A HISTORICAL STUDY OF WOMEN IN PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION FROM 1900 - 1977

by

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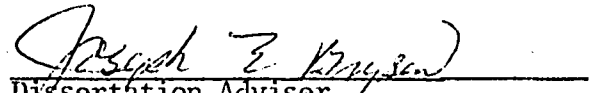

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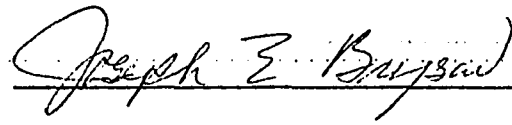
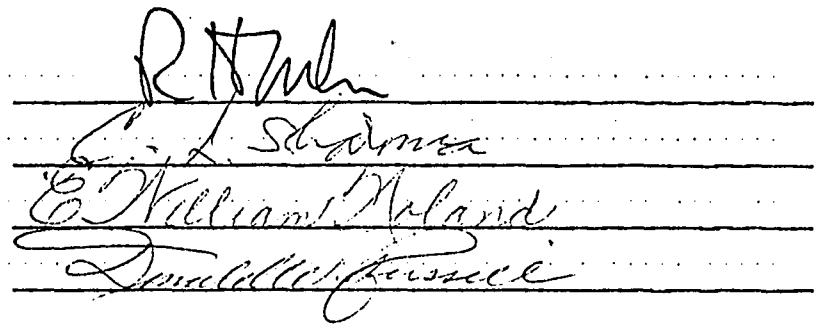
Dissertation Adviser 

Committee Members 

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This study of American Women in Public School Administration investigated the role of women in school administration from the beginning of the century (1900) through 1977. Some of the women who have served in an administrative capacity and have made outstanding contributions to education were included in this study as a means of establishing credibility toward women's performance in leadership roles. The lack of women at the upper levels of the educational hierarchy is a situation which this study attempted to investigate along with the changes in the status of women that the recent Women's Rights Movement and federal legislation have initated.

The more notable research on women in administration offered documented evidence for the study, although the majority of the studies were concentrated on the principalship at the elementary level. Books and articles concerning the role of women in society furnished much evidence of the lack of women in decision-making roles. From this material only the most significant information was gleaned. The information for the biographical sketches was acquired from both published and unpublished materials.

Based on the information this research yielded,the following conclusions were made:

1. Women usually place their home and family responsibilities first. The bio-social role takesprecedence over the occupational career role.

2. Women in the area of public school administration usually serve as principals of elementary schools. As more and more men enter the profession, women administrators at all levels are being replaced by men.

3. The number of women in the position of superintendent continues to decrease. Additional associate and assistant superintendent positions have been opened to women, but they do not hold an equitable share of positions even at this level.

4. Advancing to administrative positions for most women is difficult and many women face most of the same problems. The difficulties appear to stem from old beliefs, attitudes and prejudices that have prevailed since the dawn of civilization.

5. Women must learn the strategies and skills needed for moving into the administrative mainstream.

6. The administrative talents of women in the public school sector of this country are not adequately recognized nor are they utilized to the extent that federal legislation designates. Women have less experience than their male colleagues in the area of administration in that their on-the-job training has been different from that of men.

7. Recent federal legislative action has provided the laws giving women the legal means to achieve equality in employment, but women still do not understand the unwritten subtleties that prevent them from gaining acceptance in the administrative hierarchy.

8. The number of women with credentials qualifying them for administrative positions is much greater than those being hired for these positions. The lack of preparation by women in administration does not

appear to be the basis for limiting the number of women employed in this area. The existing problem appears to relate to the hiring practices of the local systems rather than in the preparation of the candidate. The available information shows that there are sufficient qualified women from which to choose female administrative staff at all levels of the educational hierarchy.

9. The policy-making group in public school administration consists almost entirely of men. Women are present at the very lowest level of the policy-making group and then in token numbers which leaves sexual democracy in public education virtually non-existent. Most women are placed in the support roles where they carry out the decisions of their superiors or at the lowest level of the decision-making hierarchy.

10. Public school curriculum and teachers have a responsibility to increase student awareness of the subtleties of discrimination. In the next decade it is most likely that sex discrimination will not be accepted by women.

11. Women are needed in decision-making roles in proportion to their numbers in the profession. The influence of women in decision-making roles would help the men in these positions to become more aware of sex stereotyping and to make more equitable decisions on behalf of women.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to express her sincere appreciation to Dr. Joseph E. Bryson, who served as chairman for her committee, for his counsel and guidance; to the members of her committee, Dr. E. William Noland, Dr. Donald W. Russell, Dr. C. L. Sharma and Dr. Roland H. Nelson for their suggestions and encouragement; and to her family for their understanding and expressions of confidence.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Since the beginning of education in America, in 1642, women have played an important role in shaping the education of youth. Women have also been instrumental in perpetuating the idea of the responsibility of the school in meeting the needs of society. Rarely, however, have women been involved in leadership and decision-making roles in education. In order to place the involvement of women in public school administration in proper perspective, the writer has included in the introduction a brief overview of the historical developments of women's role in the educational profession.

American women have found it difficult to overcome the universal conviction that their primary responsibility is that of homemaking and the rearing of children.[1] The English Common Law which allowed a married woman no existence apart from her husband was the major factor which promoted this idea throughout the early American colonies.[2] During the Colonial period, women were expected to cultivate the attributes of charm and virtue. It was commonly believed that intellectual pursuits

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[1]Cynthia F. Epstein, Woman's Place (Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1971), p. 43.

[2]Elizabeth Koontz, The Best Kept Secret of the Past 5,000 Years: Women are Ready for Leadership in Education (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1972), p. 12.

would tend to leave them sexless and endanger their health to the extent that the propagation of the race would be endangered.[3]

Colonial attitudes failed to recognize the fact that the freedoms so sacred to a democracy should apply equally to both sexes. These attitudes tended to deprive women of full human dignity - the recognition of the ability to reason, to make sound judgments, and to assume social responsibility.[4] Dating from these early restraints, the social status afforded women has had a direct influence on their advancement in the educational profession. "For ages (women were) denied an education, except the most rudimentary, because it was not thought necessary for (them) to have one."[5]

Numerous women worked long and hard to establish education for the female sex. This effort was reflected in the establishment of private girls' schools and the concerted effort to make the curriculum at these schools equivalent to that found in boys' schools.[6]

The Dame schools, private elementary schools that were primitive in nature and usually taught by women in their homes, were the primary

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[3]Alma Lutz, Emma Willard: Pioneer Educator of American Women (Boston: Beacon Press, 1964), p. vii.

[4]Eleanor Flexner, A Century of Struggle : The Woman's Rights Movement in the United States (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1975), p. vi.

[5]Belle Squire, The Woman Movement in America (Chicago: A. C. McClurg and Company, 1911), p. 7.

[6]Edward T. James, ed., Notable American Women 1607-1950, vol. 1: A Biographical Dictionary, 3 vols. (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1971), p. xx.

source of education for girls during the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries.[7] Although boys were permitted to continue their education in a Latin grammar school, girls usually terminated their education with the Dame school.[8]

"Women were not formally recognized as teachers until after the Revolution...,"[9] and their role in educating the young was considered a very minor one. A general attitude of indifference to the education of women existed at this time. However, during the decade following the Revolutionary War, the town elementary schools were open to girls in the New England states.[10] In most instances girls were permitted to attend the town elementary schools during the summer or after regular school hours when boys were not present.[11] In a few instances women taught during the summer months. The lack of education prevented women from being seriously considered for teaching positions on a large scale.[12]

When the Industrial Revolution increased job opportunities outside the home, more and better educational opportunities for women also

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[7]Edwin Grant Dexter, The History of Education in the United States (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1922), p. 51.

[8]Ibid.

[9]Richard G. Boone, Education in The United States (Freeport, New York: Books for Libraries Press, 1971), p. 51.

[10]Willystine Goodsell, ed., Pioneers of Women's Education in The United States (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, Inc., 1931), p. 8.

[11]Stuart G. Noble, A History of American Education (New York: Rinehart and Company, Inc., 1954), p. 270.

[12]Willard S. Elsbree, The American Teacher (New York: American Book Company, 1939), p. 199.

occurred.[13] According to Koontz, "following the War of 1812, women from the New England and middle Atlantic states for the first time took factory work."[14]

It was during this first half of the nineteenth century that women became more aggressive in the pursuit of educational opportunities. Emma Willard, Catherine Beecher, and Mary Lyon were three outstanding women involved in this movement.[15] Like Horace Mann in his efforts to establish common schools, these three women crusaded to arouse the consciousness of the people to the need of education for women. During this period there occurred a renewed enthusiasm for learning and concern that education should be available to everyone.[16] Elsbree perceives in this enthusiasm an opportunity for women to enter the teaching profession: "The spread of the infant schools and the evolution of the primary school as an integral part of the educational system increased the demand for teachers..."[17] During the Civil War, as in other war years when men have been called to serve in the military, women were afforded the opportunity to enter the labor market in greater numbers by taking jobs as teachers.[18]

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[13]Thomas Woody, History of Women's Education in The United States (New York: The Science Press, 1929), p. 96.

[14]Koontz, Best Kept Secret, p. 15.

[15]Noble, History of American Education, p. 276.

[16]Boone, Education in the United States, p. 362.

[17]Elsbree, American Teacher, p. 200.

[18]Louise Schultz Boas, Woman's Education Begins (Norton, Massachusetts: Wheaton College Press, 1935), pp. 216 & 264.

Teaching, at this time, was virtually the only occupation open to women of middle class status.[19] Teaching thus provided women with the opportunity to contribute a useful service to society. Significantly, it was considered suitable women's work in that the qualities associated with teaching were held to be similar to those of mother and homemaker.[20]

Following the Civil War, the number of women employed in the field of education increased until "by 1870, nearly two-thirds of public school teachers were women."[21] The Western section of the United States recognized the need for women's education and offered equal opportunities for both sexes as schools were established. In this section of the nation, women were recognized as competent educators and elevated to administrative positions during the decade prior to the turn of the century.[22] Throughout the nation in the early part of the twentieth century, the number of women increased in teaching and in administration.[23] This trend continued until the beginning of the 1930's, at which time women

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[19]Robert W. Smuts, Women and Work in America (New York: Columbia University Press, 1959), p. 19.

[20]Emma Lydia Bolzau, Almira Hart Lincoln Phelps: Her Life and Works (Lancaster, Pennsylvania: The Science Printing Company, 1936), pp. 315-316.

[21]Chester M. Nolte, "Women's Rights in Education? The Same as Yours, Man," The American School Board Journal 160 (January 1973): 63.

[22]Noble, A History of American Education, p. 322.

[23]Woody, Women's Education in the United States, p. 518.

teachers were in the majority, but female administrators continued to be in the minority. The decade of prosperity that followed World War I provided many opportunities for the employment of women and increased the need for appropriate education.[24] During the 1920's, following the suffrage victory, women's interest in becoming better equipped to gain economic independence increased. At this time women were earning about 47 percent of the baccalaureate degrees and about 15 percent of the doctorates.[25]

The depression years of the nineteen thirties were not conducive to the advancement of women.[26] The limited number of available jobs revived certain historical attitudes whereby the employment of men took precedence over the employment of women. This attitude was based on the premise that the man was head of the household and the main support of the family. Dr. Willard S. Elsbree's article, appearing in the New York Times in 1931, included the following observation concerning the status of teaching during this period:

> Over-feminization and lack of adequate publicity in the school system have caused a lowering of the standards from an economic point of view...More than three-quarters of public school teachers are women...The presence of such a large proportion of women in the teaching profession has a decided

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[24]Ruth Emily McMurry, "A Historical Introduction to Modern Problems in Women's Education," in Education of Women in a Democracy (New London, Connecticut: Connecticut College, 1940). p. 4.

[25]Patricia A. Graham, "Women in Academe," in The Professional Woman, ed., Athene Theadore (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Schenkman Publishing Company, Inc., 1971), p. 722.

[26]McMurry, "Modern Problems in Women's Education," p. 4.

> tendency to lower salaries, since women are notoriously paid less for the same work than men with equivalent qualifications...[27]

The economic changes which occurred following World War II from production to service industries were a factor which opened the job market to women. Similar to the representation in other areas of employment, women were evident in public school administration. Statistics from a survey taken in 1951 show that in rural schools women held over 36 percent of all administrative positions. The survey further revealed that in cities with populations exceeding 30,000: "...56.1 percent of the elementary school principals..., 9.5 percent of the junior high school principals, and 7.9 percent of the senior high school principals were women."[28]

During the nineteen fifties and sixties, a definite change in the power structure of the public schools occurred. These were the years when the existing philosophy was that if schools had the money, the expertise in new curriculum, and the needed change in organizational pattern, all educational needs would be fulfilled.[29] As public schools

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[27]Willard S. Elsbree, "Low Teaching Pay Laid to Women," in Women: Their Changing Roles, ed., Elizabeth Janeway (New York: Arno Press, 1973), p. 168.

[28]Kathryn E. Steinmetz, "Women in School Administration," National Education Association Journal 40 (October 1951): 488.

[29]Hierarchy, Power and Women in Educational Policy Making (U. S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 117 841, October 1975), p. 2.

were consolidated for efficiency, they became important both as a vehicle of social change and as an institution of big business. The government's interest in educational research increased as a mammoth effort was made to bring new knowledge and techniques to the public schools.[30]

The new operational concept for the school became comparable to that of a modern corporation. The larger the schools became, the larger the salaries. Fewer women, however, occupied leadership positions. Women with their limited knowledge of big business and power were handicapped in securing administrative positions.[31] Gross and Trask stated that in 1928 the majority, fifty-five percent, of the primary school principals were women and that in 1958 this percentage had dropped to thirty-eight percent.[32] Cronin observed that women who held principalships in the nineteen forties had since been replaced with males.[33]

Recognition of the needs and problems of women reached new heights in 1963 as a result of Betty Friedan's book, The Feminine Mystique, and the establishment of the Commission on the Status of Women by President

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[30] Ibid., pp. 2-3.

[31] Ibid., p. 3.

[32] Neal Gross and Anne E. Trask, The Sex Factor and The Management of Schools (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1976), p. 3.

[33] Joseph M. Cronin, "Educating the Majority: A Womanpower Policy for the 1970's," Phi Delta Kappan, October 1973, p. 138.

John F. Kennedy.[34] "A milestone in the progress of equal employment opportunity for women was reached with the passage of Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964."[35]

In the early nineteen seventies statistics still indicated a downward trend for women in educational administration. The National Education Association report shows that from 1971 - 1973, the proportion of women holding principalships dropped from twenty-one percent to nineteen and six tenths percent at the elementary level, from three and five tenths percent to two and nine tenths percent at the junior high level, and from three percent to one and four tenths percent at the senior high level.[36]

The Women's Liberation Movement scored a major breakthrough in 1972 with legislation providing equal opportunities in employment and education through the revision of the Civil Rights Act and the advent of Title IX.[37]

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[34] Edwin C. Lewis, Developing Women's Potential (Ames, Iowa: Iowa State University Press, 1968), p. 4.

[35] U. S., Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, 1969 Handbook on Women Workers, Bulletin 294 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1969), p. 255.

[36] National Education Association, 26th Biennial Salary and Staff Survey of Public-School Professional Personnel, 1972-73, Research Report 1973-R5, (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1973), p. 9.

[37] Jacqueline Parker Clement, Sex Bias in School Leadership, Evanston, Illinois: Integrated Education Associates, 1975, pp. 22-26.

