselor in one school district and then secure several successively higher-level administrative positions in other school districts, including assistant principal, director of instruction, and the like.

**Relationships** The primary relationship in this stage is with peers. In fact, some refer to this period as the colleague stage. As mentor relationships begin to diminish, networking becomes important. Networking can be seen as an alternative to mentoring. It is a process by which employees gain peer support through a network of collegial associations. Collectively, these associa-

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tions form a broad pool of resources. For women, both networking and mentoring relationships are more important than they are for men. Many women are unable to move into administrative positions because of culture, “the good old boys network,” or other barriers.\(^7\) (These barriers are discussed later in this chapter.) Networking and mentoring relationships can provide professionals with insights concerning how the organization works and exposure to top-level school executives.

**Psychological Adjustments** During stage 2, the professional is expected to rely on much less direction from supervisors. This psychological state of independence may pose some problems for the independent contributor because it is an extreme contrast to the state of dependence required in apprenticeship. The independent contributor stage is extremely important for the professional’s career advancement. Those who fail at this stage do so because they lack the technical administrative skills to perform independently or because they lack the necessary self-confidence to project the proper image of an administrator.

Dalton and Thompson note that many professionals remain in stage 2 throughout their careers. For example, a principal is able to make a substantial contribution and experience a great deal of personal satisfaction through the administration of a single school building. Many have no desire to move up the organizational ladder to higher-level administrative positions. However, the authors also note that high-performance appraisals tend to diminish with time for those who remain in stage 2 too long. Others focus their thoughts on the next career stage.

**Stage 3: Mentor**

During stage 3, the mentor stage, professionals turn their energies to mentoring less experienced professionals. They broaden their interests and work increasingly more with people outside the organization. Mentoring professionals assume the work of others, and this activity can cause psychological stress.

**Activities** Stage 3 professionals perform three roles, which tend to be somewhat overlapping. First, people who enter stage 3 are expected to become mentors of those in stage 1. To accomplish this added responsibility, they secure help from those in stage 2. For example, in a school setting, the assistant superintendent of instruction or director of secondary education will seek the help of the principal in mentoring a beginning teacher or a newly appointed assistant principal.

The second role performed by stage 3 professionals is that of consultant for small groups both inside and outside the organization. From their past experience and success in stage 2, they have the ability to pull together the information and resources needed to solve problems. For example, the assistant superintendent may work with various school and community committees to revamp the curriculum, plan new bus routes, or develop a districtwide testing program.

The third role, that of manager, is the most common role found in the mentoring stage. A professional in stage 2 is typically one or two levels away from the work itself. For example, a principal of an elementary school is probably the teacher’s direct supervisor. In a high school, there may be one or two levels (department head and assistant principal) between the teacher and the principal. A mentoring professional, on the other hand, is more distant from the work and, consequently, administers at a more conceptual level. She deals more with concepts than with technical activities. Nevertheless, she assumes responsibility for the technical work done by others. Note the similarity here to Robert Katz’s three-skill model.\(^8\)

**Relationships** The administrator in stage 3 has taken on more responsibility. Relationships include not only directional activities but also mentorship and the training of others. The professional in this

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stage needs to demonstrate a high level of human skills in setting objectives, coordinating, delegating, supervising, and making decisions. The stage 3 professional must satisfy many people above him in the organization’s hierarchy. An assistant superintendent, for example, must have an influence on the superintendent in order to obtain the necessary resources for principals to perform their roles effectively.

**Psychological Adjustments** As mentioned previously, stage 3 professionals assume responsibility for the work of others. This role can result in considerable psychological adjustment. In previous stages, the professional was responsible for her own work, but now she is concerned with the work of others. Professionals who are not capable of accepting this requirement may move back to stage 2. For example, many central office administrators miss the autonomy and sense of satisfaction derived from being responsible for their own building when they were principals. However, those who derive satisfaction from seeing others move ahead may remain in stage 3 for the remainder of their careers. Others move on to the next career stage.

**Stage 4: Sponsor**

Not all professionals experience stage 4, the sponsor stage. Those who enter this stage are involved in shaping the organization itself. This influence is manifested by interfacing with key people inside and outside the organization; by developing new ways of achieving the goals of the organization; and by directing people, material, and financial resources toward specific organizational goals. Because these activities are so critical to the success and continued growth of an organization, people who perform them are highly valued. For example, public school superintendents and university presidents are paid salaries many times higher than their subordinates.

**Activities** Stage 4 professionals direct their attention to long-range strategic planning. To fulfill this function, they perform three roles: leader, entrepreneur, and idea innovator. Leaders formulate policy and initiate and implement broad programs. Entrepreneurs have a strong sense of direction for the future. It is what one author refers to as the visionary leader.9 Idea innovators are people with new ideas for accomplishing the organization’s goals. These people have gained a reputation outside their organization through professional achievements and publications. This outside reputation enhances their credibility and allows them to play key roles in organizational development. Although we generally think of such activities as being performed by one person—the organization’s chief executive officer—they may be performed by others. For example, in a school setting, key administrators in the divisions of instruction, finance, personnel, and research and development may be sponsors depending on the amount of authority and responsibility that has been delegated to them.

**Relationships** Stage 4 professionals find themselves involved in two major relationships. First, these professionals are responsible for setting the direction of the organization. Thus, they have a high degree of control over important organizational resources. Selection and development of key people is one of the basic ways of shaping the direction of the organization. The second major responsibility is contact with people and organizations outside their own. This relationship is critical because it brings current information about events and trends into an organization. Such a relationship can be seen in public schools and universities as sponsor professionals interact with federal, state, and local governments.

**Psychological Adjustments** Depending on the size of the organization, stage 4 professionals are at least three or more levels removed from the

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technical work. Because of this distance from the “firing line,” they must resist second-guessing their subordinates on operating decisions. Sponsors must learn to influence others through more indirect means such as idea planting, personnel selection, program evaluation, resource allocation, changes in organizational design, and the like. These shifts in leadership style can be a difficult psychological adjustment for stage 4 professionals who may have used a more direct leadership style in the past.

Managing Career Stress

Earlier we characterized the school administrator’s work as varied, fragmented, and continuous. In previous chapters, we have seen that school administrators are responsible for organizing the workforce, motivating subordinates, making decisions, communicating with others, facilitating change, deploying resources, and leading the organization. School administrators are responsible for high performance. Considering the nature of the school administrator’s work, stress is part of the job.

Stress is the physiological and psychological response of an individual to demands, constraints, or opportunities involving uncertainty and important outcomes.10 Prolonged exposure to stress can produce dysfunctional effects that may affect job performance. In particular, in studies of the needs of women leaders, stress management was reported as an important concern.11 In this section, we examine the sources of stress, effects of stress, and techniques for coping with stress.

Sources of Stress

Stressors are environmental conditions that have the potential to cause stress. It is important for a school administrator to recognize stressors because they induce job-related stress, which may influence work attitudes, behavior, and performance.

Figure 16–1 depicts three categories of stressors: organizational, personal, and nonorganizational factors. Of the three, organizational factors have the greatest potential to induce job-related stress. Factors such as excessively high or low job demands, role conflicts and ambiguities, and poor interpersonal relations can influence the stress level school administrators experience. Administrators also feel stress in the transition from one career stage to the next, which is due to the uncertainty often associated with new job experiences and expectations. A somewhat related factor is career development. An administrator can feel stress from underpromotion (failure to advance as rapidly as one desires) or overpromotion (being placed in a job that exceeds one’s capabilities). These organizational factors, independently or in concert, can induce job stress.

Several personal factors are sources of stress for administrators in the workplace. Such individual characteristics as need for achievement, aptitudes and skills, task understanding, and personality can influence how individuals experience and react to stress and stressors. For example, personality traits such as authoritarianism, introversion/extroversion, tolerance for ambiguity, locus of control, and self-esteem have been found to be related to job stress.12 Attention has focused, however, on the Type A personality, which seems to relate to the ways in which individuals experience stress. Characteristics of this personality structure include:

- A chronic sense of time urgency
- A constant involvement in multiple projects subject to deadlines

12 Cary L. Cooper, Managerial, Occupational and Organizational Stress Research (Brookfield, VT: Ashgate, 2001).
A neglect of all aspects of life except work
A highly competitive, aggressive, almost hostile orientation
An impatience with barriers to goal achievement
A tendency to measure success by quantity

Time urgency, competitiveness and hostility, multiphasic behavior, and achievement orientation characteristic of Type A personalities predispose these individuals to certain physical disorders such as heart attacks. Much of the stress they feel is of their own making rather than the product of their environment.

Finally, nonorganizational factors can also impact the stress a school administrator experiences in the work setting. Such things as life changes (the birth of a child, death of a spouse, divorce), career changes (loss of extra income), and dual careers can influence a person’s health and job performance. Dual-career problems typically arise when a married couple attempts to balance two individual careers. Major concerns for couples with dual careers include sharing household chores, child care, and job relocation. Nonorganizational factors can result in a “spillover” of stress, which may influence attitudes, behavior, and job performance.

Time Management School administrators feel more job pressures and time constraints than ever before according to a recent survey. Typically, administrators log in between 51 and 60 hours a week, and additional weekend work is not unusual.

School administrators report that they do not have sufficient time to do everything that needs to be done. The variety of problems administrators face and the large spans of control found in most school organizations make it difficult for them to give all aspects of the school program sufficient attention. Not being able to do all that they would like to do in the time available is a continuing source of stress.

According to two management consultants, proper time management is more than a tidy desk and an orderly schedule: It is a career strategy that can help turn any school executive into a high achiever. Furthermore, they assert that when school administrators allow time to control them, it can result in the kind of stress linked with high blood

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pressure, heart attacks, excessive irritability, and general anxiety.\textsuperscript{15}

**Stress and Performance** Stress can either help or hinder job performance, depending on the amount of it.\textsuperscript{16} Figure 16–2 shows the relationship between stress and job performance. The vertical axis represents the level of performance from low to high. The horizontal axis represents the amount of stress experienced. At very low levels of stress, job challenges are absent, and performance tends to be low. As stress increases, performance tends to increase because stress helps an individual activate physiological and psychological resources to meet job requirements. Eventually, stress reaches a point—the optimum stress level—that corresponds roughly with a person’s maximum daily performance capability. Past this point, performance begins to decline. Excessive levels and extended periods of stress can be dysfunctional to the organization because stress interferes with performance. Employees manifest erratic behavior, lose the ability to cope, and cannot make decisions. The key is to balance stress so that an optimum level is reached for each individual.

As noted, schools, by their very nature, are fertile grounds for conflict. The conflicts that occur frequently result in stress for principals, particularly secondary principals. Research on stress in the principalship indicates that much of it is caused by such sources as role conflict, instructional leadership demands, problem-solving role, high activity level, time-management demand, and external politics. (See Administrative Advice 16–1.)

**Effects of Stress**

As noted previously, stress is not all bad. In fact, low-level stress can enhance job performance. High-level, prolonged stress, on the other hand, can be dysfunctional to both the individual’s health and organizational performance. The effects of job stress can be manifested physiologically, psychologically, and behaviorally by the individual.

On the physiological level, all types of stress produce a chemical reaction in the body. These include changes in metabolism, increased heart and breathing rates, increased blood pressure, and increased perspiration, skin temperature, blood glucose level, and blood clotting. If stress persists and is accompanied by these physiological changes, certain annoying and serious health conditions can result. Among them are heart disease, hypertension, increased blood cholesterol levels, ulcers, arthritis, allergies, gastrointestinal problems, and even cancer.\textsuperscript{17} It should be noted, however, that stress is not the only cause of these ailments. The genetic predisposition, diet, and lifestyle of an individual can also contribute to various health conditions.

While not as much attention has been given to the impact of stress on mental health as on physical health, psychological problems at work can be equally dysfunctional to job performance. Among


\textsuperscript{17}Dianna T. Kenny, et al., *Stress and Health: Research and Clinical Applications* (Florence, KY: Gordon and Breach Publishing Group, 2000).
the more common psychological outcomes of stress are anxiety, tension, depression, boredom, and mental fatigue. The effects of these psychological states on employee job performance are lowered self-esteem and poorer intellectual functioning, including the inability to concentrate and make decisions, irritability, forgetfulness, negativism, apathy, and job dissatisfaction. These outcomes of stress can be costly to an organization. For example, there have been an increasing number of workers’ compensation awards granted to employees based on job-related psychological stress.18

The physiological and psychological effects of stress relate to how employees feel, whereas the behavioral effects indicate what employees actually do under stress. Consequently, an analysis of the behavioral effects of job stress may be most helpful to the school administrator. Any sudden

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change in behavioral patterns may suggest that an employee is experiencing a high-level stress. Among the more common indicators are extremes in appetite, drug abuse, impulsive behavior, speech difficulties, accident proneness, higher tardiness and absenteeism, and decreased performance.¹⁹

Coping with Stress

As noted earlier, school administrators, in particular, are prone to high levels of job stress. Although stress cannot be completely eliminated from their work environments, it can be managed. That is, steps can be taken to minimize its harmful effects not only for themselves but for their employees as well. Several techniques for coping with stress have been proposed. Most fall into two categories: strategies that individuals can apply themselves and procedures that the organization can provide to minimize the onset of stress for employees.

Some specific techniques that individuals can use to manage stress are the following:²⁰

- **Exercise.** A growing body of research indicates that individuals who exercise regularly are much less prone to heart disease and hypertension than those who do not exercise regularly. Exercise produces chemical responses within the body that diminish many of the physiological symptoms of stress discussed earlier (e.g., heart rate, breathing rate, blood pressure).