During the current decade of the seventies, when women's educational status is beginning to equal that of men, much frustration occurs when women realize that advancement to the upper hierarchial ranks is discouraged by the power and authority structure of the American social system. Although numerous social pressures yet remain to uphold the status quo, the lack of a leadership image still appears to be a major handicap to those women who wish to ascend to the top in the educational hierarchy.[38]

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This is a historical study of American women in public school administration. The study has traced the role of women school administrators from 1900 through 1977. Those women in public school administration who have made outstanding contributions to education have been identified. The study investigated the scarcity of women in the upper levels of the education hierarchy, the revival of the Women's Rights Movement, and legislative action designed to place women on a par with men in the labor market.

PROCEDURES OF RESEARCH

The historical research method was used because the nature of the study involved the collection, screening, and explanation of information

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[38]Patricia Ann Schmuck, Sex Differentiation in Public School Administration (Arlington, Virginia: National Council of Administrative Women, 1975), p. 111.

from various sources. The data were collected from all available primary and secondary sources. Primary sources consisted of government bulletins, publications by women's organizations, and studies related to public school administration. Secondary references included books, journal articles, and other publications concerned with the history of education and the contributions made by women.

DELIMITATIONS

This study includes women in public school administration from 1900 through 1977. Women's efforts to attain recognition and entrance into the profession have been discussed. The contributions and status of women throughout the years, including the school year 1976-77, have been included. The major thrust of the study is a chronological survey of women in the educational hierarchy.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The single term which needs clarification for this study is defined below:

> Administrator. The term administrator as used in this study will include those people in decision-making and influential positions at or near the top of the organizational hierarchy: superintendent, associate or deputy superintendent, and assistant superintendent at the state and local levels plus full principalships within the public school system.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

With the growth of the feminist movement during the nineteen-seventies, the secondary role which society has assigned to women is not readily accepted. As women have become more vocal, pressures from women's groups have been responsible for legislative action designed to eliminate disparities between the sexes.

The higher level of education for the female sex in the United States is among the forces pressing women to seek fuller lives through the realization of their full potential. Women are filing complaints of discrimination in employment and salary, initiating litigation in support of their rights. Women are also seeking employment commensurate with their interests and skills. Recent legislation (the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and Title IX) and the Department of Health, Education and Welfare guidelines provide a definite mandate for change and for affirmative action programs to be designed dealing with the inequities in the number of women holding administrative positions at all levels of the educational hierarchy.

This study is significant in that it combines available historical data concerning women in public school administration from 1900 through 1977. This dissertation explores the following areas:

- The situations which affected the rise and fall of women in the educational hierarchy from 1900 through 1977.
- The social attitudes affecting women's attainment of administrative positions during the twentieth century.
- The recognition that women have provided quality leadership in public school administration.

- The history of women's influence and contributions in top level administrative positions during the twentieth century.

ORGANIZATION OF REMAINDER OF STUDY

The remainder of the study is divided into three major parts.

Chapter II is devoted to the educational developments which have influenced women's role in public school administration from the turn of the twentieth century through the 1976-77 school year. Tables are included which show percentages of women public school administrators in given years as found in the literature.

Chapter III includes selected biographical sketches of women public school administrators. This selection includes a cross section of women, spanning the seventy-eight years of this study, who have made significant contributions to education at different levels in the administrative hierarchy. The material is presented in a historical time sequence.

Chapter IV is a summary and conclusion of the study.

CHAPTER II

THE STATUS OF WOMEN IN THE EDUCATIONAL HIERARCHY

The world in which women of the twentieth century have been reared and educated has undergone drastic social, economic, and educational changes.[39] One of the areas most affected by these changes has been the fluctuating status of women in education. Although women have encountered periods of economic and educational advancement, on the whole they have met a reluctance on the part of the public to admit them to the administrative levels of education. Regardless of their educational preparation, women have not risen to the higher levels in the educational hierarchy in proportion to their numbers in the field.

The first noticeable period of advancement occurred as an aftermath of the feminist movement of the nineteenth century. Women advanced considerably in the field of education during the first decade of the twentieth century. Woody noted that the Commissioner of Education's report in 1899-1900 showed 248 women in positions of county superintendent and that three years later the report showed 324 women as county superintendents.[40]

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[39]Shirley D. McCune and Martha Matthews, "Eliminating Sexism: Teacher Education and Change," Journal of Teacher Education 26 (Winter 1975): 294-295.

[40]Woody, Women's Education in The United States, p. 517.

THE TWENTIETH CENTURY : BEGINNINGS

Statistics given in the American Education Review in 1910 noted that four states recognized women as head of the state educational system and reported that a total of 495 women functioned as county superintendents throughout the school systems of the nation. In some states at this time, women appeared to monopolize the higher positions in the public school system. Wyoming reported women in the positions of state superintendent and deputy superintendent; moreover, thirteen of the fourteen county superintendent positions were filled by women. Females dominated the county positions in Montana where women held twenty-nine of the thirty county superintendencies available in that state.[41]

Woody also noted that New York reported 42 women district superintendents in 1900. Increases in women superintendents noted in other states during this period were significant: Iowa from 13 in 1900 to 44 in 1912; Kansas from 26 in 1900 to 49 in 1912; Nebraska from 10 in 1900 to 42 in 1912; North Dakota from 10 in 1900 to 24 in 1912; Oklahoma from 7 in 1900 to 10 in 1912.[42]

Tyack, in noting that sixty-two percent of the elementary principals in 1905 were women, cited economics as a reason for this majority. He noted that at this time women were paid an average yearly salary of $970 as compared to the male who earned $1,542 for the same

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[41] American Education Review, 1910, cited by Thomas Woody, History of Women's Education in The United States (New York: The Science Press 1929), p. 518.

[42] Woody, Women's Education in The United States, p. 518.

position.[43] Also, during the early decades of the century, industry offered numerous opportunities for men; consequently, the field of education with its low salaries and poor working conditions attracted more women than men.[44]

Although the period from the early 1900's until the late 1920's lacks supportive statistics, existing information leads one to believe that women lost interest in becoming professionals. Women continued to accept the confinement of the unequal role imposed upon them by society.[45] This could have been a direct influence of the suffrage movement itself as "the suffrage movement did not try to destroy the traditional social values that society held toward women.[46] Suffrage was achieved within the conventional framework of the prevailing cultural norms. The basic argument in favor of suffrage was "...that women were needed in politics to bring a moral dimension to government..."[47] Contemporary historians, according to Peiser, feel that suffrage, with the

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[43]David B. Tyack, The One Best System (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1974), p. 62.

[44]Lindley J. Stiles and Martin P. Nystrand, "The Politics of Sex in Education," The Educational Forum, May 1974, p. 432.

[45]Marcia A. Horn, "Ideas of The Founders of The Early Colleges For Women on The Role of Women's Education in American Society", Dissertation Abstracts International, Vol. XXXVI, (Rutgers University, 1977), p. 7577-A.

[46]William H. Chafe, Women and Equality (New York: Oxford University Press, 1977), p. 38.

[47]Ibid.

bitterness it generated and the length of time it took, all but destroyed the feminist movement on which it was founded.[48]

DECADE OF THE TWENTIES

Job opportunities in various occupations were opened to women during World War I as women filled positions usually held by men.[49] Women did gain administrative positions as elementary principals during the war years and the 1920's.[50] As more women received college degrees in the twenties and thirties, they were less committed to careers and increasingly interested in marriage. Even though women had made considerable gains in their legal and political stature through suffrage, homemaking continued to be the primary occupation for middle-class women.[51]

The results of a survey by the National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals published in 1928, reporting on supervising principals only, showed that the majority (55%) of the 617 elementary principals in 17 states were women. (see Table 1) The replies received in this study did not show a preference for either men

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[48]Andrew Peiser, "The Education of Women: A Historical View," The Social Studies 67 (March/April 1976), 72.

[49]"A Historical Introduction to Modern Problems in Women's Education", The Education of Women in a Democracy, pp. 3-4.

[50]Stiles and Nystrand, "The Politics of Sex in Education", p. 432.

[51]Chafe, Women and Equality, p. 38.

or women as principals. The emphasis appeared to be on the merit of the individual rather than on sex.[52]

TABLE I

MEN AND WOMEN ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

1928

Type	Men		Women	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Supervising	278	45	339	55

[a]"The Elementary School Principalship," in Seventh Yearbook of the Bulletin of The National Association of Elementary School Principals, No. 3 (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1928), pp. 170-171.

DECADE OF THE THIRTIES

Grambs contends that women have never dominated administrative levels in the public school system other than that of elementary principal.[53] The tendency of women to succeed as elementary school principals diminished with the social and economic changes of the depression: "...the depression of the 1930's brought an avalanche of men back into the

[52]"The Elementary School Principalship," in Seventh Yearbook of the Bulletin of The National Education Association of Elementary School Principals, No. 3 (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1928), pp. 170-171.

[53]Jean Dresden Grambs, "Women and Administration: Confrontation or Accommodation?", Theory Into Practice, October 1976 , p. 293.

schools... Hastily passed restrictions against married women in teaching helped men to recover previously forfeited administrative positions.[54] The rationale behind dismissing married women teachers was not based on merit: "they, in effect, took a job away from a man or single woman who did not have employment; it was assumed that their husbands were employed and could support their families."[55] No thought was given to the professional consideration of the female. Some systems adopted policies whereby any woman who married during the life of her contract would be dismissed immediately.[56]

However, as a result of the apparent economic recovery in the late thirties, women appeared to regain their positions in the elementary school principalships. The study of Goodykoontz and Lane conducted in 1938 found that women held 66.8 percent of the elementary principalships as compared to 33.2 percent held by men. (see Table 2) This study reported wide differences throughout the country in the proportion of men and women elementary principals with women exceeding men in every section of the country.[57]

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[54]Stiles and Nystrand, "The Politics of Sex in Education," p. 432.

[55]Marilyn H. Cutler, "How the Schools Lived Through that Real Depression of the Thirties," American School Board Journal, CLXII (May, 1975), 38.

[56]Ibid.

[57]Office of Education, The Elementary School Principalship Some Aspects of Its Development and Status, Bulletin No. 8, by Bess Goodykoontz and Jessie A. Lane (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 14.

TABLE 2

MEN AND WOMEN ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

1938

Type	Men		Women	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Teaching & Supervising	4,079	33.2	8,208	66.8

[a]Office of Education, The Elementary School Principalship Some Aspects of Its Development and Status, Bulletin No. 8, by Bess Goodykoontz and Jessie A. Lane (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1938), p. 14.

The number of women in the higher administrative positions in the public school system remained small in the early thirties as the teacher training institutions, attended by most of the women who entered the profession, had only been offering courses in administration for a short time. However, in 1931 the departments of education in six states listed women as the top administrators. Out of the 3,499 counties twenty-six percent of the county superintendents were women, Moreover, in the 2,841 communities of over 2,500 population or more, thirty-eight women held positions of superintendent.[58]

[58]"Report of the President's Research Committee of Social Trends," in Recent Social Trends in The United States, vol. 1 (New York: McGraw Hill Book Co., 1933), p. 727.

In an article concerning women in administration in the Ohio schools, Anderson noted a decline in the number of women in administrative positions. The number of 101 in 1924 had dropped to 67 by 1931, and from 58 in 1932 to 43 in 1936. This study which showed that most of the elementary school principals in the state of Ohio at that time were women, led to the following conclusion: "...women aspiring to administrative positions in public schools will find more opportunities in the elementary school area than in secondary school or general administration."[59]

A report by the Woman's Bureau noted that "...as recently as 1939 46 of the city superintendents of schools were women."[60] Teaching ranked among the first ten occupations for women through 1940 and accounted for 52.1 percent of the 1.5 million women in the professional or semi-professional fields in 1940.[61]

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[59]Earl W. Anderson, "The Woman School Executive," The School Executive, 57 (March 1938): 332.

[60]U.S., Department of Labor, The Women's Bureau, Status of Women in The United States, Bulletin 249 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), p. 18.

[61]U.S., Department of Labor, The Women's Bureau, Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades, Bulletin 218, by Janet M. Hooks (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1947), pp. 6, 25.

DECADE OF THE FORTIES

Of the more than one million men and women employed in teaching below the college level in 1940, three-fourths of them were women.[62] During the decade from 1920-1930,more women joined the teaching profession than ever before. After 1930, however, their numbers declined. This decline was relative to the great influx of men into the profession between 1920 and 1940.[63]

As recently as the 1940-41 school year, discrimination still existed against married women in the teaching profession. Only 22 percent of all women teachers were married.[64] During this school year 55 percent of cities of over 30,000 in population were not employing married women. Women matured in a society that upheld marriage and family as the desirable destiny for each female. For those who did not marry teaching was one of the few honorable professions opens to them. Consequently, the stereotype of the "old maid school teacher" served as a deterrent to the aspirations of women to reach the higher levels in the hierarchy of the public schools.[65]

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[62] Marguerite Wykoff Zapoleon, "Women in The Professions," Journal of Social Issues 6 (March 1950): 13.

[63] Twenty-Seventh Yearbook, "Elementary School Principalship," pp. 157, 159.

[64] Hazel Davis and Agnes Samuelson, "Women in Education", Journal of Social Issues 6 (March 1950): 29.

[65] Ibid.

The number of women in the labor force had increased to 20 percent by 1940.[66] Single women in the United States usually worked as did widows and many young women before they were married.[67] The dominant pattern for women, however, was that of marriage and homemaking. This existing traditional expectation of women to become homemakers, the lack of social approval of working women, and the lack of role models as patterns served to discourage women from choosing to take the career route.[68]

More government intervention on behalf of women was evident during the early forties:

> ...government agencies like the Labor Department, Women's Bureau and private organizations such as the National Business and Professional Women's Clubs pressed for greater government action... to improve working conditions for women. However, ...the vast majority of women workers did not engage in militant protest about their working condtions or subscribe to any feminist cause.[69]

The vastness of female employment tended to destroy the existing feminine social norms that woman's place was in the home. The new generation of women began to accept work outside the home as woman's prerogative. However, "...there was little evidence of feminist consciousness or

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[66]Janet Hooks, Women's Occupations Through Seven Decades, p. 3.

[67]Ravenna Helson, "The Changing Image of the Career Woman," in Women and Achievement, ed., Martha Tamara Shuck Mednick (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1975), p. 420.

[68]Chafe, Women and Equality, p. 92.

[69]Chafe, Women and Equality, p. 93.

commitment to the notion of equal rights and opportunities between the sexes. Throughout most of the late 1940's and 1950's, feminism remained a marginal movement with little popular support.[70]

World War II altered the existing cycle of social norms and provided needed fuel for protest of the accepted norms for women. The more militant women, convinced of their need for an identity, rejected the existing cultural norm that limited women's role to the existing philosophy of "a woman's place."[71]

Changing the traditional image of women as the "weaker sex" has been difficult to accomplish in the business world. Consequently, women have been forced to remain in jobs considered women's work. During World War II,women again heeded the call to service and entered industry to perform jobs previously held by men. This experience provided them with the needed preparation to enter the business world.[72]

A survey by Phi Lambda Theta, conducted from 1941 through 1943 and involving 4,376 respondents, showed that 31 percent of the women were in administrative or supervisory positions in the public schools during this period. The conclusion from this study revealed the proved leadership of women:

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[70]Chafe, Women and Equality, p. 95.

[71]Ibid., p. 112.

[72]Lawrence C. Hackamack and Alan B. Solid, "The Woman Executive," Business Horizons, April 1972, p. 90.