- **Lifestyle Changes.** The best way to reduce and prevent stress is to lead a better life. The individual who has a proper diet, gets adequate sleep, exercises regularly, and avoids smoking, alcohol, and illegal drugs is likely to minimize the harmful effects of stress.

- **Meditation.** Some research findings suggest that meditation affects basic bodily functions in a manner equivalent to deep rest. This state has been described as one of four major states of consciousness; the other three are wakefulness, dreaming, and deep sleep. Such relaxation techniques can reduce the symptoms of stress.

- **Biofeedback.** People under medical guidance can learn through electronic machines how to develop an awareness of muscle sensations throughout the body. With this knowledge comes the ability to exercise control over their involuntary nervous system, which in turn controls internal processes such as heartbeat, breathing, brain waves, and the like. Thus, biofeedback may be helpful in reducing some undesirable effects of stress.

- **Visualization.** These techniques are frequently used in combination with other stress reduction techniques, such as meditation or biofeedback, but they can also be used effectively alone. Methods of visualization can range from concentrating on a soothing color or focusing on a peaceful scene to imagining yourself performing the steps needed to achieve a goal.

- **Networking.** One means of coping with job stress is through a network of social support. This would involve building close associations with sympathetic others, especially coworkers and colleagues, who are good listeners and can build confidence.

- **Mental Health Professionals.** Trained professionals such as psychiatrists, psychologists, social workers, or mental health counselors can help reduce feelings of stress and anxiety. A number of major medical centers throughout the country offer formal stress management programs. Most programs emphasize a holistic approach to wellness, teaching stress reduction and relaxation techniques and offering nutritional counseling.

Organizational programs to help employees cope with stress are extremely popular. Such programs often include one or more of the following:²¹


Career Development

Career development refers to the methods and procedures used to plan and implement a career by means of education, training, job search, and work experiences. Career development consists of two important elements: career planning and career management. Career planning is the personal process of planning an individual’s career path. Career management focuses on plans and activities performed by the organization to enhance its employees’ careers. Because the organization’s ability to help meet the needs of its employees influences organizational effectiveness, effective career development requires a long-term fit between the individual and the organization. Figure 16–3 depicts the content of career planning and career management and shows both the interrelationship of these two processes and their relationship to career development.

Self-Appraisal The first step in the career-planning process is to gather data about one’s self. What skills do I possess? What are my aptitudes? What are my values and interests? What are my internal strengths and weaknesses? What do I enjoy doing? What do I dislike doing?

Books and various tests are available to help people assess themselves. Various tests — such as the FIRO-B; Myers-Briggs Type Indicator; Allport, Vernon, Lindsey Study of Values — measure one’s behaviors, interests, and values. Table 16–1.

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23 Aggie White, Career Planning and Networking (Belmont, CA: South-Western Thomson Learning, 2001).

Table 16–1 Profile of Self-Assessment Instruments

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<tr>
<th>Instrument</th>
<th>Description</th>
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<tr>
<td>FIRO–B</td>
<td>Available through Consulting Psychologists Press (CPP), this hand-scored instrument measures an individual’s characteristic behavior toward other people along the dimensions of inclusion, control, and affection (openness).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Myers-Briggs Type Indicator</td>
<td>The MBTI provides a measure of personality dispositions and interests based on Jung’s theory of types. These personality types can be reported according to four bipolar scales: introversion–extroversion, sensing–intuition, thinking–feeling, and judging–perceptive. This instrument can be hand scored.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Allport, Vernon, Lindsey Study of Values</td>
<td>The values indexed are theoretical, economic, aesthetic, social, political, and religious.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Test of Imagination</td>
<td>Based on the TAT approach developed by David McClelland, this instrument uses a series of pictures to measure an individual’s behavioral motivations in terms of need for achievement, affiliation, and power. Participants respond to each picture by writing a brief, imaginative story indicating what they think is happening, who the people are, what has led up to the situation being portrayed, what is being thought by whom in the picture, what will happen, etc. This instrument must be scored by a trained psychologist, and the sample organizations that use this approach have all retained McBer and Company for this service.</td>
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<tr>
<td>Work Analysis Questionnaire</td>
<td>This is another McBer instrument whereby individuals respond to a series of structured statements about the characteristics of their day-to-day work experience:</td>
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<td></td>
<td>My job requires skills on which I have to practice and improve</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Example</td>
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<td></td>
<td>My job does not require skills on which I have to practice and improve</td>
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<td></td>
<td>For each pair of statements, individuals decide which is more appropriate and indicate the point on the scale that shows their relative agreement with each. Following this assessment of the characteristics of their current job situation, individuals respond to each pair of statements in terms of the characteristics of an “ideal” work situation. This instrument must be returned to McBer for scoring and profiling.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Self-Directed Search</td>
<td>This is a self-administered, self-scored instrument that individuals can use to explore their occupational interests. It is available through CPP.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strong-Campbell Interest Inventory</td>
<td>This is a machine-scored instrument, available through CPP, that evaluates an individual’s career interests. One unique feature of this instrument is that it allows for comparisons with persons happily employed in a wide variety of occupations.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skill Search</td>
<td>This instrument, developed by Richard Gopen, helps individuals rate their social, language, math, clerical, scientific, creative, mechanical/manual, and abstract-reasoning skills along a scale from 0 (no experience, no interest) to X (no experience but interest) through F (fair) and G (good) to VG (very good). Individuals then circle those skills they would most like to use on an ideal job and categorize them according to whether they represent data, people, things, or personal experience.</td>
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Professionals in Action

PAUL L. VANCE Superintendent, District of Columbia Public Schools, Washington, D.C.

Previous Positions: Superintendent of Schools, Montgomery County, Maryland; Deputy Superintendent of Schools, Montgomery County, Maryland; Deputy Superintendent of Schools, Baltimore Public Schools.

Latest Degree and Affiliation: Ed.D., University of Pennsylvania.

Number One Influence on Career: My parents were the primary influence on my life and on my career. From them I learned the very important lesson that hard work leads to success and achievement.

Number One Achievement: The development of two urban school district reform plans, the Success for Every Student Plan and The Business Plan for Strategic Reform. The plans were designed to systematically transform the way learning and teaching were done in two very different school districts.

Number One Regret: Due to serious health problems, I had to delay more than a year the transformation of the District of Columbia Public Schools.


Additional Interests: Recreational reading, travel, the theatre.

Leadership Style: My leadership style is flexible, my career experience transformational. As an agent of change, I seek to develop a clear vision of what the future of a school system should be and actively encourage every employee to share or buy into that vision and to bring this vision into reality. A large part of my style is based on personal motivation.

Professional Vision: An educational leader cannot effectively do the job by simply being a manager or administrator. Leadership involves becoming personally invested in other people. At the heart of leadership in education is empowerment, lifting others up to do their best because they sense that you believe in them. That is the heart of instructional leadership.

Words of Advice: Genuine concern has set in regarding the future of public education in America. Taxpayers at the local, state, and federal levels wonder if the resources allocated to public education will ever produce successful learners in sufficient numbers.