> The was has made it possible for professional women to demonstrate ability and leadership in many positions not open to them formerly both in the schools and in business, industry, and general government. The discrimination against married women has been relaxed in education. Policy-making and administrative posts have been filled 'for the duration' by women. Women have been included in state and national committees and councils on defense and war problems. The great opportunity for the future is for them to intensify, to meet the needs of peace, the same devotion and skilled service that they have provided so generously to meet the needs of war.[73]

Following the war, the increase in the number of women seeking paid employment was a direct result not only of the need for a second income to help maintain a higher standard of living but also of the need to "...search for self actualization."[74]

In attempting to further their education after World War II, women students experienced difficulty in gaining admission to the colleges and universities as first preference was given to returning veterans. Benjamin Fine's observation concerning this situation appeared to be the prevalent observation throughout the nation:

> For the first time in the 100 year history of Marshall College in West Virginia, the enrollment of full time first-year male students outnumbered women six to one. Boston University reports three times as many men students were admitted this semester as women students. Coeducational institutions are taking the men students at the expense of the women.[75]

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[73]Women in The Professions: A Wartime Survey (Berkeley: University of California Press, 1945), p. 50.

[74]Eleanor F. Dolan, "A Century of Equality," Improving College and University Teaching 20 (Winter 1972): p. 26.

The tendency of the public to prefer the male over the female was not limited to college admissions. The same preference occurred in filling teaching and administrative positions: "since 1945 more and more men have entered and remained in the education field."[76] The female principals of the early 1940's have been replaced with males.

The Nation's Schools magazine reported in March of 1946 on the responses to an opinion poll sent to school administrators concerning the performance of women in administrative positions as opposed to men. These responses showed that women ranked higher as desirable administrators at the elementaryschool level. The objections to women in administration above the elementary level, according to this poll, is their "...inability to enforce discipline over pupils and to exercise authority over faculty members, particularly men..."[77]

A reaction to this survey by Mrs. Vern Vanderburgh, superintendent, Plano Consolidated Schools, Fulton, South Dakota, was that the majority

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[75]Benjamin Fine, "Survey Indicates the Difficulty Encountered by Women Attempting to Enter College in Women: Their Changing Roles, ed. Elizabeth Janeway (New York: Arno Press, 1973), p. 286.

[76]June Marr, "Women in State Departments of Education," Phi Delta Kappan, October 1973, p. 138.

[77]"How Do Women Rate? School Opinion Poll,"The Nation's Schools, March 1946, p. 45.

of respondents were men and that they felt "...duty bound to uphold their own sex."[78]

A study published in the Twenty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Elementary Principals' Association reported that of the supervisory principalships in 1948, women held 41 percent while men held 59 percent. (see Table 3). This is a sizeable reduction in the percentage of women in these positions shown in earlier studies. Men had definitely moved into the majority in this position following World War II.

In the teaching principalships at this time, however, women remained in the majority although the number had decreased since the 1928 study. The ratio of men to women in this position was 4 to 5 in 1948; in the 1928 survey it had been 1 to 3. The percentage of men reported as holding an elementary teaching principalship in 1948 was 45 and for women was 55.[79] However, the total number of principalships held by men exceeded those held by women. Of the total number of positions 1,026 or 56 percent were held by men and 800 or 45 percent were held by women (see Table 3).

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[78]Vern Vanderburgh, "Women in Administration," The Nation's Schools, June 1946, p. 48.

[79]"The Elementary School Principalship Today and Tomorrow," in The Seventh Yearbook of the National Education Association of Elementary School Principals, vol. 28, no. 1, (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1948), p. 20.

TABLE 3

MEN AND WOMEN ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

1948

Type	Men		Women	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Supervising	839	59	574	41
Teaching	187	45	226	55
Total	1,026	56	800	44

DECADE OF THE FIFTIES

The focal point of public education, during the decade of the fifties, centered around changes in curriculum and organizational patterns. These changes, accompanied by government intervention, were accomplished with money and expertise. With the amount of attention and time devoted to these changes, little thought was given to the power structure of school administration.[80]

As school consolidated for efficiency, school administration took on the semblance of a modern corporation. The increased complexity of public school management together with the increase in monetary reward helped the prejudices against women in administration to surface.[81] Con-

[80] Hierarchy, Power, and Women in Educational Policy Making, p. 2.

[81] Ibid.

sequently,they "were summarily dismissed or demoted and men took their place."[82] The availability of men for these positions had increased considerably at this point in time as droves of veterans after World War II took advantage of the provisions of the G. I. Bill. Many who would not have received professional training without this provision entered universities and colleges, majoring in education.[83]

Through this period of change women continued to hold the majority of the teaching positions and men continued to hold the "great majority of administrative jobs in education..."[84] By mid-century numerous women were being "...replaced by men in elementary school principalships."[85] This development created enough concern among educators that a number of studies were conducted comparing the effectiveness of women with that of men.

The Florida Leadership Study, entitled "What Makes a Good Principal?" and reported by Grobeman and Hines in 1956, surveyed eighty principals in a large metropolitan county in the state of Florida. Their findings revealed that women administrators tended to use more effective administrative practices and were more democratic than men.

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[82]Louise Bach, "Of Women, School Administration, and Discipline," Phi Delta Kappan, March 1976, p. 464.

[83]Schmuck, Sex Differentiation in Public School Administration, p. 90.

[84] U.S., Department of Labor, The Women's Bureau, The Status of Women in The United States, Bulletin 249 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1953), p. 18.

[85]Stiles and Nystrand, "The Politics of Sex in Education," p. 432.

> Of those principals studied, elementary principals tended to use democratic behavior more frequently than junior or senior high-school principals. This may be simply a sex factor, since we also find that women principals used democratic and best practices more often, and authoritarian practices less often, than men. Since virtually all the women principals studied were in elementary schools, it may be that the elementary situation lends itself more readily to what were considered democratic practices; on the other hand, it may be that sex of principal does exert a considerable influence on the operating pattern of our principals.[86]

The postwar tendency of men principals, according to this study, appears to lie with the preference of the board rather than the performance of the principal. Some of the conclusions concerning this idea are as follows:

> The current criteria used by employing authorities in selecting principals do not appear to be directly related to success on the job. Sex has been a determining factor in recent years, with men very markedly preferred...
>
> .....
>
> Much employing has been done on the basis of hunch and incorrect surmises about what a principal should do or should be rather than a thoughtful analysis of what basically they want the school to be.[87]

Barter, in 1959, surveyed elementary school personnel to determine the number of women in administrative positions in a county district in Michigan. She found women elementary principals to be in the minority but concluded that school district policies did not reflect any discriminatory hiring practices. However, "only six of the 18 school systems

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[86]Hulda Grobeman and Vynce A. Hines, "What Makes a Good Principal?" The Bulletin of The National Association of Secondary School Principals, vol.40,No.223 (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1956), p. 14.

[87]Ibid., pp. 15, 16.

queried had definite policies for promotion to the elementary principalship... The proportion of men and women principals in these systems were four men to every woman."[88]

She noted in her report that "from 1925-50, the percentage of women holding administrative positions in the school systems of this country had declined, although more teachers were women than ever before."[89] Barter also stated that following World War II there had been a practice in the public schools

> ...of inducing young men to become elementary school teachers with the understanding that a promotion to the elementary principalship will be rapid... In order to attract or retain these men, some school systems have weighed opportunities for administrative advancement strongly in their favor.[90]

In the early 1950's Dr. Ann Gray Pannell, President of Sweetbriar College, at a meeting of the Association of American Colleges, voiced the concern that "marriage and easy-to-get jobs are said to be luring girls from college before they complete the training that would make them more useful to society and better equip them for earning their livings."[91]

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[88]Alice S. Barter, "The Status of Women in School Administration," The Education Digest, October 1959, p. 41.

[89]Ibid., pp. 40-41.

[90]Ibid., p. 511.

[91]Marlvina Lindsay, "Are Women Slipping?" Occupations, April 1952, p. 511.

Quoting statistics from 1948 college enrollment, Judy Lucy Sommerville Howorth, vice-president of the American Association of University Women, in a report to a Deans of Women Conference in Chicago in 1952, pointed out that the ratio of women to men in college had hit an all time low of 25 percent and that the proportion of women earning degrees had dropped since 1920.

She surmised that women, following the second World War, had developed the psychological attitude that the future was uncertain; the tendency for this generation was to take short-term courses which led to sub-professional and semi-professional employment. Consequently, girls were enticed "...away from the harder study and long discipline college degrees required."[92]

A survey by the National Education Association's Research Division, published in The National Elementary Principals 37th Yearbook in 1958, found that:

> ...relatively more women than men were elementary school classroom teachers before becoming either supervising principals or teaching principals. But relatively more men than women were junior or senior high school classroom teachers before becoming either supervising principals or teaching principals. This difference in prior position appears to be one of the biggest differences between men and women as principals.[93]

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[92]Ibid., p. 511.

[93]"The Elementary School Principalship," in Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Elementary Principal, vol. 38 no. 1 (Washington, D.C.: National Education Association, 1958), p. 106.

The number of men continued to increase in the elementary principalship with the number of men in supervising principalships increasing over the number of women. The 1958 survey showed 62 percent of the supervising principalships were held by men with 38 percent held by women. Women continued to be in the majority in teaching principalships. Forty-one percent of the teaching principals were men while 59 percent were women. Men held 59 percent of all elementary principalships while women held only 41 percent (see Table 4).[94]

TABLE 4

MEN AND WOMEN ELEMENTARY PRINCIPALS

1958

Type	Men		Women	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Supervising	1,252	62	756	38
Teaching	169	41	244	59
Total	1,421	59	1,000	41

[a]"The Elementary School Principalship," in Thirty-Seventh Yearbook of the National Elementary Principal, vol. 38 no. 1 (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1958), p. 106.

[94]Ibid., p. 111.

Meskin stated that in the Gross and Trask study initiated in 1959 it was found that:

> ...women do give greater weight than men to concern for the social and emotional development of their pupils. Women attribute greater importance than men to the teachers' technical skills as a measure of how they carry out their work. ...women emphasize the teachers' organizational responsibility as a criterion for evaluating their performance more strongly than do men.[95]

Ira Jarrell, Superintendent of Schools in Atlanta, Georgia, in 1953 stated that women do not prepare themselves for holding administrative positions in the public school system. Their interest seems to lie in preparing themselves for a job until they are married; consequently, their plans do not extend far enough in the future to prepare themselves for executive positions. She was presumptuous enough to state also that "from time immemorial women have not wanted to assume the responsibilities that come with top positions; therefore, they have failed to get the necessary training for such positions."[96]

"The office of United States Commissioner of Education has always been filled by a man, but some women have positions of high responsibility in the Federal Office of Education."[98] Thirty percent of the one hundred

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[95] Joan D. Meskin, "The Performance of Women School Administrators: A Review of the Literature," Administrators Notebook, December 1976, p. 3.

[96] Ira Jarrell, "Women Do Not Seek Administrative Roles: They Prefer To Teach," The Nation's Schools, January 1953, p. 48.

[97] Davis and Samuelson, "Women in Education," p. 32.

ninety-three professional and administrative staff positions in the Office of Education were held by women in the early 1950's.[99]

Davis and Samuelson, in 1950, made the following observations concerning women in administration:

> Women administrators in education have amply proved their competence. But their numbers remain small. Appointing officials often do not even think of the possibility that a woman might receive a given appointment. Positions that call for dealing with the public, traveling, handling finances, and supervising other administrative personnel are often assumed to be more suitable for men than women. In perhaps a majority of administrative appointments, no woman applies for the position. Relatively few women have completed the variety of educational experiences and the advanced administrative studies which often are prerequisites to such positions. Many women cannot finance the long period of training and feel that the odds would be against them if they undertook it. Some colleges and universities offer as much encouragement and help to the woman graduate student as to the man. But there are others in which a woman who aspires to the doctorate, for example, must persist in the face of a policy of limiting the number of doctor's degrees conferred on women. Another reason for the small number of women administrators is the women who does not seek advancement. Many women who could succeed well at either instruction or administration prefer the zest of classroom teaching to the responsibilities and hazards of administrative work. ...although tradition and custom are still against women who seek advancement in education the way is open to those of real ability and ambition.[100]

In 1953 a report by the Department of Labor listed women as holding 7.9 percent of all public high school principalships. In 1951 there

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[98] Ibid., p. 33.

[99] Ibid.

[100] Ibid.

were eight women superintendents in the 1,583 cities with over 2,500 population. Only one was reported out of the 360 positions in cities with a population of over 30,000.[101]

This 1953 report mentioned that marriage was still a basis for discrimination in hiring women teachers but gave the following information which showed noted improvement:

> ....In 1941, 95 percent of the cities reported marriage a handicap, but only 59 percent in 1951. An unconditional policy against appointment of married women were reported by 58 percent of the cities in 1941 as against 8 percent in 1951. Termination of service as a result of marriage was also far less common in 1951 than in 1941. As compared with 30 percent in 1941, 90 percent of the cities reported in 1951 that the employment status of a woman teacher already employed was not affected by marriage.[102]

A survey of the college woman who graduated in 1955, conducted by the Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor in cooperation with the women's section of the National Vocational Guidance Association, revealed that almost half of these graduates "considered paid employment as a temporary activity between school and marriage."[103] Women were still prone to place marriage ahead of a career in their life's plan.

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[101] Women's Bureau, Bulletin 249, p. 19.

[102] Ibid.

[103] U.S., Department of Labor, Women's Section, Employment After College: Report on Women Graduates Class of 1955. (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1956), p. 15.

DECADE OF THE SIXTIES

Major changes in the status of women occurred during the decade of the 1960's. The civil rights movement, with its increased momentum, served as a catalyst for increasing political activity concerning women's rights.[104]

Women's dissatisfaction with the treatment they were receiving in the market place prompted the establishment of the President's Commission on The Status of Women in 1961 by President John F. Kennedy.[105] Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 was the Federal legislation enacted to help women fight discrimination in the labor market.[106] Epstein found through her research that discrimination against women was rampant before the enactment of the civil rights legislation.[107]

"The 1960's will, no doubt, go down in history as an era of dramatic change. One of the most inspiring forces has been the Federal government's commitment to the objective of educational opportunity for all Americans."[108] Gould suggested that this commitment should lead to

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[104]Chafe, Women and Equality, p. 97.

[105]Elizabeth Duncan Koontz, "The Women's Bureau Looks To The Future," Monthly Labor Review, June 1970, p. 8.

[106]Stiles and Nystrand, "Politics of Sex in Education," p. 435.

[107]Cynthia Fuchs Epstein, "Structuring Success for Women," The Education Digest, February 1974, p. 57.

[108]Samuel Gould, "A New Era in Education," Women's Education, June 1967, p. 2.

the reexamination of curricula open to women "...in order to determine how well (they) are being prepared today for the many roles which they will play in later years."[109]

Taylor noted the lack of preparation by women for positions in administration:

> Many findings show that women are not, in general, preparing themselves for administrative positions in education. In 1962 less than 16 percent had two college degrees. Forty percent of the men did. Men hold four doctoral degrees in education to every one held by a woman. ...women are not earning administrative credentials at the same rate as men.[110]

The political and economic condition of the country during this decade attracted more men to the teaching profession. Young males were choosing to direct their energies and talents to the classroom in an attempt to avoid the draft during the heat of the Vietnamese conflict.[111] Men were encouraged to enter the elementary field in an effort to provide role models for young boys. However, many of these same young men entered the profession with the idea of seeking administrative positions where the pay was better.[112] As more men were attracted

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[109] Ibid.

[110] Harris A. Taylor, "Women in Administration," in An Introduction to School Administration, ed. M. Chester Nolte (New York: The MacMillan Company, 1966), p. 404.

[111] Epstein, Woman's Place, pp. 157, 158.