Many school systems respond by appointing to superintendencies and leadership positions “CEO-types” from the business and corporate world to assume the leadership of faltering school systems. Such a construct entirely misses the point. While school systems feel pressured to respond to public criticism and the constant drumbeat of threats regarding diminished resources through the quick fix of managerial expertise, they often neglect the simple truth that educational leaders must be, first and foremost, instructional leaders.

While elements of the corporate paradigm may contribute to the genuine reform of school systems, the paradigm itself is no substitute for years of first hand, hands-on experience in the ecology of learning. Educational leader must come from within the culture of education, the climate of the entire learning process. They must understand the nuances of learning and differentiated instruction.

The corporate model, while perceived to be the panacea for certain managerial and organizational inefficiencies in a school system, lacks the soul of the learning process. No matter how efficiently a school system functions from a managerial point of view, unless its leaders understand the pedagogical process and its many variables, ultimate success will be elusive.
provides a number of the more common paper-and-pencil tests.

**Exploring Opportunities** The next step involves gathering data concerning one’s job opportunities both within and outside the organization. In large school districts, the personnel department typically publishes information regarding jobs within the organization, together with qualifications for each job. Opportunities within one’s organization are influenced by such factors as student enrollments, separations of various kinds, district policy regarding promotions from within, and internal politics. Economic conditions, the labor market, occupational choices outside the organization, and training and development programs offered by the organization should be evaluated as well.

**Setting Goals** After you have assessed yourself and determined job opportunities, the next step is to establish long-term and short-term career goals. A goal is a statement of an outcome to be accomplished. A goal may involve salary, position, or other factors. For example, a long-term career goal might include the position of superintendent of schools by age forty-five and an annual salary of $150,000 or higher by the same age. These long-term targets can serve as useful guidelines. They specify minimum standards to achieve within a definite timeline. However, shorter-range goals should be established. A person developing a career plan at age twenty-five should set some short-term targets in order to move to the long-range career objectives. For example, the twenty-five-year-old might set the following targets for age thirty-five: (1) completion of a doctorate degree in educational administration, (2) the position of high school principal, and (3) an annual salary of $75,000. In short, career plans involve many goals, which include long-range and short-range objectives.

**Preparing Plans** When preparing plans, each individual should take into account his own skills, abilities, characteristics, and experiences. That is, goals are planned individually. Specifically, preparing plans involves setting timelines, defining resources needed, and constructing procedures to avert barriers to goal achievement. For example, a principal who is unable to secure a promotion within his own school district should seek the desired position in another school district.

**Implementing Plans** Noted personnel theorist John Ivancevich recommends several guidelines that can increase the success of achieving one’s career goals:25

1. **Maintain the Greatest Number of Job Options Possible.** Avoid getting stereotyped in one role. While staff experience may be necessary when climbing the organizational ladder, line experience is also important for future career success.

2. **Don’t Waste Your Time in a Dead-End Job.** Evaluate the school district’s promotion policy. Are administrators promoted from within, or are they hired from outside the school district? If there is no upward mobility in the organization, begin looking outside the school district.

3. **Become a Crucial Subordinate to Your Direct Supervisor.** A crucial subordinate is a person whom your supervisor needs as much as you need her. Then you will move when your supervisor moves.

4. **Make Yourself Visible to Your Superiors.** Visibility is how often you are seen by your superiors. Some writers rank visibility as the most critical component for career advancement. The thinking here is that because excellent job performance is commonplace, advancement depends more on how many people know you and how important they are in the organization’s hierarchy.

5. **Nominate Yourself for Jobs.** Let your superiors know when you want a promotion. Don’t wait for your superiors to determine your job options.

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6. **If You Decide to Leave a Job, Do It at Your Convenience.** Don’t wait for a situation to get bad or for a dismissal to occur. Quit while you’re ahead.

7. **Rehearse Before Leaving a Job.** Write your letter of resignation and wait a week. Think the decision through carefully. Discuss the matter with your family. Take a vacation. Bring your vita up to date. After one week, decide whether or not to leave the job. Once you decide, act.

8. **Don’t Let Success in a Job Preempt Your Career Plans.** Take charge of your career. Consider alternative careers. Movement from a career path in public school administration to a professorship in educational administration is an example.

These guidelines are easier to follow if you have made a good self-appraisal, know about job opportunities, have prepared alternative career plans, and have set clear and concise career goals to pursue.

According to one writer, school administrators are made, not born. He claims that achieving eminence is a careful step-by-step process. It’s a campaign that can be planned. (See Administrative Advice 16–2.)

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**Career Counseling**

Career counseling can be informal or formal. The most widely used informal counseling approaches are services provided by the school district’s personnel department and career counseling provided by supervisors. More formal career counseling includes workshops, seminars, assessment centers, and professional development academies.

The personnel departments of large school districts often include counseling services for personnel who want to assess their skills, abilities, values, and interests. Career counseling by supervisors occurs during the employment interview, during performance appraisal conferences, and as part of the day-to-day supervisor-subordinate relationship. Career counseling may also occur prior to horizontal and downward transfers of personnel within the organization.

Workshops, seminars, assessment centers, and professional development academies are being used increasingly in school districts. Administrators and personnel with administrative potential have received most of the attention to date. Recently, women and minorities have been given attention. Efforts by school districts to train, develop, and promote women and minorities is a sign of the organization’s commitment to affirmative action.

**Career Pathing**

An important aspect of career management is career pathing, or a coherent progression of jobs, tracks, or routes that can be expected to lead to career goals and the ways of preparing for and moving into those jobs. For example, in a university, the job sequence involves movement from instructor to assistant professor to associate professor to professor. In many public school districts, the progression toward becoming a superintendent is from counselor to assistant principal to principal to assistant superintendent to superintendent. Certainly, there are variations to this model.

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26 Forsyth, *Career Management.*

Career pathing is useful for planning purposes but should not be administered inflexibly. For example, in the past, most school administrators progressed to the top of the school district by working in only one organization. Today many administrators have worked in several organizations before reaching the top. Furthermore, the increase in the number of women and minorities in administrative positions and an organization’s commitment to affirmative action require changes in traditional career pathing. A system that is not flexible enough to permit this will prevent talented people from progressing to high positions in the organization.28

Regardless of the chosen career path, the basic concepts of educational administration presented in this book should be helpful. Administrative success depends, to a great extent, on mastering these concepts. School administrators should have

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28Ibid.
the necessary information concerning the following areas:

- **Development of theory:** The social sciences — psychology, social psychology, sociology, anthropology, and economics, and the relationship between theory and practice
- **Management:** Organizational structure; culture; relations with federal, state, and local governments; and public relations
- **Administrative processes:** Knowledge of motivation, leadership, decision making, communications, and organizational change
- **Human resource management:** Recruitment, selection, professional development, performance appraisal, compensation, and collective bargaining
- **Legal:** Tort liability, contract liability, certification and contracts of faculty, discharge and retirement, and student personnel
- **Finance:** Federal, state, and local relationships; sources of school revenue; apportionment of state school funds; budgetary procedures; and fiscal responsibilities of school administrators
- **Curriculum:** Instructional leadership, curriculum theories and models, curriculum development, implementation, evaluation, and change

**Career Resources Planning** Effective career-management systems depend on data, which usually come from a human resource audit or inventory, job analysis, and forecasts of personnel needs. An analysis of the projected needs (demand) and supply of personnel in the field then follows. **Career resources planning** develops programs to meet human resource needs. These programs include professional development programs of various kinds and experience through work assignments. An attempt is made to match existing employees with career opportunities within the organization.

**Career Information Systems** Job postings within the organization and formal career counseling are examples of **career information systems.** Some organizations maintain a career information center for their employees. Career information systems can motivate and develop talented personnel within the organization.

### Administrator Preparation Programs

Every educational reform report since the 1980s has concluded that schools are only as good as their administrators. The prospect of inadequately trained school leaders is serious when one considers the public schools’ struggle with such problems as drug abuse, school violence and vandalism, at-risk youngsters, and AIDS. It is not surprising therefore that calls for reform of university programs for the preparation of school administrators have resounded throughout the nation.

Criticism of administrator preparation programs has been going on for some time. In 1987 the National Commission on Excellence in Educational Administration made eight specific recommendations for the improvement of university programs for the preparation of school administrators, including the establishment of a National Policy Board for Educational Administration, abolishment of educational administration programs at 300 institutions offering such programs, and reformation of state licensure programs for school administrators.29

The latest criticism came in a report released by the National Policy Board for Educational Administration, a coalition of ten national educational organizations including the American Association of School Administrators, National School Boards Association, and University Council for Educational Administration. The National Policy Board for Educational Administration asserted its commitment to the improvement of the preparation of administrators who will lead our nation’s

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elementary and secondary schools and school districts in the future.

An Agenda for Reform

The National Policy Board for Educational Administration recommends a nine-item agenda for reform in the preparation of school administrators. These nine items include the following:

1. Mount vigorous recruitment strategies to attract the brightest and most capable candidates of diverse race, ethnicity, and gender, including a minority enrollment at least comparable to the region’s minority public school enrollment.

2. Dramatically raise entrance standards to administrator preparation programs to ensure that all candidates possess strong analytic ability (assessed by a standardized national test, with admission to preparation programs limited to individual scoring in the top quartile), high administrative potential, and demonstrated success in teaching, including a master’s degree.

3. Ensure the quality of faculty in administrator preparation programs by strengthening faculty recruitment, selection, and staff development; maintaining at least five full-time faculty members who do the bulk of teaching, advising, and mentoring; and ensuring a student-faculty ratio comparable to other graduate programs.

4. Make the doctorate in educational administration (Ed.D.) a prerequisite to national certification and state licensure for full-time administrators who are in charge of a school or school system and abolish specialist and master’s degree programs in educational administration altogether.

5. Include one full-time year of academic residency and one full-time year of field residency in the Ed.D. preparation program. Permit modifications in the type or duration of the clinical residency for candidates with full-time administrative experience in education.

6. Develop the elements of the curriculum to transmit a common core of knowledge and skills, grounded in the problems of practice, including societal and cultural influences, teaching and learning processes, organizational theory, methodologies of organizational studies, leadership and management processes, policy studies, and moral and ethical dimensions of schooling.

7. Establish long-term, formal relationships between universities and school districts to create partnership sites for clinical study, field residency, and applied research.

8. Establish a national professional standards board to develop and administer a national certification examination and encourage states to require candidates for licensure to pass this examination.

9. Withhold national accreditation of administrator preparation programs unless programs meet the standards specified in the National Policy Board’s report and require that criteria for state accreditation and program approval include these standards.

The reform proposals of the National Policy Board include some controversial ideas, such as the recommendations that prospective school administrators be required to complete two years of full-time study (including one full-time year of fieldwork), obtain a doctorate degree before being permitted to administer a school or school district, and pass a national certification examination. These three recommendations, in particular, may need to be modified somewhat in order to be more acceptable to university officials, legislators, state school officers, and practitioners.

The National Policy Board for Educational Administration (NPBEA) recently released a comprehensive program for the preparation of school principals, which marked the culmination of three years of research on the knowledge and skills

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required to lead schools into the twenty-first century. Over one hundred principals, professors of education, and private sector training officials were involved in the effort, which was financed by grants from the Danforth and Geraldine R. Dodge Foundation and the Lilly Endowment. The 570-page document was designed as a new structure by which to organize the principalship and takes as its departure point twenty-one performance “domains.” The domains are the key behaviors, skills, and areas of knowledge that provide the foundation for the principalship.

The National Policy Board for Educational Administration together with the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) recently developed Standards for the American Superintendency. The draft standards encompass eleven domains in four broad areas of leadership: strategic, organizational, instructional, and political and community. The draft guidelines include a requirement that institutions have a six-month structured internship experience as part of their superintendent preparation programs. Other areas receiving increased attention are leadership, skill development, planning and evaluating instructional programs, and ethics. In 1996, the Interstate School Leaders Licensure Consortium (ISLLC), a program of the Council of Chief State School Officers (CCSSO) created standards for school principals and an examination for the state licensure for elementary and secondary principals. The six standards present a common core of knowledge, dispositions, and performances very similar to the 1993 AASA Professional Standards for the Superintendency and the National Council for the Accreditation of Colleges of Education’s (NCATE’s) Curriculum Guidelines for School Administrators. Approximately thirty-six states require the exam to gain the principal’s credential. And in 2002, the Educational Leadership Constituent Council (ELCC) updated the ISLLC standards for the preparation of school administrators to include an administrative internship.

Restructuring Efforts Under Way

Several efforts are under way across the United States to restructure preparation programs for school administrators. Universities, school districts, and state boards of education are at work revamping curricula, forging stronger relationships between universities and local school systems, and insisting on practical exercises, fieldwork, and internships for prospective administrators.

National Alliance for Developing School Leaders

The National Alliance came into existence in 1990. This project represents a response to the call for change in preparation programs for school administrators. The Alliance consists of four universities: Brigham Young University, East Tennessee University, Florida State University, and Virginia Polytechnic Institute, and the National Association of Secondary School Principals (NASSP). The primary funding source for the project is the Danforth Foundation.

Three major objectives provide the framework for the Alliance initiative: (1) to change the way principal preparation occurs; (2) to determine the applicability of NASSP administrator training materials in restructured program models; and (3) to share the findings and results of the project with other universities as a means of modifying principal preparation programs throughout the country.

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31 National Policy Board for Educational Administration, Principals for Our Changing Schools: Knowledge and Skill Base (Fairfax, VA: NPBEA, 1993).


Stanford University: Problem-Based Program

The School of Education at Stanford University recently began a new principal preparation program rooted in three basic assumptions about the instructional process: (1) instruction should be problem-based; (2) it should emphasize the view that leadership entails getting results through others; and (3) it should encourage self-directed learning.  