[112] Patricia Palmiori and Chyol Smith Shakeshaft, "Up the Front Staircase: A Proposal for Women to Achieve Parity with Men in the Field of Educational Administration," The Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors 39 (Winter 1976): 59.

to the profession, the concentration of women was reduced.[113] During this period the percentage of women in secondary school teaching positions had fallen below that of men, a situation that had not occurred since before the turn of the century.[114]

Administrative Traits

The recent trend in the increasing number of men as elementary principals might lead to the assumption that men make better principals than women. The studies done in the early sixties examining the performance of men and women principals do not support this assumption.

Gross and Task found from the data they collected in 1960-61, by surveying elementary principals, that women see the administration function of their position as being important, but not as important as men see it. Women value more highly than men their role as instructional leaders and exercise a greater degree of control over the professional activities of their teachers than men.[115]

A very important finding in this study was that "...learning scores of the pupils were higher in the women's schools than in those of the men."[116] The degree of aspiration for achievement in their occupation

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[113]Janice Neipert Hedges and Jeanne K. Barnett, "Women at Work: Women Workers and Manpower Demands in the 1970's," Monthly Labor Review, June 1970, p. 20.

[114]Stiles and Nystrand, "Politics of Sex in Education," p. 432.

[115]Gross and Trask, The Sex Factor and The Management of Schools, pp. 12-15.

[116]Ibid., p. 15.

was much less for women than for men. Women principals stressed the importance of the school's awareness of individual differences and the social and emotional development of the child more than men.[117]

Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederiksen, in their study of elementary school principals in 1962, found that women showed more democratic behavior in dealing with teachers, superiors, and outsiders than men. Women appeared more knowledgeable of teaching methods and techniques than men as a result of their longer tenure in the classroom. The concerns for teaching objectives, pupil participation, and the evaluation of what was learned rated higher for women. They were more willing to provide instructional leadership to probationary teachers than men. They concluded that "...as a class men are not overwhelmingly superior to women as elementary school principals."[118]

In exploring the difference in problem attack behavior between men and women, Hoyle found that women were aware of potential problem situations as perceived by the staff and reviewed and evaluated their own behavior more often than men. The females in this study had more classroom experience before taking a principalship than did the men. Eighty-eight percent of the women had six or more years of experience in

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[117]Ibid.

[118]John K. Kemphill, David E. Griffiths, and Norman Frederiksen, Administrative Performance and Personality (New York: Columbia University, 1962), pp. 333, 334.

the classroom before becoming principal compared to 66 percent of the male principals who had less than six years experience. This study attributed the decline in the number of women principals to board preference rather than preparation.[119]

The 1960's found fewer and fewer women in public school administrative positions. With the increase in the number of women in the labor force and with the majority of teachers being female, the attitude still existed that men had more administrative ability and were better suited for positions in educational administration.[120]

A 3.5 percent increase occurred in the supply of elementary school teachers between 1962-63 and 1963-64 including both male and female. The supply of male teachers showed a 5 percent increase while there was only a 3 percent increase in the supply of females. This information indicates that during this period men entered the profession at almost twice the rate as that for women.[121]

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[119]John Hoyle, "Who Shall Be Principal - A Man or A Woman?" National Elementary Principal, January 1969, p. 24.

[120]Taylor, "Women in Administration," p. 403.

[121]Herbert C. Rudman, ed., "Is The Woman Principal Going the Way of the Buffalo?" The National Elementary Principal, April 1966, p. 8.

Preparation for Administrative Positions

The Report of the President's Commission on The Status of Women in 1963 showed that the number of women seeking higher degrees was much fewer than the number of men (see Table 5).

TABLE 5

EARNED GRADUATE DEGREES

1961

	Men		Women	
Type Degree	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
M.A.'s	54,459	68.9	24,481	31
Ph.D.'s	9,463	89.5	1,112	10.5

[a]American Women, Report of The President's Commission on The Status of Women (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 69.

In 1961 women received only 31 percent of the master's degrees while men received 68.9 percent. Of the degrees earned at the doctoral

level women received 10.5 percent compared to the 89.4 percent received by men.[122]

The National Education Association, in reporting on the status of teachers in 1965, noted that the average female teacher was less likely to be working on a master's degree than the average male teacher and that many of the elementary teachers, usually female, did not have a bachelor's degree.[123]

These findings reinforced the thinking that women did not prepare for administrative positions to the extent that men teachers did. It appeared that women had little desire to advance to higher positions. Some women were reluctant to enter the programs leading to an administrator's degree in that the prospects of getting an administrative position were so small that they would be wasting their time and money. Although a smaller number of women than men obtained administrative credentials, the number of positions available to women was comparatively smaller than for men.[124]

There existed a difference in the proportion of women to men in completing degrees at all levels. The difference in the number of women to men was greater at each level with the number of men increasing on

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[122] American Women, Report of the President's Commission on The Status of Women (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1963), p. 69.

[123] "Status of Public School Teachers 1965," NEA Research Bulletin, October 1965, p. 67 & 69.

[124] Norma Q. Hare, "The Vanishing Woman Principal," The National Elementary Principal, April 1966, p. 13.

each level. This difference, as observed in this study, was a reflection of the attitude of parents and society concerning the education of women.[125] (See Table 6).

TABLE 6

EDUCATIONAL ATTAINMENT OF MEN AND WOMEN

1965

Degree	Men		Women	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Bachelor's	290,000	57	215,000	43
Master's	76,000	68	36,000	32
Doctoral	14,700	89	1,800	11

[a]Astin, Helen S., The Woman Doctorate in America, Russell Sage Foundation (Hartford, Connecticut: Connecticut Printers, Inc., 1969), p. 5, "citing" Folger, Astin, and Bayer, 1969, Chapter 9.

The answer to the problem of fewer women in positions of elementary principal does not lie within the realm of lack of preparation, according to an article by Kenneth E. McIntyre in 1965. He surmised that when systems have a formal set of hiring practices on paper, these are very often circumvented by the use of an informal system. Superiors who do

125 Helen S. Astin, The Woman Doctorate in America (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1969), p. 4.

the hiring are often favorably impressed by candidates' characteristics which are not related to their ability to do the job. Women are usually eliminated before the race begins. This lack of consideration can not be based on their intellectual ability or experience which are two of the primary contributing factors to the capability of the candidate. Women have to spend so many years in the classroom before they are considered for the principalship that many of the contributions they could make to the principalship are lost. McIntyre did not outline any attributes to consider when hiring elementary principals that women would not possess.[126]

Decline in Women Administrators

Men continued to enter the teaching profession in increasing numbers. During the school year of 1966-67, men accounted for 31.7 percent of the classroom teachers. The ratio of women classroom teachers to that of men at this time was 2.2 to 1, signifying a drop of seven-tenths of one percent in a ten year period. Men primarily chose the secondary level of education: "in 1966-67, men teachers accounted for 14.6 percent of all elementary school classroom teachers and for 54.0 percent of all secondary school teachers."[127] There was an increase at both levels as compared to 1956-57 statistics.

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[126]Kenneth E. McIntyre, "The Selection of Elementary School Principals," The National Elementary Principal, April 1965, pp. 42, 43, 46.

[127]"Estimates of School Statistics - 1966-1967," National Education Association Research Bulletin, March 1967, p. 7.

Table 7 reveals that the number of women principals continued to decline during the decade of the sixties. In 1966-67 only 24.8 percent of elementary principalships were held by women.[128] The majority of junior high school principalships were held by men. In 1964-65 only 4 percent were held by women.[129] Women held very few of the senior high school principalships throughout the nation as found in a 1965 survey. This survey found that 10 percent of high school principalships were held by women. This survey also found that women were more often employed at the secondary level as principals of urban high schools or alternative schools.[130]

The study conducted by the National Education Association in 1968 concerning the decline in women elementary principals did not reveal a reason for this decline. It did give sufficient information to suggest that the explanation did not lie exclusively in the matter of competence. However, the point was made that the rise in salaries and the status of

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[128]National Education Association, Division of Elementary School Principals, Elementary School Principalship in 1968 (Washington, D. C.: NEA, 1968), p. 11.

[129]Donald A. Rock and John K. Hemphill, Report of The Junior High School Principalships, vol. 2 (Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary-School Principals, 1966), p. 19.

[130]John K. Hemphill, James M. Richards, and Richard E. Peterson, Report of The Senior High-School Principalship, vol. 1 (Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1965), p. 17.

the position had made the position more attractive to men.[131]

TABLE 7

MEN AND WOMEN PRINCIPALS

1963-1967

Type	Year	Number	Men	Number	Women
Elementary[a]	1966-67	1,743	75.2	575	24.8
Junior High[b]	1964-65	6,528	96.0	272	4.0
Senior High[c]	1963-64	14,313	89.0	1,608	10.0
Total		22,584	90.2	2,455	9.8

[a]Elementary School Principalship in 1968 (Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association, Department of Elementary School Principals, 1968), p. 11.

[b]Rock, Donald A. and Hemphill, John K., Report of The Junior High-School Principalship, vol. 2 (Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1966), p. 19.

[c]Hemphill, John K.; Richards, James M.; and Peterson, Richard E., Report of The Senior High-School Principalship, vol. 1 (Washington, D. C.: National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1965), p. 17.

A symposium conducted in 1966, at the request of the editor of The National Elementary Principal, by a group of educators for the purpose of

[131]Elementary School Principalship in 1968, p. 11.

discussing the employment opportunities for women interested in educational administration revealed the following information:

The complexity of the principalship is thought to be a deterrent to women. More management is needed as the schools become larger in building, maintenance, and in program. The type of position that has evolved from this situation appears to appeal to males more than the smaller school situation.[132]

Clara Broadhead, Elementary Education Consultant in Wayne County, Michigan, proposed that the attraction of more males into the elementary school was a more important issue in 1966 than the dwindling number of women principals. She also noted that men enter the elementary field with the idea of becoming principals.[133]

Women are not as willing as men to pay the price of professionalism which means devoting all their time and energy to their work. With the pressures for change much pressure is put upon the modern-day principal at any level to be a change agent in the school; consequently, this results in much time being spent in continuous education which women feel they cannot give at the risk of neglecting their family.[134]

This group concluded that due to the amount of time and pressure involved in administration, it did not appeal to women with family

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[132]Rudman, "Is The Woman Principal Going The Way of The Buffalo?", p. 8.

[133]Ibid.

[134]Ibid., p. 10.

responsibilities as much as to men who feel thay have to assume those responsible positions for monetary reasons. The major factor causing the shift from female principals to male principals in the elementary school

> ...resides in the fact that most women teachers leave education, after a short teaching career, to raise a family and then return to compete with their male counterpart who normally has a minimum of six additional years of experience and more advanced education.[135]

The combination of factors which place women in decreasing numbers in the elementary principalship in proportion to their male colleagues include:

- More men entering elementary education
- Men entering the higher education programs at a greater rate than women.
- Men accumulating years of teaching experience earlier than women.

These factors give men a definite advantage over women when seeking administrative positions. The mix of career with family responsibilities appears to be the greatest deterrent to women who aspire to administrative positions.[136]

A study of fifteen men and fifteen women principals from the Michigan public schools in 1968, by Helen Morsink, reported no significant difference in the behavior of men and women secondary principals. There-

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[135]Ibid., pp. 10, 11.

[136]Ibid., p. 11.

fore, she concluded that the findings did not show any reasons for women not succeeding as well as men in the role of secondary school principals.[137]

It was evident by the end of the decade that women workers had not shared equitably in the growth of the professional group. Although their number had increased in the total labor force by 38 percent in 1969 over the number in 1960, employment at the professional level had not increased proportionately.[138]

> ...The actual growth in the number of professional women from 1960 to 1969 was 1.3 million. However, the number of professional women could have been expected to increase by 2.3 million, based on the increase in the female labor force relative to the total civilian labor force and the growth of the professional and technical group.[139]

Women did not actually seek administrative positions according to the information gathered by Cobbley during the 1969-70 school year. This study revealed that all school districts of the six states studied - Arizona, California, Nevada, Oregon, Utah and Washington - provided equal opportunity to candidates for selection and appointment to the principalship regardless of sex. Most of the women in this study did not actively seek the position; it was offered to them. Of the women teachers included

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[137]Helen M. Morsink, "Leader Behavior of Men and Women Principals," The Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, September 1970, pp. 86 & 87.

[138]Janice Neipert Hedges, "Women Workers and Manpower Demands in The 1970's," Monthly Labor Review, June 1970, p. 22.

[139]Ibid.

in the study, less than five percent indicated an interest in becoming school administrators. Their attitudes regarding opportunities for a principalship were negative in that they expressed a belief that a bias existed in favor of men. Positive attitudes existed toward women's ability to operate a school efficiently and their ability to handle difficult problems successfully without the loss of femininity.[140]

Although Cobbley found that women do not seek positions as administrators, statistical data from the Digest of Educational Statistics showed that women were seeking advanced degrees and that the number had increased considerably in 1969-1970 over the number reported by the President's Commission on The Status of Women for 1961. Table 8 reveals that during the school year 1969-1970 in the field of education women far outdistanced men in earning bachelor's degrees - 75 percent for women and 24.9 percent for men. At the master's degree level women received 55.3 percent and the men received 44.7 percent. At the doctoral level, however, women lagged far behind by earning only 20.3 percent while the men earned 79.7 percent.

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[140] LeOre Cobbley, "A Study of Attitudes and Opportunities for Women in Six Western States to Become Elementary School Principals," (Brigham Young University, 1970) Dissertation Abstracts International, 31 A (1971): 4409.

[141] National Center for Educational Statistics, Digest of Educational Statistics, 1971, ed. Kenneth A. Simon and Vance W. Grant (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1972), p. 90.

TABLE 8

BACHELOR'S, MASTER'S AND DOCTOR'S DEGREES IN EDUCATION CONFERRED BY INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION 1969-1970 BY SEX

	Men		Women	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Bachelor's Degree	41,347	24.9	124,106	75.0
Master's Degree	35,451	44.7	43,898	55.3
Doctor's Degree	4,698	79.7	1,196	20.3

[a]National Center for Educational Statistics, Digest of Educational Statistics,1971, ed. Kenneth A. Simon and Vance W. Grant (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1972), p. 90.

These statistics indicate that women have not taken full advantage of the educational opportunities at the highest level to qualify them for the top level positions in the educational hierarchy.

DECADE OF THE SEVENTIES

Although fifty years had elapsed since the Women's Bureau was formed to help woman's cause, women were not yet recognized as equal to men. However, more freedom and greater opportunities were available for women in all walks of life than had ever been available before in the history of the civilized world.[142]

[142]Koontz, "The Women's Bureau Looks to The Future," p. 3.

In spite of the federal legislation of the 1960's, women in the early 1970's could not count on society for encouragement or on their colleagues for fair treatment in the professional world even though they had the training and capability.[143] There was still no Federal legislation to protect women teachers and administrators in the public schools against discrimination based on sex.[144] A woman was faced with the decision of stepping out of the traditional role into one of a career which would involve conflict with the "...traditional image of her place in society and, perhaps, with her own image of personal fulfillment..."[145]

The Women's Liberation Movement became a major force in creating change within the society by the 1970's. Men and women were becoming sensitized to the effects of sex inequality on the whole of society.[146] The goal of this movement centered around political, economic, and social equality for both sexes. This new wave of feminist concern aroused new support for the Equal Rights Amendment to the Constitution. This amendment was approved by the Constitutional Amendments Subcommittee in 1970, and provisions were made for presenting it to the various state legislatures for ratification.[147]

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[143]Epstein, Women's Place, p. 17.