Stanford’s program is composed of three distinct instructional components, including regular courses, problem-based practicums, and an internship. The coursework comprises 60 percent of the students’ university-based program of study. Students spend the remaining 40 percent of their time at the university in a practicum.

The practicums are organized into instructional blocks made up of problems frequently encountered by elementary, middle, and high school principals. Students work in small groups, during flexible time blocks of instruction, to solve a particular problem. Some are assigned to group process roles of project leader, facilitator, or recorder. The role of each student varies from block to block. The small groups are provided a wide range of physical and human resources, including participating professors as well as practicing principals from the area. Summer classes provide an opportunity for full-time study in cohort groups of twelve to eighteen students.

University of Colorado at Denver: Problem-Based Program

The School of Education at the University of Colorado at Denver (UCD) also has developed a problem-based program for the preparation of principals. The program was developed collaboratively with school administrators through a partnership of UCD faculty in the divisions of administration, curriculum, and supervision; local school district principals; and private sector executives from IBM, Hewlett Packard, U.S. West, and Storage Tek.

UCD’s program is innovative in that university faculty from several divisions, practicing school principals, and private sector executives coteach and supervise problem-solving experiences in several modules. Traditional coursework is limited, and much of the learning occurs in “problem blocks” in which faculty/administrator/executive coaches assist students in developing solutions to difficult administrative practice problems.

Stanford’s and UCD’s problem-based programs were inspired by recent developments in medical education in Europe and the United States. At Harvard University, for example, medical students no longer begin their training with two years of theoretical studies. Instead, they are formed into small teams and, under the supervision of regular and clinical faculty, tackle medical problems from the beginning. Research indicates that students in problem-based medical programs such as this learn better and can access knowledge more readily.

Duquesne University: Interdisciplinary Program

In the summer of 1994 Duquesne’s Interdisciplinary Doctoral Program for Educational Leaders enrolled its first cohort of thirty-six. The cohort is divided into smaller groups of approximately six members each, plus an advisor. Advisors visit cohort members in their work settings twice a year. In addition, each member of the cohort selects a mentor who works with the participant for a three-year period, judging the student’s success or failure in meeting practicum requirements. In developing its practicum, Duquesne’s program relies heavily on the advice of local education leaders and AASA’s Standards for the American Superintendency.

Duquesne faculty as well as mentors are trained to use electronic networks to facilitate regular communication. Cross-disciplinary study (in psychology, sociology, social psychology, economics, and education) includes instruction via practitioner networks.

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seminars, simulations, case studies, and field studies. Course content focuses on leadership and district culture; policy and governance; communications and community relations; organizational management; curriculum planning and development; instructional management; human resources management; and values and ethics of leadership. In learning content, heavy emphasis is placed on team building, shared leadership, collaboration, and instructional improvement.

Sam Houston State University: Integrated Leadership Program With the support of the Texas Higher Education Coordinating Board and the Texas State University System Board of Regents, the Department of Educational Leadership and Counseling in the College of Education and Applied Science at Sam Houston State University developed the Center for Research and Doctoral Studies in Educational Leadership (CRDSEL). The purpose of CRDSEL is to serve as a support structure that integrates scholarship, teaching, research, mentoring, and field service in educational leadership.

Faculty, students, and area school leaders work collaboratively to create linkages among faculty research, dissertation research, and reflective practice through the design of collaborative research projects and the dissemination of the results. The center will advance the reflective practitioner model of the doctoral program. The goals of CRDSEL are to support a climate of inquiry and research for the students, faculty, and mentors participating in the doctoral program; seek financial and collaborative support from governmental agencies, businesses, and professional organizations for the center's activities; build mentoring resources of school leaders (local, state, national, and international) to support the students enrolled in the doctoral program; provide support for faculty within the university who are not teaching in the doctoral program; build research and support resources in specific areas; and establish and maintain communication networks through databases, technological support services, newsletters, workshops, professional associations, and job-alike networks.

CRDSEL provides a support structure for the newly created doctoral program in educational leadership at Sam Houston State University. The integrated doctoral program requires a concentration in educational leadership consisting of four components: at least 18 hours in a leadership core, 15 hours in a research component, 21 hours in a specialization area (instructional leadership and/or content fields), and 12 hours in cognate electives (selected from graduate courses in business, criminal justice, humanities, library science, professional education, mathematics, sciences, and related areas). The completion of a dissertation and a one-year supervised internship are also required.

The doctoral program in educational leadership is designed for a cohort group. This means that each year twelve to fifteen students are admitted to a specific cohort group and are required to take the four curricular program components at the same time. These are spaced over a three-year period during three trimesters: summer, fall, and spring.

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Women and Minorities in Educational Administration

Concerns about career development for women and minorities is a direct outgrowth of equal employment opportunity and affirmative action legislation. Although women and minorities are advancing within the private sector, they are still underrepresented in educational administration. When the pool of leadership talent is artificially and arbitrarily reduced, it deprives society of unrealized potential. The inequity of influence based on gender and race in our school systems is the focus of this section.

Women in Educational Administration

It is unusual to find women running our nation’s school systems. About 13.2 percent of America’s school districts have women superintendents.38

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This is surprising when one considers that the education field since the beginning of the twentieth century has been predominantly female. At present, women constitute 72 percent of the nation’s teachers and 43 percent of the principals.39

Several studies have suggested that there are career differences between male and female school administrators. Women have more years of teaching experience than men (fifteen years versus five years) and are older when appointed to administrative positions (median age forty for women, thirty-two for men). Hence, women are deprived of equal access to administrative positions. In addition, one study found that both groups worked approximately fifty-five hours per week, although the women earned substantially less than men.

Discrimination continues to plague women, not only in terms of salary but also in terms of access into administrative positions and sexual harassment once they make their way into the administrative hierarchy. In fact, by the mid-1980s, women were dropping out of administrative positions more frequently than men. Dissatisfaction with institutional decisions, decision-making processes, current leadership, limited upward mobility, lack of mentoring or sponsorship, sexual harassment, and feelings of isolation were cited as contributing factors.40

Numerous frameworks for explaining the underrepresentation of women in educational administration have been proposed.41 These are typically placed within the domains of internal and external barriers.42

**Internal Barriers** Internal barriers include long-established beliefs that are frequently referred to as stereotypes or myths. These barriers include socialization patterns and background experiences that typify many women and gender-role stereotypes about the abilities of women, their motivations, and their career aspirations.