[144]Alice S. Rossi, "Job Discrimination and What Women Can Do About It," Atlantic Monthly, March 1970, p. 102.

[145]Epstein, Woman's Place, p. 17.

[146]Betty Friedan and Anne Grant West, "Sex Bias: The Built in Mentality that Maims the Public Schools," The American School Board Journal 159 (October 1971): 16.

[147]Helen B. Shaffer, Status of Women, Vol. II, No. 5 (Washington, D. C.: Editorial Research Reports, August 5, 1970), p. 572.

The Equal Rights amendment, according to its proponents, would add to the constitution "...a positive guarantee of equality under the law, regardless of sex, and that such an amendment would remove any stigma of inferiority and provide a standard by which policies and custom not controlled by law, could be measured."[148] The proponents viewed the amendment as giving "...women control of their own lives and full opportunity to exercise their responsibilities as citizens."[149] "Only thirty-three of the thirty-eight states necessary have ratified the Equal Rights Amendment to the United States Constitution...," but the controversy over the amendment has generated much public awareness of the woman problem.[150]

The resurgence of the feminist movement during the seventies did not make noticeable inroads on behalf of women in public school administration. Only a token representation of women were in superintendent positions; the percentage of women in public school principalships continued to dwindle during the decade according to research reported by the National Education Association as found in Table 9.[151]

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[148]Koontz, "The Women's Bureau Looks to The Future," p. 4.

[149]Ibid.

[150]Coliquite L. Meacham. "The Law: Where It Is and Where It's Going," in Bringing Women Into Management, ed. Francis E. Gordon and Myra H. Strober (New York: McGraw Hill Book Company, 1975), p. 73.

[151]"Professional Women in Public Schools, 1970-71," The National Education Association Research Bulletin, October 1971, p. 68.

According to research, women continued to decline in numbers in top administrative positions. However, in urban school systems where the operation was decentralized, women were being placed in district superintendent positions within the larger systems.[152]

TABLE 9

ESTIMATED NUMBER OF PUBLIC SCHOOL PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYEES BY SEX

1970-71 School Year

Position	Men		Women	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Teachers	667,751	32.8	1,366,830	67.2
Principals				
Senior High	13,349	97.0	414	3.0
Junior High	8,472	96.5	310	3.5
Elementary	37,673	79.0	10,041	21.0
Total Principals	59,494	84.7	10,765	15.3
Superintendents	14,289	99.4	90	0.6
Deputy or Assoc. Supts.	676	92.5	55	7.5
Assistant Supts.	4,276	97.1	126	2.9
Total Supts.	19,241	98.6	271	1.4

[a]"Professional Women in Public Schools, 1970-71," The National Education Association Research Bulletin, October 1971, p. 68.

[152]Stiles and Nystrand, "The Politics of Sex in Education,", p. 434.

Gross and Trask found that in 1971 less than one percent of the top administrators of local school systems were women.[153] Barbara Krohn noted that "...in 1971, only 90 women could be counted among the 14,000 superintendents in the United States and only 7.5 percent of the assistant superintendents were female."[154]

During this period the principalships continued to be awarded to men. Women were awarded 24.8 percent of the elementary principalships in 1966-67 and 21.0 percent in 1970-71; 4.0 percent of the junior high principalships in 1964-65 and 3.5 percent in 1970-71; 10.0 percent of the senior high principalships in 1963-64 and 3.0 percent in 1970-71.[155]

The available statistical data (see Table 9) show women well into the majority in the teaching ranks which is the entrance level for school administrators. But there is no statistical data available which defines women's absence in decision making roles.[156]

With the amount of available data comparing women's educational achievements to that of men who succeed in gaining the decision making roles, the information is not of itself conclusive (see Table 10). Although women received 56.1 percent of the master's degrees and 21.1

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[153]Gross and Trask, The Sex Factor and The Management of Schools, p. 9.

[154]Barbara Krohn, "The Puzzling Case of The Missing Ms.," The Nation's Schools and Colleges, November 1974, p. 32.

[155]"Professional Women in Public Schools, 1970-71," p. 68.

[156]Clement, Sex Bias In School Leadership, p. 7.

percent of the doctorates in education in 1970-71 their achievement is not reflected in the appointments to decision making roles in public school administration.[157] The growing number of women receiving advanced degrees since the sixties is indicative of their determination to adjust to the changing needs in the labor market.

> ...one can find no explanation for the very small numbers of women in high level administrative positions by looking at advanced training in terms of degrees held..., and total number of women in the pool from which administrators are selected...[158]

TABLE 10

MASTER'S AND DOCTOR'S DEGREES IN EDUCATION CONFERRED BY INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER LEARNING 1970-71

	Men		Women	
Degrees Held	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Master's	38,899	43.8	49,817	56.1
Ph.D. & Ed.D.	5,043	78.8	1,355	21.1

[a]National Center for Educational Statistics, Digest of Educational Statistics, 1971 ed. Kenneth A. Simon and Vance W. Grant (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1972), p. 99.

[157]National Center for Educational Statistics, Digest of Educational Statistics, 1971, ed. Kenneth A. Simon and Vance W. Grant (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1972), p. 99.

[158]Clement, Sex Bias In School Leadership, p. 8.

The report of the President's Task Force on Women's Rights and Responsibilities recognized that a national commitment was essential if women were to be mainstreamed into American life. This Task Force recommended that the president see to the "establishment of a woman's unit in the Office of Education to lead efforts to end discrimination in education because of sex."[159] The committee cited "discrimination in education...(as) one of the most damaging injustices women suffer."[160] The lack of opportunity in education denies women equal opportunity in employment and leads them to believe in the second class image which is conferred on them by society.[161]

Since this report, political interest has "...been moving in support of women's rights in such areas as discrimination in employment and constitutional reform..."[162] This interest has generated an atmosphere of openness whereby women are beginning to question the "...traditional institutions that have created and preserved the sexual imbalance and inequities in our society."[163]

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[159] President's Task Force on Women's Rights and Responsibilities, A Matter of Simple Justice (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1970), p. vi.

[160] Ibid., p. 7.

[161] Ibid.

[162] Athena Theodore, "The Professional Woman: Trends and Prospects," in The Professional Woman, ed. Athena Theodore, (Cambridge, Massachusetts: Schenkman Publishing Company, 1971), p. 18.

[163] Ibid.

Consequently, numerous articles have been written during the seventies speculating on the reason so few women enter the field of administration. Silver projected that the college environment itself discouraged women from aspiring to leadership positions; her rationale was that college faculties are male dominated and that they do not encourage women to aspire to administrative positions; also, that teachers are usually encouraged by their superiors to enter the realm of administration. The small number of females in positions of administration to encourage other females is a definite deterrent to the upward mobility of the members of their sex. The school boards are usually dominated by males who represent the most conservative segment of society. These men often look upon women with disfavor if they seek non-traditional roles.[164]

Howe suggests that a mammoth effort be made throughout the educational system to help women overcome the acceptance of their inferior status.[165] One of the greatest problems that exists in education is that women teachers themselves believe that they are inferior to their male colleagues. Consequently, this attitude contributes to the perpetuation of their existing status.[166] Women's limited aspirations must be challenged to the point that they are willing to defy the stereotype responsible for their limitations. This situation as it exists has thwarted the ambitions

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[164]Paula F. Silver, Women in Educational Leadership: A Trend Discussion (Columbus, Ohio: The University Council for Educational Administration), pp. 9, 15.

[165]Florence Howe, "Sexism and The Aspiration of Women," Phi Delta Kappan, October 1973, p. 102.

[166]Ibid.

of fifty percent of the population. While there is no immediate answer and while education has a greater impact than any other social force on the lives of the individual, an all out effort should be made to provide feminist education for women teachers. Teachers themselves must be educated to believe in their own sex.[167] She surmises that the few women who have achieved in education "...have kept their place in the male dominated social order."[168]

In the mid-seventies when females are seeking a higher status they are confronted "with a society that tends to look at women in terms of pre World War II norms."[169]

Women who seek to enter occupations defined as male are regarded by society as deviant and are subject to social sanctions. The sponsorship of someone already in the establishment has been the procedure commonly used for entrance into administrative positions. Men tend to be reluctant to sponsor women as their successors. Women also have limited access to clubs and associations where job opportunities and informal recommendations are made.[170]

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[167] Ibid., p. 104.

[168] Ibid., p. 103.

[169] Claudia K. Young, Women in School Administration and Supervision: A New Leadership Dimension (U.S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 122 418, February 1976).

[170] Cynthia Fuchs Epstein, "Encountering the Male Establishment: Sex-Status Limits on Women's Careers in the Professions," American Journal of Sociology, 75 (May 1970): 967,969, 981.

Gross and Trask concluded that the shift in administrative positions from women to men was a result of:

- The belief of school boards that more men need to be attracted to the elementary school which has traditionally been dominated by women.
- The reaction of school boards to criticism of the public schools for having a majority of women in the elementary school by placing men at this level. Their excuse has been that they are needed to serve as role models for boys.
- Women's lack of aspiration to principalships.[171]

Another interesting point made by Gross and Trask was that the principalship is not a role defined by society as a woman's role; and when women assume this role, men see this as a threat. The role definition for men and women constantly serves as an insurmountable obstacle for women who seek to advance within the profession.[172]

Freidan and West suggest that women's liberation is only asking that those who administer education assume the responsibility of arousing the consciousness of those they serve to recognize the need for justice and logic on behalf of women. They posed an interesting question when they surmised that: "if the boardmen and superintendents of this country---charged with providing free public education---are not the ones to ensure the teaching of justice and logic, what reason is there to have public schools?"[173]

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[171] Gross and Trask, The Sex Factor and The Management of Schools, p. 3.

[172] Ibid., p. 11.

[173] Freidan and West, "Sex Bias: The Built in Mentality that Maims the Public Schools," p. 20.

Following the United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission's ruling in 1972 (Appendix A) which stated, "that the commencement and duration of maternity leave cannot be treated differently than leave conditions for any other illness,"[174] school systems have adhered to the ruling and women in the public schools are not forced to take lengthy periods of absence due to pregnancy.

The change in the policy relating to maternity leaves of absence is viewed by Kaye as a tremendous boost to those who aspire to move into administrative positions.[175] Methods of family planning and the social acceptance of women to choose their life pattern has given them freedom to pursue a profession and some degree of equality.[176]

An analysis of information from state educational directories by June Marr revealed that the percentage of women in policy-making positions in all states averaged 6.8 percent in 1972. This study also revealed that "throughout the country male employees hold many more educational policy-making positions than do females.[177] The situation of women in

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[174] "Goodbye, Mandatory Maternity Leaves," Nation's Schools, October 1972, p. 10.

[175] Bernard W. Kaye, Moving Women into Educational Administration (U. S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 105 549, February 1975), p. 12.

[176] Dolan, "A Century of Equality," p. 25.

[177] Marr, "Women in State Departments of Education," p. 143.

policy-making positions has steadily deteriorated during the past two decades.[178]

Fishel and Pottker, in 1972, noting the lack of systematic collection of information on the sex of educational leaders, compiled their information on the national level from information found in state educational directories. Their information confirmed the fact that there was only one woman state superintendent and "...in only four states was a woman a deputy superintendent, associate superintendent or assistant superintendent."[179] Out of the 236 deputy, associate and assistant state superintendents in the United States, two percent were women.[180]

Legislation and Women's Status

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 did not provide equality to the female gender, in the field of education, until it was amended on March 27, 1972. (See Appendix B) At that time Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act was amended to expand its coverage to include educators. This amendment formed the Equal Employment Opportunities Act.[181]

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[178] Ibid.

[179] Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "Women in Educational Governance: A Statistical Portrait," Educational Research, July-August, 1974, pp. 4 & 5.

[180] Ibid.

[181] Adele Simmons, et al., Exploitation from 9 to 5, New York: Report of the Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Women's Employment (Lexington, Massachusetts: D. C. Heath and Company, 1975), p. 91.

This act prohibits discrimination in employment on the basis of sex, race, color, and creed; and applies to all school systems employing 15 or more people.[182] Title IX, a section of the Education Amendments Act, "...prohibits discrimination on the basis of sex against employees or students of any educational institution receiving Federal financial aid."[183] This act also protects women against different admission standards to educational institutions.[184]

Eligibility for federal funds following this federal legislation was based on plans submitted by institutions showing "...significant progress toward providing equal employment opportunities and treatment for women and members of minority groups."[185] This requirement encouraged the filling of vacancies at all levels by hiring women. Institutions receiving funds were required to demonstrate their progress on extending equity to women through an affirmative action plan.[186]

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[182]Recruitment Leadership and Training Institute, Women in Administrative Positions in Public Education (Washington, D. C.: U. S. Office of Education, 1974), p. 28.

[183]Employment Opportunities Commission, Affirmative Action and Equal Employment: A Guidebook for Employers, vol. 1 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, January 1974), p. 15.

[184]National Council of Administrative Women in Education, Wanted More Women: Where Are the Women Superintendents? (Arlington, Virginia: The National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1975), p. 21.

[185]Stiles and Nystrand, "The Politics of Sex in Education," p. 436.

[186]Ibid.

This legislation serves to boost women's chances of becoming top-level administrators and should encourage school districts to better utilize women's administrative abilities. This amendment provided the needed protection for women to prevent them from being discriminated against because of sex.[187]

The status of women in education could change for the better if they were willing to call into play legal action to modify existing practices. The rapidness of change will depend upon the willingness of women to challenge existing practices as court rulings take time and are an expensive venture.[188] However, with the current demand for teachers women are not apt to leave secure jobs. Women are not socialized to deal with confrontation when competing for an administrative position; also, their female colleagues are not apt to lend them their support if they make the attempt.[189] Many women who do succeed in the system strongly believe that they make it on their own talents. They refuse to believe that success depends on being in the right place at the right time or that a system of tokenism exists.[190]

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[187] Charlene Dale, "Let's Open District Doors to Female Administrators," Nation's Schools, June 1974, p. 12.

[188] Stiles and Nystrand, "The Politics of Sex in Education," p. 438.

[189] Grambs, "Women in Administration: Confrontation or Accommodation?", p. 296.

[190] Graham Staines, Carol Tavris, and Toby Epstein Jayaratne, "The Queen Bee Syndrome," Psychology Today, January 1974, p. 58.

Decline in Women Administrators

In spite of the legislation the outlook for women in administrative roles in public school education continued to look dim as their numbers continued to decrease (see Table 11). Women in the position of elementary principal decreased from 21 percent in 1970-71 to 19.6 percent in 1972-73; in the position of junior high principal, they decreased from

TABLE 11

ESTIMATED DISTRIBUTION OF FULL-TIME PUBLIC-SCHOOL PROFESSIONAL EMPLOYEES, 1972-73, BY SEX

Position	Men		Women	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Teachers	709,084	33.6	1,401,284	66.4
Principals				
Elementary	38,750	80.4	9,446	19.6
Junior High	9,102	97.1	272	2.9
Senior High	15,605	98.6	222	1.4
Total	63,457	86.4	9,940	13.5
Superintendents	12,972	99.9	65	0.1
Deputy & Assoc. Supts.	800	93.8	53	6.2
Assistant Supts.	5,054	94.7	283	5.3
Total Supts.	18,826	97.9	401	2.1

[a]National Education Association, 26th Biennial Salary and Staff Survey of Public-School Professional Personnel, 1972-73, Research Report 1973-R5 (Washington, D. C.: The National Education Association, 1973), p. 9.

3.5 percent in 1970-71 to 2.9 percent in 1972-73;in the position of senior high principal, they decreased from 3 percent in 1970-71 to 1.4 percent in 1972-73.Women in the position of superintendent decreased from 6 percent in 1970-71 to 0.1 percent in 1972-73;in the position of deputy or associate superintendent, the decrease was from 8 percent in 1970-71 to 6.2 percent in 1972-73. However, assistant superintendents showed an increase of over two percentage points during this period: 1970-71, 3 percent; 1972-73, 5.3 percent.[191]

Although 66.4 percent of all public school teachers are women, the principalship is represented by only 19.6 percent at the elementary level, 2.9 percent at the junior high level, and 1.4 percent at the senior high level.

The fact that so few women ever reach the level of principal in the school system predetermines why there are so few women superintendents, associate superintendents and assistant superintendents.[192]

As recently as 1973, Alexander sees the role of women in the public schools carrying the same stereotype that has always predominated in society. Their role is designated by their biological function of wife and mother. The social structure is patterned after that of the home which assigns the head of household to men.

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[191]National Education Association, 26th Biennial Salary and Staff Survey of Public School Professional Personnel, 1972-73, p. 9.

[192]Fishel and Pottker, "Women in Educational Governance: A Statistical Portrait," p. 6.

The number of women working outside the home is a phenomenon that appears destined to expand. If the public school system does not recognize that women can become administrators,it is not providing an education for the female equitable to that provided for the male. An "...image of women as individuals with brains, talents, and capabilities for leadership that need development and education for their own sakes ought to be far more obvious in the public schools than it is today."[193] Women have the right to participate at the decision-making level in society and this right should be recognized by those who administer the public schools.[194]

An article by Epstein, published in 1973, notes that there is an existing complex pressure which keeps women from aspiring to top positions in society. The socialization process, which begins early and is ongoing has not been clearly delineated. The occupational choices made by women are often determined not by "...preferences in terms of the content of the work, but rather...(in terms) of the hours during which work is done."[195]

Society does not afford women the privilege of immersing themselves in occupations outside the home to the same extent that men are permitted to. Consequently, women are directed into the "...less productive, less

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[193]Ruth Alexander, "Women and The American Public School," The School Administrator, October, 1973, pp. 19, 20.

[194]Ibid., p. 20.

[195]Epstein, "Structuring Success for Women," p. 58.

interesting, less honored, more dead-end places..."[196] The male sector of the society tends not to give the successful female its support. Epstein concludes that if equality for women is achieved there must be one standard for achievement that applies equally to both sexes.[197]

Women continue to be in the majority as elementary teachers, but are fast becoming the minority at the secondary level. (see table 12).

TABLE 12

ELEMENTARY-SECONDARY STAFF INFORMATION
1974

Position	Men		Women	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Teachers				
Elementary	165,303	13.7	821,652	83.2
Secondary	48,621	54.2	404,651	45.7
Total	213,924	34.5	1,226,303	65.5
Principals	61,535	87.3	8,920	12.6

[a]Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Employment Opportunity in the Schools, Research Report No. 51, (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1976), p.1.

The total number of women teachers shows a decrease of almost one percentage point from 1972-73 to 1974.

[196]Ibid.

[197]Ibid., p. 59.

In administrative positions their numbers also continue to decrease. The 1974 report shows a decrease of over one percentage point as compared to that of the 1972-1973 report. According to the report of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission in 1974, although the majority of all teachers were women they held only 12.6 percent of all principalships, both elementary and secondary, as compared to 87.3 percent held by men.[198]

The continued decrease according to Coursen can be attributed to the move to attract men into the field of education, especially at the elementary level "...to prevent the 'feminization' of the schools."[199]

The practice of providing opportunities for men to advance to administrative positions over that of qualified women is justified by top administrators and school boards as a means of holding men in the field of education.[200]

Statistical data compiled in the fall of 1975 (see Table 13) showed women on the increase at the superintendent/assistant superintendent level. Women showed a gain of over 2 percentage points or 586 positions at this level over that reported for the 1972-73 school year.

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[198] Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, Employment Opportunity In The Schools, Research Report No. 51 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1976), p. 1.

[199] David Coursen, "Women and Minorities in Administration," in School Leadership Digest (Arlington, Virginia: National Association of Elementary School Principals, 1975), p. 17.

[200] Ibid.

TABLE 13

OFFICIAL ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY DAY SCHOOLS BY SEX
Fall 1975

	Men		Women	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Superintendents and Assistants	19,656	95.2	987	4.8
Principals and Assistants	79,041	85.9	12,950	14.0

[a]National Center for Educational Statistics, Statistics of Public Elementary and Secondary Day Schools, Fall 1975, by Betty J. Foster and Judi M. Carpenter (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1977), p. 16.

Women may be making some gains at these levels, but they still remain a vast minority in the decision making positions.

The slight gain in the principalship cannot be compared with the 1972-1973 statistical data in that assistant principal data was compiled with that of principals in 1975.[201]

[201]National Center for Educational Statistics, Statistics of Public Elementary and Secondary Day Schools, Fall 1975 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1976), p. 16.

TABLE 14

PERCENT DISTRIBUTION OF ADMINISTRATIVE STAFF IN PUBLIC ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY DAY SCHOOLS BY SEX
Fall 1976

Position	Men		Women	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Superintendents and Assistants	18,493	94.5	1,062	5.4
Principals and Assistants	78,436	87.0	11,659	12.9

[a]National Center for Educational Statistics, Statistics of Public Elementary and Secondary Day Schools, by Betty J. Foster and Judi M. Carpenter (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1977), p. 18.

Data compiled in the fall of 1976 (see Table 14) again showed an increase in the number of women at the superintendent/assistant superintendent level. This increase amounted to six tenths of one percentage point or 75 positions. A decrease was shown at the principal/assistant principal level of one percentage point or 1,291 positions.[202]

This latest statistical data shows that the extent to which women are excluded from educational leadership remains enormous. The traditional situation of male dominance in leadership still exists in the public schools throughout the nation.

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[202]National Center for Educational Statistics, Statistics of Public Elementary and Secondary Day Schools, by Betty J. Foster and Judi M. Carpenter (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office 1977), p. 18.

The latest national study involving high school principals was done in 1977 by the National Association of Secondary School Principals, funded by the Rockefeller Family Fund. Sixteen hundred principals chosen at random across the nation made up the sample for this study. From this sample only 75 were women. Of this number 81 percent were employed in parochial or private schools. Only 19 percent or 14 women were found to be serving as principals of public high schools.

The reason for the limited number of women high school principals as determined by this study was that:

- Women left the high school principalship during the unrest of students and teachers during the Vietnam era.
- Many women could not cope with the increased demands of the job combined with family responsibility and other interests
- Male-dominated boards of education plus male dominated higher level school administrators prefer men in the position of high school principals

In an attempt by this team to identify and clarify good and poor principal behavior, the data collected revealed that the performance of women as high school principals was equal to that of men.

The hiring practices for women appeared twofold that of tokenism and that of service. Some systems hired women after a few years of school experience as a token for that system because there were no women principals in the system. The appointment to the principalship as a result of service took fifteen to twenty years of hard work and proven ability.

Discrimination against women in the lack of opportunity to higher education is diminishing. Women are enrolling in classes for administrators

at an increased rate to obtain the necessary formal education.[203] The greatest problem women encounter, according to the study, is that "...they are not able to obtain the much needed experience to make them competitive with their male counterparts in seeking a high school principalship."[204]

Women principals are more likely to be placed in small high schools than men. "...75% of all female principals surveyed were found to be working in schools of 749 students or less while only 37% of men principals were found to be working in smaller schools."[205]

The number of women seeking high school principalships is on the increase as a result of the increased oost of living, fewer children, and extended amount of time in the work force.

Changes in the status of women in public schools appear inevitable as a result of the feminist movement which has raised women's level of awareness and focused attention on the "...inequities with which they have lived for so many eons."[206]

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[203] Llona Pierce, "The Principal: Sir or Madam?" Alpha Delta Kappan 8, No. 2 (Fall 1978): 11.

[204] Ibid.

[205] Ibid.

[206] Grambs, "Women and Administration: Confrontation or Accommodation?", p. 296.

Attitudes Concerning Women in Administration

With the decreasing number of women in school administration in each successive decade, concerns grew, studies were made, and findings were reported and evaluated.

An article by Fishel and Pottker in 1973, evaluating studies that had been done in the area of women in public school administration, made the observation that "...current criteria used by school boards and superintendents to hire principals are not related to characteristics needed for principal success."[207] They stated that preference for these positions has been given to men even though there is much evidence, in studies that have been made, that women are more successful as principals than men. They feel that the discriminatory practice of hiring men rather than women as principals is another method used to prevent women from attaining positions at the higher levels in the educational hierarchy.[208]

Only two of the states in the United States were headed by women in 1972 -- Montana and Wisconsin.[209] It appears that when the practice of appointing state superintendents replaced that of electing them, that women were replaced by men without exception. "Electorates appear to be more 'liberated' than appointing committees and councils."[210]

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[207]Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "Women Lose Out: Is There Sex Discrimination in School Administration?" The Clearing House, March 1973, p. 389.

[208]Ibid.

[209]Patricia Sexton, Women in Education (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, Educational Foundation, 1976), p. 59.

[210]Dorothy L. Johnson, "Ms. Administrators, Where Are They?" The School Administrator, August 1972, p. 19.

Earl C. Funderburk noted this same problem stating that: "...only when top public school positions are elective rather than appointive do women educators stand a chance to hold a high administrative job."[211]

The shrinkage in the number of women in administrative positions in New York State had declined to the point that 70 percent of the state's school districts employed no women principals, according to an article by Doris M. Tempano, published in June of 1976. She found through studying various New York State school districts' recruitment and hiring techniques that women were not really considered for the administrative positions filled during the year she did her study. She saw this exclusion being done through exercising a "filtering system" which eliminated women applicants[212] (see Appendix B).

Lorraine Collins states that it is difficult to find school boards that are willing to hire a woman for a top job. She also found that women applicants are screened out early from among received applications.[213]

Women are often handicapped in working in administration in that women often are not included in decision making. Also when a decision

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[211]Earl C. Funderburk, "Women Their Responsibility in Professional Unity," Women: a Significant National Resource (U. S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 082 297, February 1971), p. 27.

[212]Doris M. Tempano, "How to Tell if You're Discriminating Against Would-be Women Administrators, and What To Do About It If You Are," American School Board Journal 163 (June 1976): 20.

[213]Lorraine Collins, "About Those Few Females Who Scale The Heights of School Management," American School Board Journal 163 (June 1976): 26.

made by a woman is overruled by a man, this act is not taken as seriously as if the same decision made by a man were overruled by a woman. The administrative position given a woman doesn't appear the same as that for males. A woman often encounters depressing and humiliating experiences in trying to keep up to date on information concerning her position. The secretary to the male administrator often is more informed than the woman colleague.[214]

The "old boy" network and protegé systems appear to be deterrents to women who seek administrative positions. Women have little knowledge in ways of coping with the informal network of the profession. They lack the backing of the informal recommendation and personal intervention which are important to obtaining positions in the administrative hierarchy.[215]

The Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Women and Employment, appointed in the spring of 1970 by the Twentieth Century Fund, noted that women have been relegated to a secondary role in society and have been conditioned from childhood not to expect the same treatment as men. Until the recent feminist movement coupled with recent federal legislation favoring women's status, women have accepted their secondary role.

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[214] Helen S. Garson, "Hurry Up Please It's Time", Journal of National Association of Women Deans and Counselors. 38 (Summer 1975): 171.

[215] R. Susan Gordon and Patricia G. Ball, "Survival Dynamics for Women in Educational Administration," Journal of National Association of Women Deans and Counselors. 40 (Winter 1977):40.

However, they are presently challenging existing social attitudes and are no longer willing to do the same work with less salary than that received by their male counterpart.[216]

International psychological changes and external institutional changes will be necessary before large numbers of women enter administrative positions according to Bardwick. Psychologically, they will have to be more sure of their motives in wanting to achieve responsible positions and condition themselves to live with their choices. They will have to more clearly communicate their goals, to identify their accomplishments as important components of their identity and source of esteem, and to feel confident in their ability to solve problems, to make decisions, and to lead. Women in asserting themselves need to develop techniques of being more open and above board so their intent will be clear and understandable. They need to become more independent, less sensitive to others' judgments about them and their work. Women who become leaders will have to be innovative, responsible, and independent.[217]

The dominant images of men and women in western cultures is that "...men are managers and providers and women are helpmates and homemakers." Kruger found in her study that professional choices concur

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[216]Simmons, Exploitation From 9 to 5, p. 4.

[217]Judith M. Bardwick, "Androgyny and Humanistic Goals or Goodbye, Cardboard People," in The American Woman: Who Will She Be? by Mary Louise McBee and Kathryn A. Blake (Beverly Hills, California: Glencoe Press, 1974), p. 54.

with this image and considered this an important factor as to why women occupy teaching roles in the schools and men a major portion of the principalship roles.[218]

"Culture and custom just do not encourage men working for women or women serving in major administrative posts."[219] This theme is prevalent throughout the literature,and Greenleaf states that women who are hired for administrative posts must be far superior to their male counterparts.[220]

Male leadership in education, according to Schmuck, is insured by the assignment of roles to them which puts them in command positions and "...reinforces the secondary status of females."[221] Therefore, the education profession,like all the professions in America,is a man's bailiwick. So seldom are women in the position of superintendent that there is no career path for their ascension to that position. While the elementary principalship is the one administrative position that numerous women have held and now hold, there is little research on the career path "...because this position has been traditionally the end of the

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[218]Jo Ann Krueger, A Study of Leadership Interaction (U. S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 122 356, April 1976),pp. 8 & 9.

[219]Elizabeth A. Greenleaf, "The Responsibility of Educated Women," The Education Digest, November 1974, p. 62.

[220]Ibid.

[221]Schmuck, Sex Differentation In Public School Administration, p. 6.

career ladder. It has not been an avenue for upward mobility in school district administration.[222]

There are in existence powerful social pressures which set sex role standards for women and women condition themselves to conform.

> Women are perceived as relatively less competent, less independent, less objective, and less logical than men; ...stereotypically masculine traits are more often perceived to be desirable than are stereotypically feminine characteristics.[223]

The negative values attributed to feminine characteristics tend to give women negative self-concepts.[224]

Clement suggests the development of selection criteria for hiring and promotion which would perhaps help men to transcend their stereotypic attitudes toward women when hiring and promoting personnel. She also forsees that "...the greater the change the more women move into power positions, the more intense will be the backlash and the turbulence of movement."[225] Social changes are needed to eradicate the limitations of women's aspirations.[226]

Prather very aptly summarizes the difficulties women experience in their career aspirations and opportunities when she defines the problem as being a result of society's viewpoint which sees work as a

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[222]Ibid., pp. 6 & 7.

[223]Inge K. Broverman, et al., "Sex-Role Stereotype: A Current Appraisal," in Women and Achievement Social and Motivational Analysis, ed. Martha T. S. Mednick, et al (New York: John Wiley and Sons, 1975), p. 44.

[224]Ibid.

[225]Clement, Sex Bias In School Leadership, p. 36.

[226]Ibid.

man's task,not that of a woman. This social impact is so forceful that "a self-fulfilling prophecy develops because, as few careers are open to women,few women seek or prepare for them."[227] She views this concept as a very difficult one for women to change.

> ...as long as socialization practices persist which reinforce dependency, passivity and nonassertiveness in girls which discourage girls from seriously pursuing higher education, few women will train to compete equally with men occupationally. Because of the many myths society holds about employment of women, many men do not treat their women co-workers as equals. Furthermore, if society continues to regard work, a career or a full-time occupation as masculine pursuits, few women will be offered top professional positions, and few women will strive to seek the few opportunities open. Even if the laws and policies which discriminate against women achieving equality with men in the labor force are eliminated the battle for equality is not won. At the socio-psychological level, what is also required is an expose of the myth and beliefs that limit women's potentiality.[228]

The nature of the feminine gender is of itself a hindrance to women's achievements in the professional world.