The concept of socialization focuses on the idea that women have been trained to fill nurturing roles rather than leadership roles in society. Traditional cultural definitions of femininity emphasize attributes such as sensitivity, conformity, lack of assertiveness, and dependency. However, school administrators are expected to be aggressive, assertive, and competitive; but, at the same time, these traits manifested in women are perceived as negative. For this reason, society conditions both men and women to believe that women are not as capable of holding leadership positions as men. This notion is not supported by research.43

Perhaps partly as a function of their socialization and role conflict is the myth that women tend to have lower career aspirations than men do. Genevieve Brown and Beverly Irby conclude from their research that, contrary to popular belief, women do aspire to administrative careers. These authors suggest that although women have the same career ambitions as men, they do not have the same opportunities. Furthermore, women are denied access to the administration hierarchy, not because of lack of aspirations, but because of “faulty characteristics” unintentionally ascribed to them—characteristics that assume their responsibility to perform effectively as school administrators.44

**External Barriers** External barriers are inherent in the employing organizations. School districts are often designed in ways that help preserve the existing structure. These structures are created either unconsciously or consciously, to ensure the

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41For a comprehensive treatment of women in educational administration, see Shakeshaft, “The Struggle to Include a More Gender Inclusive Profession,” pp. 99–118.


43Ibid.

continued participation of the dominant group—that is, white males—and restrict entry and career advancement of other groups—for example, women and minorities. External barriers include such factors as recruitment and selection strategies, evaluation and reward systems, power and authority systems, and other norms and expectations of the organization.45

Probably the most far-reaching barrier denying women entrance and advancement in public school administration is role discrimination. These are societal perceptions of traditional and appropriate female and male roles. Society views administration as a predominantly male job. As nurturers and caregivers, women are supposed to be content in instructional roles. That is, men are supposed to be the leaders, and women are supposed to be the followers.46

As a result, those who hire school administrators, the majority of whom are male, expect hires to be male as well. Artificial and arbitrary non-job-related limitations are placed on women when a position is filled. Examples are failure to recruit; the use of criteria that favor men, such as administrative experience in finance, physical facilities, and contract negotiations; encouragement and sponsorship of male applicants; and excluding females from the power and authority structures of the organization. One author notes that sponsors or mentors encourage and select their protégés and these protégés are selected in the likeness of the mentors. Because men are in the dominant position in most administrative positions, women are less likely to be selected because they do not share the “white male norms” of male mentors.47

What results, in essence, is a circular socialization process. Men ensure the continued perpetuation of the dominant group, that is, white males.

Racial/Ethnic Minorities in Educational Administration

Members of minority groups are even rarer than women in public school administration. At the four surveyed levels—superintendent, assistant superintendent, principal, and assistant principal—the breakdown is as follows: 6.5 percent of the nation’s superintendents, 17.3 percent of the assistant superintendents, 20.6 percent of the principals, and 28.5 percent of the assistant principals are individuals from racial or ethnic minority groups.48

These results can be contrasted with the findings of an earlier study that profiled superintendents and principals nationwide, based on a random sample of 1704 public school superintendents, 1349 public school principals, and 524 principals in private schools fifteen years ago.49 The major difference in the results from the two studies was the percentage of racial minorities in the principalship. The Feistritzer study reported that 90 percent of the public school principals were white. The Institute for Educational Leadership (IEL) survey found that 79 percent of the principals were white, while 21 percent belonged to racial minorities.

Analyzing black representation in school administration separately, Feistritzer found that 1 percent of the nation’s superintendents are black. IEL’s more recent study found that 2.8 percent of the nation’s superintendents are black. Furthermore, Feistritzer found that 6 percent of the nation’s principals are black. IEL reported 12 percent black principals. This compares with 16 percent of blacks in the U.S. population, 14 percent of all employed persons, 8 percent of all college graduates, 9 percent of workers in professional occupations, 8 percent of executives and managers in the private sector,

46 Grogan, Voices of Women Aspiring to the Superintendency.
47 Shakeshaft, “The Struggle to Create a More Gender-Inclusive Profession.”
49 Emily Feistritzer, Profile of School Administrators in the United States (Washington, DC: The National Center for Education Information, 1988).
and 8 percent of the nation’s teachers. These statistics reveal that racial minorities, including blacks, are still disproportionately represented in school administration.

We speculate that many of the same internal and external barriers cited with respect to the restricted access of women into educational administration apply to minorities as well. One additional concern is the number of blacks in teaching. Unless there is a sudden increase in the number of black teachers, the number of black school administrators in the United States could begin to decline during the twenty-first century.

Every time a talented minority or female student opts for a “job” rather than a “career,” society loses. School districts need the brightest and best people — whatever their race or gender — in leadership positions. (See Administrative Advice 16–3.)

**Administrative Advice 16–3**

**Positive Role Models Can Combat Stereotyping**

Helping students encounter positive role models is one way to diminish career stereotyping. Another way is to provide bias-free programs and curriculum materials. Here are some steps school administrators and teachers can take:

- **Use Unbiased Materials.** Select textbooks and other classroom resources that fairly represent all kinds of people.
- **Offer Career-Awareness Programs.** Career awareness should begin in the early elementary school years. Such programs should introduce students to a wide range of appealing role models; at higher grade levels, the programs could introduce the idea of building a long-term career plan that allows for flexibility and mobility.
- **Give Academic Guidance.** Students need to know why rigorous study and high-level courses are important to their future careers. This academic guidance should begin at an early age because many people commit to a field as early as middle school.
- **Counsel Students on Higher Education.** All students, even those who don’t expect to go to college, can benefit from guidance on continuing their education after high school. Consider, also, the possibility of women’s colleges: Some believe that such institutions can give young women a healthy self-image and a head start in the work world.
- **Use Role Models.** Invite women and minority community members to school to “model” specific careers, especially those in which women and minorities are underrepresented. School-business partnerships can be a source of such role models. Or you might use videotapes and films that present images of women and minorities doing successful, satisfying work in the middle and upper levels in their fields.


**Programs for Women and Minorities**

Programs exist in a variety of forms to help women and racial minorities who are interested in careers...
in educational administration. The programs are designed specifically to address their problems: socialization patterns, low aspirational levels, discrimination, and limited access of both groups into positions in educational administration. Some programs still exist; others have been discontinued. The following are highlights of these programs.

**Administrative Intern Program (AIP)** Since 1980 the Duval County (Jacksonville, Florida) School District has been operating AIP for women and racial minorities. Its purpose is threefold: to address the need for securing a balance of women and racial minority staff within each of the district’s seven divisions that approximates the general composition of the relevant external labor market, to broaden the base from which female and racial minority future administrators might be identified, and to render the women and racial minorities more competitive with respect to the hiring process.

**Leadership Experience Opportunity for Teachers (LEO-T)** In 1986 the Dade County (Florida) schools instituted a program that offers qualified teachers an opportunity to become assistant principals and principals. Dade County places special emphasis on recruiting from groups that traditionally have been underrepresented in the principalship: ethnic and language minorities and women. Each year, after the applicants are carefully screened, twenty-six candidates participate in two nine-week school assignments supervised and mentored by carefully selected, experienced principals. The LEO-T program has been remarkably successful. Approximately three-quarters of the teachers who have completed the program are now assistant principals or principals in the Dade County schools.