> For women the obligations attached to family status are first in priority, while for men the role demands deriving from the occupational status ordinarily override all others. The woman's duties as a mother override most other role obligations, her duties as a wife are second,and other status obligations are usually a poor third.
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> .....
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> Persons engaged in professional activity are especially expected to channel a large proportion of their emotional and physical energies into work.

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[227]Jane Prather, "Why Can't Women Be More Like Men?" in Women In The Professions: What's All The Fuss About?, ed. Linda S. Fidell and John DeLamater, (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publications, 1971), p. 20.

[228]Ibid., pp. 23 & 24.

> ...the lady professional who gives any indication of being more absorbed in work than in her husband and family is neither understood nor forgiven.[229]
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> .....
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> Women professionals tend to be more satisfied with their place in the professions and do not feel it necessary to press for the attention that will guarantee advancement.[230]
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> .....
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> Only with a significant increase in their numbers in the male dominated occupations and with a restructuring of expectations about women's place in society will women be able to work and compete with men freely at all levels of performance.[231]

The educational system in and of itself transmits society's values to each generation. In the public school system where children never see women in leadership roles, it is difficult for them to form attitudes that women can and should hold leadership positions. In that part of the public sector responsible for shaping the attitude of future citizens, it is very important that women hold decision making positions.[232]

In the middle years of the present decade women are still subjected to subject matter that is male oriented and which presents "...a masculine view of the world."[233] This subjection tends to enforce the belief in male dominance in areas of importance and to limit women's aspirations for themselves. Sociology, a study of society, as presented

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[229]Epstein, Women's Place, pp. 98-100.

[230]Ibid., p. 181

[231]Ibid., p. 204.

[232]Marilyn Neidig, "The Rise and Decline of Women Administrators," The National Elementary Principal, November/December 1976, p. 25.

[233]Carol A. Whitehurst, Women In America: The Oppressed Majority, (Santa Monica, California: Goodyear Publishing Company, Inc., 1977), p. 44.

to students of all levels of education is presented as a study of a male-dominated society.[234]

However, women tend to enjoy this feminine identity which subjects them to male dominance. This could be the result of thier socialization which "...makes it impossible for women to conceive of themselves as achieving."[235]

Whitehurst concludes then that the important goal for women "...regardless of socioeconomic status or intellectual ability or eventual academic aspiration---is autonomy. It is competence in an area in which she can support herself, a positive image of herself, and knowledge of the options available to her."[236]

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[234] Ibid., pp. 44 & 45.

[235] Ibid., p. 46.

[236] Ibid., p. 51.

CHAPTER III

OUTSTANDING WOMEN SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

At a period in our history when outstanding administrators are needed to meet the challenges of the nation's public schools, there are no longer valid reasons for continuing the processes that have wasted the minds and spirits of half the human population.[237] Sex stereotyping that has handicapped women for generations and forced them to work within the limited framework of their socialization is currently archaic.[238] A truism that appears to be a deterrent to the aspirations of women in the area of public school administration is that "until you have a history you have no future."[239] The image of success for women must become more obvious in the public schools if women are to make their mark on history.

For this reason the writer has included in this chapter a number of courageous women who have been interested in and committed to social change to the degree that they have achieved success as educational leaders. In submitting their contributions as part of the living human record, it is hoped that their success will insure a future for women at the administrative levels.

The women included here have assumed the "...willingness to make the commitment of time and energy to serve as a leader and a willingness

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[237]Howe, "Sexism and The Aspirations of Women," p. 105.

[238]Grambs, "Theory into Practice," p. 298.

[239]Howe, "Sexism and The Aspirations of Women," p. 103.

to take the guff and the pressure that come with administrative posts."[240] They have had the courage to decide what is right for them and to disregard the dictates of a society that places only men in leadership roles.[241] They have reached the pinnacle of success through a hard and indirect route,bringing with them years of experience in the fundamentals of public school education that few men administrators have to draw upon.[242]

Biographical sketches for eleven outstanding women whose contributions to public school education span the seventy-eight years of this study were selected for inclusion in this chapter (see Table 15). Each of them has held one or more of the top-level administrative positions that have contributed to the status of women as administrators. They also represent a variety of school systems in different geographical locations. The one woman state superintendent serving in the nation and the one woman county superintendent presently serving in North Carolina have been included in this study as recognition of the women who are holding top-level positions in public school administration during the 1970's.

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[240]Greenleaf, "The Responsibility of Educated Women," p. 62.

[241]Sylvia Lee Tibbetts, "Sex Role Stereotyping: Why Women Discriminate Against Themselves," Journal of The National Association of Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, Summer, 1975 , p. 182.

[242]Collins, "About Those Few Females Who Scale the Heights of School Management," p. 26.

ELLA FLAGG YOUNG, New York, 1849-1918

The first woman in the nation to hold a major educational post, Ella Flagg Young was elected to the position of Superintendent of the Chicago City Schools in 1909.[243] As chief administrator, she was very supportive of the educators under her leadership and fought tirelessly for the rights of teachers. She organized teacher councils to give teachers more voice in the governing process of the schools.[244] She released the principals to become more involved with the instructional programs by providing them with clerical assistance.[245] One of her greatest ambitions was to have the schools meet the needs of those they served.[246] She saw administration as a cooperative effort of those involved and worked diligently to implement this idea throughout her tenure in office.[247]

Her teaching career began in 1862 at the Foster School in Chicago. In 1863 she was placed in the Brown School as head assistant. In 1865 she became the head training teacher in Chicago's newly created School of Practice, a part of the high school that prepared teachers for the

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[243]James, Notable American Women, p. 698.

[244]John T. McManis, Ella Flagg Young and A Half Century of The Chicago Public Schools (Chicago: A. C. McClurg and Company, 1916), pp. 156-157.

[245]Rosemary Donatelli, "The Contribution of Ella Flagg Young to the Education Enterprise" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Chicago, 1971), p. 347.

[246]McManis, Ella Flagg Young, p. 32.

[247]Donatelli, "Contribution of Ella Flagg Young," p. 426.

elementary school. In 1871 she moved from the School of Practice to become a teacher in the high school. She returned to the Normal School in June of 1872 to teach mathematics and to serve as an assistant principal.[248]

In her work at the normal school she worked to get teachers to assess the child's needs, to teach to these needs, recognizing individual differences, and to adopt the idea that students should be allowed to grow in their own way.[249]

In 1879 she became principal of one of Chicago's largest schools: the Skinner Elementary School. Her organizational and management skills as principal endeared her to her superiors. Her school was an important part of the community in that it had a direct influence on the affairs of the people. She worked diligently to know and serve the community in which she worked. She believed strongly in scholarship and required high standards of efficiency from those with whom she worked. As a result of her interest in classical culture, she saw a need to expose children to great literature. Consequently, one of the first school libraries in the city of Chicago was established in her school.[250]

She remained at Skinner Elementary School until 1887 when she was elected to the position of assistant superintendent. As assistant

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[248] McManis, Ella Flagg Young, p. 42.

[249] Ibid., p. 129.

[250] Ibid., pp. 59, 61 & 62.

superintendent she was required to teach educational principles and methods to the young teachers, again serving in the capacity of preparing teachers to do a better job in the classroom.[251]

She left public school employment in 1899 to become a full time student at the University of Chicago under the tutorage of John Dewey, where she received her Ph. D. in 1900. She taught at the university from 1900-1904. In 1905 she returned to the public school system of Chicago as principal of Chicago's Normal School, remaining in that capacity until she was elected to the superintendency.[252]

Ms. Young was appointed to the Illinois State Board of Education by the governor in 1889. She held this post for a period of twenty years. A prominent figure in the National Education Association, she was the first woman president of that organization, being elected to this post in 1910.[253]

She served as editor of The Elementary Teacher during 1903 and 1904.[254] She collaborated with Henry Field in writing a book entitled Young and Field Literary Readers, designed to assist teachers in literary studies.[255]

Her career in education was varied and exciting, spanning a period of fifty years with most of the time spent in the public schools of

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[251]Ibid., pp. 80-81.

[252]Ibid., p. 109.

[253]Ibid., p. 93 & 95.

[254]Donatelli, "Contributions of Ella Flagg Young," p. 71.

[255]Ibid., p. 119.

Chicago. Her career in public school education ended when she resigned from the superintendency in 1915.[256]

[256]Ibid., p. 175.

BRIDGET PEIXOTTO, New York, 1880-1972

Bridget Peixotto pioneered in the adoption of maternity leave for teachers throughout the country. She was dismissed from teaching in 1913 when she left her teaching duties because of pregnancy. With eighteen years experience as a teacher to her credit she brought suit against the New York City school system to have the decision of dismissal rescinded. The New York State Supreme Court declared the action of the school board illegal in that teachers had won the right to be married and remain as teachers. The pregnancy was defined as a 'natural incident of the marriage.' "The Appellate Division of the courts reversed (the decision) and the Court of Appeals upheld the reversal."[257] She then appealed to the State Commissioner of Education, Dr. John H. Finley, who reinstated her in her job and handed down the decision, "establishing the right of married teachers to obtain a leave of absence for the purpose of child-bearing on January 12, 1915."[258] The ramifications of the Finley decision made it possible, prior to the recent legislation (see Chapter II), for married women teachers to take a leave of absence for the purpose of bearing children.[259]

Mrs. Peixotto became an assistant principal in 1916 and a principal in 1918. At the time of retirement she was serving as principal of Public School 108 in Queens, New York.

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[257] New York Times, April 12, 1972, p. 48.

[258] Ibid.

[259] Ibid.

ANNIE WEBB BLANTON, Texas, 1870-1945

A new era in education with its numerous problems, issues, and trends awaited Annie Webb Blanton when she took the oath of office for the position of Superintendent of Public Instruction for the State of Texas on January 1, 1919. She assumed this office two months after the close of World War I and proved to her constituency, during her first term in office, that she was equal to the task.

While in office she sought help for the public schools by writing numerous bills which the legislature was persuaded to pass. The state constitution was amended to permit local school districts to raise their tax limit as a result of her efforts. The apportionment of state funds to schools was increased considerably; salaries for teachers increased an average of fifty-four percent; standards for teacher certification were raised, and certification was required for local superintendents of schools during her tenure as state superintendent of schools.

Other improvements made during her tenure in office were: the organization and administration of free textbooks, the adoption of multiple readers for the elementary grades and a choice of text books for the high school. She was successful in persuading the legislature to allocate additional dollars for rural schools, and she worked diligently to improve the Negro schools by allotting them an equitable share of state funds. Special emphasis was placed on aid to Spanish speaking children to help them learn to speak English.

Ms. Blanton wrote numerous articles which were published in all the leading newspapers throughout the state to keep the people of Texas informed about school affairs.

She believed in equality for her sex in that the members of her staff were selected for their ability and training without regard to sex. Of the six major divisions in the Department of Public Instruction, three men and three women held the positions. She worked tirelessly to encourage women to see that the members of their sex were serving in positions of decision making in the public school system.

After leaving the superintendency in 1922, she was named to the faculty of the University of Texas where she served for three years. She worked toward and received her master's degree during this period. She received a leave of absence from the university to enroll at Cornell University where, after fifteen months, she received her Ph.D. degree in 1927.

In the fall of 1927, she returned to the University of Texas to the position of Associate Professor of School Administration of Rural Education, becoming a full professor in 1933. In 1939, she requested the university to put her on a half-time teaching basis. She resigned from the university in 1945, at the age of 75.

She was dedicated to improving the status of women educators to the extent that she, with the help of eleven other women educators, organized the Delta Kappa Gamma Society which received its charter in 1929. The purpose of Delta Kappa Gamma emphasized that women should assume the responsibility for improving their own social and educational standing and that, cooperatively, women could help each other.

She became president of the Texas State Teachers Association in 1917. Other professional, civic, patriotic, and cultural organizations benefiting from her efforts were: the National Council of Education; the National Education Association (of which she served as vice-president in

1917, 1919 and 1921); National Association of University Professors; Texas Press Women's Association; Phi Beta Kappa; Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs; United Daughters of the Confederacy, plus many others.

Her publications included: Grammar Outline, Supplementary Exercise in Punctuation and Advanced English Grammar, A Study of Salaries of Texas College Teachers, and Handbook of Information on Education in Texas State Education Reports.

Ms. Blanton was a product of the schools in her native state of Texas, where she graduated from the public high school in La Grange. At the time of her graduation, Ms. Blanton was too young to enter the university. Consequently, she accepted employment as a teacher in a one-room rural school in Fayette County, Texas. During the next year she moved to Austin, Texas where she spent several years teaching in the elementary schools and the Austin High School. Ms. Blanton attended the University of Texas during this period in her life alternating her time between teaching and attending university classes. In 1899 she received her bachelor's degree from the University of Texas. Upon graduating from college, she accepted a position on the faculty of the North Texas State Normal School in Denton, Texas, a position she held until she was elected to the presidency of the Texas Teachers' Association in 1917.[260]

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[260]Eunah Temple Holden, Our Heritage in The Delta Kappa Gamma Society, Vol. II (Austin, Texas: Delta Kappa Gamma Society, 1970), pp. 12-19.

PEARL A. WANAMAKER, Washington State, 1899-

Immediately after taking office as Superintendent of Public Instruction of the State of Washington on January 1, 1941, Pearl Wanamaker was faced with the school district consolidation program. The number of districts, for reasons of efficiency and economy, was reduced from twenty-seven hundred to eight hundred. She provided the leadership, organizing teachers' groups to secure legislation which would give the schools a stronger voice in the disposition of school-owned lands and forests. She worked for teacher salary adjustment and "...through the Contract Relations Law, which she sponsored with the Washington Education Association, instituted standardized contracts and improved tenure and sick-leave conditions."[261] Other improvements made under her leadership were: classroom teacher involvement in state-wide curriculum improvement; in-service training; school board-teacher relations code of ethics; state aid for school plant renovation and for new plant construction; and a state-wide joint contributory teacher retirement law.

Under the pressures brought on by World War II and the manpower shortages created, she shortened the school day and introduced a more intensive program of industrial training in the schools combined with part-time work on the job. This was designed to prevent the youth of Washington state from dropping out of the public schools before they had completed their education.

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[261]Anna Rothe, ed., Current Biography Who's News and Why, 1946 (New York: H. W. Wilson Company, 1947), p. 622.

Following World War II in 1946 she was appointed by General Douglas MacArthur to serve on the commission to help Japan democratize their educational system. She was elected to the presidency of the National Education Association on July 5, 1946. She served as chairperson of the State Board of Education, the State Board of Vocational Education, the State Library Commission, the State Council of National Citizenship Education, and the Northwest Council of the National Council on School Building Problems. She also served as vice-president of the National Council of Chief State School Officers in 1943. She held membership in the Washington Education Association and the American Association of School Administrators, the joint Canada-United States Committee on Education and in 1946 served her second three-year term on the board of directors of the Educational Policies Commission.

Ms. Wanamaker began her teaching career at the age of eighteen after graduating from high school. Her first position was that of teacher in a one-room country school. From 1917 through 1921 she taught in a graded elementary school and served as principal in another elementary school. In 1919 she combined her formal education at Billingham Normal School, with that of her job as principal and completed the requirements for a B.A. degree from the University of Washington in 1922. After completing her education at the university she accepted a position in a rural high school in Montana. At the end of the school year in 1923 she returned to the state of Washington to accept the position of superintendent of schools of Island County. She held this post for four years.