**Minority Administrator’s Program (MAP)** Begun in 1986, the University of South Carolina’s MAP is designed specifically for prospective black minority school administrators. Its purpose is threefold: to identify a cadre of minority educators to serve as public school administrators, to enhance the problem-solving skills of prospective black school administrators, and to place black minorities in administrative positions.

**Lyman T. Johnson Fellows Minority Leadership Development Program** In 1989 the University of Louisville and the Jefferson County (Kentucky) Public Schools developed the Lyman T. Johnson Fellows Leadership Development Program. Its purpose is twofold: to identify specific needs of minority candidates for the principalship and to provide developmental preparation activities that maximize each participant’s potential. The program focuses on the individual through collegial support groups, mentoring activities, simulations, field experiences, and course offerings in educational administration at the University of Louisville. It is funded by the University of Louisville’s Center for Excellence.

**Women in Educational Leadership (WIEL)** To provide aspiring women leaders with relevant coursework, Genevieve Brown and Beverly Irby have designed a course specifically to address the needs of women. The original course, “Women in Educational Leadership,” was sponsored as a pilot course by the Texas Council of Women School Executives in 1992. Since then, more than 500 women have participated in the course. The course is designed to address three broad categories of women’s needs: socialization into the profession, leadership identity, and career advancement. In addition to presentations by successful women leaders and readings in professional journals and textbooks, students are taught and required to prepare a professional portfolio and later a career advancement portfolio. Students are also provided with a resource manual describing proven strategies for increasing women’s access to leadership positions, and annual reunions have been scheduled on a regular basis. Numerous female

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graduates from the program have been placed in leadership positions in Houston (Texas) area schools and elsewhere.

**Women’s Educational Equity Act Program (WEEAP)**  Several programs for women in educational administration are funded by WEEAP. They include Women in Administration Institute (WAI) developed at the University of Southern Florida; Sex Equity in Educational Leadership (SEEL) developed in Oregon; Internships, Certification Equity/Leadership and Support (ICES) developed in Kansas; Assisting Women to Advance through Resources and Encouragement (Aware) sponsored by AASA; Women in School Administration (WISA) sponsored by AASA’s rural school district’s consortium; and Female Leaders for Administration and Management in Education (FLAME). These six programs provide female aspirants to positions in educational administration with entry-level strategies. The programs offer workshops on topics such as networking, self-concept, enlisting sponsors, conflict management, assertiveness training, and interviewing techniques.

Other programs for women and minorities include the Northwest Women in Educational Administration (NWEA), the Oregon Network, the New England Coalition of Educational Leadership (NECEL), the Women’s Caucus of the Pennsylvania School Administrator’s Association (PASA), the Institute for Administrative Advancement at the University of Wisconsin–Madison, the San Diego Minority and Women Administrators’ Training Project at San Diego State University, and the Leadership Skills for Women Administrators at the University of South Carolina.

### Summary

1. A career can be defined as a series of movements in an organization, a profession, or a sequence of work-related experiences during a person’s lifetime.

2. Careers in educational administration follow predictable stages that include apprenticeship, independent contributor, mentor, and sponsor.

3. School administrators are subject to high levels of personal and job-related stress.

4. Stress is the physiological and psychological response of an individual to demands, constraints, and opportunities involving uncertainty and important outcomes.

5. Stress comes from many sources, including organizational, personal, and nonorganizational factors. Organizational factors are excessively high or low job demands, role conflicts and ambiguities, poor interpersonal relations, transition from one career stage to another, and overpromotion or underpromotion. Personal factors include need for achievement, capabilities, and personality. Nonorganizational factors are life and career changes and dual-career problems.

6. Career development is another important responsibility of school administrators. School administrators must take charge of their own careers in order to maximize their success. Because school administrators supervise others, they will also be involved in assisting subordinates in their career development.

7. Career development from both the individual’s and the organization’s standpoint involves several techniques. Individual strategies include self-appraisal, exploring opportunities, setting goals, preparing plans, and implementing plans. Organizational techniques include career counseling, career pathing, career resources planning, and career information systems.

8. Career development for women and minorities is extremely important. In the past, these groups have been subjected to reduced career opportunities in educational administration. This situation is changing as a result of programs designed specifically to help women and minorities to become more integrated into educational administration.
Key Terms

career
career stage
apprentice stage
independent contributor stage
networking
mentoring
mentor stage
sponsor stage
stress
stressors
Type A personality
meditation
biofeedback
career development
career planning
career management
career counseling
career pathing
career resources planning
career information systems

Discussion Questions

1. What is a career? How does it differ from a job?
2. What are the stages identified in Dalton and Thompson’s career stages framework? What things can individuals and organizations do that might enhance the development of individuals at various stages in their careers?
3. What are the sources, symptoms, and effects of administrative stress?
4. What are some individual and organizational strategies for coping with administrative stress?
5. What are the special problems women and minorities face in their careers in educational administration? What programs exist to help them overcome these problems?

Suggested Readings

Blackmore, Jill. Troubling Women: Feminism, Leadership, and Educational Change (Bristol, PA: Taylor and Francis, 1999). The book traces women managers’ experiences using a wide-ranging, interdisciplinary analysis by examining historical and global perspectives; individuals and organizational issues; and future trends in the issues of job discrimination, legal realities and remedies, and the restructuring of organizations from a feminist perspective.

Brown, Genevieve, and Beverly J. Irby. Women and Leadership: Creating Balance in Your Life (Commack, NY: Nova Science, 1998). In this book of readings, the authors discuss common barriers for women including low confidence, perceived lack of advancement opportunities, poor self-image, and weak determination and motivation. The authors point out that such barriers can persuade some women to relinquish their aspirations for a career in administration. For some, who weather the difficulties, the results can be highly confirming and motivating. Although cultural sexism is a consistent theme in these women’s stories, so are strength, determination, and inspiration.

Brunner, C. Cryss (ed.). Sacred Dreams: Women and the Superintendency (Albany, NY: State University of New York Press, 1999). Aspiring, as well as current, female superintendents will benefit immeasurably from a careful reading of this treatise that addresses internal and external barriers to positions in educational administration, networking, mentoring, job hunting, managing time and stress, and balancing one’s life.

Grogan, Margaret. Voices of Women Aspiring to the Superintendency (Albany, NY: State University of New York Press, 1996). The author used both quantitative and qualitative research methods to discover what a large cross-section of women superintendents are really thinking and experiencing in the workplace.

Irby, Beverly J., and Genevieve Brown. Women Leaders: Structuring Success (Dubuque, IA: Kendall/Hunt, 1998). The authors, mentors to the women who aspire to school leadership
positions, recognize the importance of the preparation of strong leaders who can successfully impact and reform schools. By sharing advice and lessons learned from their wealth of research and experience, the authors enable aspiring women administrators to broaden their panoramas, illuminate their pathways, and inform their practice.
Julia, Margaret. *Multiculturalism and Gender* (Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole, 1999). The author does a good job of blending the latest theory and research on gender with sound practical recommendations for addressing critical issues for women in today’s workplace.