Following her marriage to Lemuel A. Wanamaker in 1927 she returned to the classroom as a high school teacher in 1928. In 1929 she became the state representative for her district and was released from her classroom

duties during the legislative sessions. She was re-elected to the House of Representatives in 1933 and 1935 and was elected to the State Senate in 1937 and 1939. During her tenure in the legislature many improvements were made in the educational program in the state of Washington due to her dynamic leadership. Among the improvements made were increases in teachers' salaries and equitable distribution of school support in all areas of the state as a result of a bill which she co-authored providing for state assistance to tax-poor districts.

For two sessions she served as chairperson of the Senate Labor and Labor Statistics Committee. She was a member of the Governor's Arbitration Board in the Puget Sound Ferry Strike in 1935. She terminated her employment as a high school teacher and as a member of the legislature in 1940 to accept the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction for the state of Washington on January 1, 1941.[262] She remained in this position until she retired in 1957.[263]

She was born in the town of Mahona on Camono Island, Island County, Washington state.[264]

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[262]"Know Your NEA," The Journal of the National Education Association 35 (September, 1946): 316.

[263]Ohles, Biographical Dictionary of American Educators, p. 1343.

[264]"Know Your NEA," p. 316.

SUSAN ALMIRA MILLER DORSEY, New York, 1857-1946

Chosen by the board of education for the superintendency of the Los Angeles school system in 1920, Ms. Dorsey was the second woman in the country to head a metropolitan school system. During her tenure as superintendent the school enrollment increased from 90,609 to 222,670, almost two and one-half times. The increased enrollment taxed her administrative ability, but she handled it successfully. A multimillion dollar bond issue designated for new school buildings was passed during her reign.[265] These millions of dollars were spent under Ms. Dorsey's direction in constructing beautiful new school buildings. New teachers, carefully selected, were added to the system by the thousands.[266] While superintendent she worked for higher salaries, sabbatical leave, and job tenue for teachers.[267]

She served the system as superintendent from 1920-1929.[268] Prior to becoming superintendent she served as assistant superintendent of the Los Angeles City Schools from 1913-1920. She was the first woman to hold this position in the Los Angeles School System.[269]

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[265]James, Notable American Women, p. 507.

[266]The Journal of The National Education Association, Obituary Section 35 (April 1946): 183.

[267]James, Notable American Women, p. 507.

[268]The Journal of The National Education Association, April 1946, p. 183.

[269]John Fobles, ed., Biographiogaphical Dictionary of American Educators, vol. 1 (Westport, Connecticut: Greenwood Press, 1978), p. 388.

Ms. Dorsey's activities in professional organizations included serving as president in 1914 of the Southern California Committee on the Cause and Cure of War, and as vice-president of the Woman's Law Observance Association. The National Education Association made her a life member in 1933. In 1937 a high school in Los Angeles was named in her honor.[270]

Beloved by her community, she received many honors which included honorary degrees from the University of California, University of Southern California, Pamona, and Occidental College.[271]

Ms. Dorsey was born in Penn Yan, New York in 1857. She received her A.B. degree from Vassar College in 1877 and was later elected to its chapter of Phi Beta Kappa. She married and moved to California after teaching four years at Wilson College, Chambersburg, Pennsylvania and at Vassar. In 1896 she joined the Los Angeles high school as a teacher and became head of the classical department and vice-principal before receiving her appointment as assistant superintendent in 1913.[272]

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[270] Ibid.

[271] The Journal of The National Education Association, April, 1946, p. 183.

[272] Ibid.

IONE SWAN, California, 1902-

Ione Swan was fired as principal of Los Angeles Wilshire-Crest School because of her efforts to make playgrounds safe for school children even though she had been praised for decades for her contributions to the Los Angeles Public Schools. As a result of her courage in attacking the seven-member school board of the Los Angeles school system, five of the seven either resigned or were defeated in the next election. Of the other two members one faced a Grand Jury trial on accusation of corruption and the other a jury trial on a three-count criminal indictment.

In 1930 Ms. Swan was promoted to the principalship of the Wilshire-Crest School. She began immediately to attempt to correct the class size of forty or more children per teacher and the ratings, rules and regulations governing teachers which were being enforced by people in higher positions who had never entered a classroom. Teachers were overwhelmed with paper work and were fearful of the administrative hierarchy.

In 1948 a student fell from a playground slide onto the paved playground and received a fractured skull. After two incidents of this type at her school, Ms. Swan enlisted the aid of the PTA to help correct the playground situation in the Los Angeles system. She asked that pits be placed under playground apparatus. In 1949 another student from Ms. Swan's school died from a fall on the asphalt surface of the Wiltshire-Crest playground. Parents became enraged, following this incident, to the point that they began investigating the situation. It then became public that an earlier investigation of the playgrounds in the system by a safety engineer at a cost of $5,000 had resulted in the recommendation

to the school board that immediate replacement of the black top was necessary and that sand should be placed under all playground apparatus. This report was never released to the public.

The school board agreed to do the playground at Ms. Swan's school on an experimental basis. The Los Angeles Daily News joined in the battle and assigned one reporter full time to investigate other school board scandals. Ms. Swan's testimony concerning the school board scandal cost her the position of principal at Wiltshire-Crest School. But, she set about to see that the existing school board was not re-elected, a task in which she was successful. Ms. Swan cared enough for the children in the Los Angeles schools that she placed their welfare above personal salary and security. She continued her battle for more and better teachers, for freedom from intimidation by the administrative hierarchy, and for freedom for the time to work with children.

She began her career in 1922 as a teacher in a school for retarded children in the Los Angeles School System.[273]

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[273] Albert Q. Maisel, "She Fought for the Children," Readers Digest, March, 1952, pp. 49-53.

ANNA E. LAWSON, New York, 1882-1970

A white teacher with teaching experience in New Haven, Connecticut, Ms. Lawson viewed a position in Harlem as a challenge. She accepted the position of assistant principal at Public School 119 in Harlem in 1923, where she later became principal. In 1936 she was named principal of the Julia Ward Howe Junior High School in Harlem. In 1948 the community showed its appreciation for her services by honoring her at a dinner at the Waldorf-Astoria to celebrate her 25 years of service to this school. In 1951 her retirement "...was marked by a testimonial luncheon at the Waldorf-Astoria." [274]

Her concern was for children, not race, and she felt that the students of Harlem deserved the best she could give.

Ms. Lawson designed and published a "Track System" that was used by other schools. The system proposed teaching children at their own level of learning. She firmly believed children could learn if they were in the proper track. She also developed a "Behavior Guidance Plan." This program, designed to help students develop self-discipline, evolved from her experience at the Julia Ward Howe Junior High School and was used if teachers were unable to discipline students in their classrooms.

From 1927 to 1936 she served on the Teacher Retirement Board. She served as president for both the New York Principals Association and the Junior High School Principals Association. She held membership in the New York Academy of Public Education and the Administrative Woman in Education.

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[274] New York Times, August 20, 1970, p. 35.

Born in New York, she grew up in Hartford, Connecticut and graduated from New Britain, Connecticut State Normal School. She received her master's degree from New York City College.[275]

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[275] Ibid.

IRA JARRELL, 1896-1973, Georgia

The only woman in the nation to head a major school system in the 1940's and 1950's, Ira Jarrell began her sixteen-year tenure as superintendent of the Atlanta public school system in 1944.[276] One of the major tasks Miss Jarrell undertook upon becoming superintendent of Atlanta's school system was integration of the sexes. The organizational pattern used in this endeavor which provided co-educational community high schools throughout the district attracted nationwide attention.[277]

Under her leadership the Rich Foundation funded an FM radio broadcasting system with receivers in the classrooms and the Ford Foundation financed an educational TV station making the Atlanta Board of Education the first in the nation to own and operate its own station.[278] Among the many other accomplishments during her tenure in office was the establishment of a single salary schedule for all teachers-- elementary and high school white and black.[279] Guidance and counseling services, designed to help students make important decisions concerning their education, were provided in all the high schools.[280]

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[276] "Miss Ira Jarrell is Dead at 77", Atlanta Constitution, August 28, 1973, p. 1.

[277] Ibid.

[278] "Ira Jarrell Looks Back on 44 Years," The Atlanta Journal and Constitution Magazine, April 3, 1960, p. 3.

[279] Ibid., p. 2.

[280] Ibid., p. 3.

She was instrumental in getting the county to cooperate in establishing the George Washington Carver Vocational School for Negroes, a project for which she alone raised $650,000.[281] Numerous other innovations and improvements occurred in the Atlanta school system during her tenure in office.

She was active in the Atlanta Teachers Association serving as its president from 1936-1944. Her eight-year term was the longest period any president ever served.[282] She was also a prominent figure in the religious and civic affairs of the city. A lifetime member of Park Avenue Baptist Church, she served as Superintendent of the Beginners Department of the Sunday School for more than thirty-five years. She received the honor of being named Atlanta's "Woman of the Year in Civic Affairs" in 1943 and "Atlanta's Woman of the Year" for 1947. She was also selected for "Woman of the Year in Education" for that same year. She was a member of the Board of Directors of Junior Achievement in Georgia, the Atlanta Community Fund, the Salvation Army, the Atlanta Boys Club, the Atlanta Chapter of the American Red Cross, and the Atlanta Symphony Guild. She served on the Editorial Advisory Board of the School Executive, and was one of the trustees of Oglethorpe University.[283]

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[281] Ibid., p. 53.

[282] Archives of the Atlanta Public Schools (Atlanta, Georgia: Atlanta Public School System, November 24, 1975), p. 1.

[283] Biographical Sketch of Dr. Ira Jarrell (Atlanta, Georgia: Atlanta Public School System, 1965), p. 1.

Miss Jarrell spent her entire professional career in the public schools of Atlanta, Georgia. Her varied experiences in education began in 1916 at the Crew Street School where she taught sixth grade. In 1926 she moved to the Charles McLendon School (renamed the Sylvan Hills School) and taught fourth, fifth and sixth grades. She became principal of the Sylvan Hills School in 1934 and remained there through the spring of 1936, at which time she was appointed to the principalship of the W. F. Slaton Elementary School where she remained until she assumed the superintendent's position in 1944.[284]

Born in Atlanta, Georgia, Ira Jarrell was educated in the Atlanta public schools. Her high school experience was in an all-girls' school. After high school she graduated from the Atlanta Normal Training School and Oglethorpe University where she received both her A. B. and M. A. degrees. She did graduate work at Emory University and the University of Georgia. The honorary degree of "Doctor of Education," was conferred upon her by the trustees of Oglethorpe University in June of 1950.[285]

In 1960, on the eve of racial integration, Miss Jarrell retired from her position of superintendent of Atlanta's public schools. She then became

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[284]"Miss Ira Jarrell is Dead at 77," p. 1.

[285]Archives, p. 1.

director of the Division of Curriculum Development for the Georgia State Department of Education until she retired in 1964.[286]

286 "Miss Ira Jarrell is Dead at 77," p. 1.

GEORGIA RUTH RICE, North Dakota, 1936-

Georgia Rice was elected to the office of Superintendent of Public Instruction for the state of Montana, January 1977. Ms. Rice's educational responsibilities include membership on the Board of Public Education, Board of Regents, State Library Commission, Teachers Retirement Board and the State Board of Land Commissioners.

Prior to becoming State Superintendent of Public Instruction, Ms. Rice served as Pupil Transportation Safety Supervisor in that office for the year 1975-76. For her achievements in this office, she was awarded the Distinguished Service Award at the Montana Pupil Transportation Conference in 1976 and the Award for Outstanding Service by the Montana School Bus Contractors Association during that same year. From 1973-75 she served as assistant traffic education and pupil transportation safety supervisor at the state level.

Her many contributions to the field of education include: directing a state research project on insurance for traffic education vehicles; developing and implementing a performance-based program in high school traffic education for Montana schools; developing and implementing a performance base K-6 program for Montana schools in bicycle, passenger and pedestrian safety; implementing the first and ultimately largest program in the Northwest in accident prevention through emergency procedure education; serving as co-chairman of the Northwest Regional Conference for the American Driver and Traffic Safety Education Association; coordinating the Northwest Conference for traffic safety education; directing the project for developing a School Bus Driver Education program for

Montana; and developing the Pupil Transportation Handbook for the state of Montana.

She is affiliated with and has held offices in the following organizations: American Driver and Traffic Safety Education Association (member of the national board for four years); League of Women Voters, publication manager; Montana Traffic Education Association, public relations manager; Montana Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation, vice-president. She is also a member of the Montana Education Association and the National Education Association and holds membership in numerous other organizations.

A 1957 graduate of Eastern Montana College at Billings, Montana, she earned a bachelor's degree in secondary education with a major in social science. She has also earned a two-year degree in elementary education. Over twenty years following her graduation from college she has earned an additional fifty credits in supervision, management and practical application of educational programs. She taught in four different high schools and two junior high schools in the state of Montana before joining the state Department of Public Instruction. She has also taught at the Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana.

Ms. Rice was born in 1936 of immigrant parents, the youngest of nine children. She began working while a junior in high school and worked her way through college.[287]

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[287] Georgia Ruth Rice, "Resume'", Office of Public Instruction, Helena, Montana, February 7, 1979, p. 4. (Mimeographed.)

JEANNE ETHRIDGE MEIGGS, North Carolina, 1942-

Jeanne Ethridge Meiggs was appointed to the position of superintendent of Currituck County Schools in North Carolina in May of 1977. Although she was only thirty-six years of age, she entered the position with a background rich in educational experiences. She taught third, fourth, and seventh grades in the elementary schools; also, she taught physical education, social studies, and served as guidance counselor on the secondary level. She served as supervisor and assistant superintendent on the county level prior to her appointment as superintendent.

Her membership in professional organizations includes: the American Association of School Administrators, the North Carolina Association of School Administrators, the Association of Supervisors and Curriculum Development, the North Carolina Association of Educators, the North Carolina Association for Education of Young Children, and the North Carolina Art Society.

Born in North Carolina, most of her educational experience has been there. She attended Currituck Elementary School in Currituck and the Moyack High School in Moyack. She received her bachelor's degree from Duke University and her master's degree from Old Dominion University, Norfolk, Virginia. Her Educational Specialist's degree was earned at East Carolina University, Greenville, North Carolina.[288]

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[288]Jeannie Ethridge Meiggs, Resume, Board of Education, Currituck, North Carolina, November 1978, p. 1. (Mimeographed.)

JACQUELINE PARKER CLEMENT, Massachusetts, 1932-

Jacqueline Clement came to the position of Superintendent of Schools in Lincoln, Massachusetts, in 1978 with a variety of experience in administration. Prior to assuming this role she had served as assistant superintendent in two other systems, was director of a Headstart program and a consultant for the New Hampshire State Department of Education.

Serving as Assistant Superintendent in the Brookline, Massachusetts, public school system from 1975-78, she was responsibile for the supervision of principals and curriculum directors, overall management of educational programs, curriculum design and monitoring, coordination and development of state and federal programs, publications, research and evaluation activities, and writing of related educational policy for the Superintendent and School Committee. This system had six thousand students with eight elementary schools and one large high school.

Her first experience as an assistant superintendent was from 1973-75 in the rural Supervisory Union district, Hanover, New Hampshire, with a student population of 2,200. This New Hampshire/Vermont district contained five school boards and eight schools. The position responsibilities included personnel, pupil services, instructional program supervision, curriculum development, in-service activities and federal grants including Title I and budgetary review.

As director of a Follow-Through Headstart program in New Hampshire in 1967-71, her duties included development and implementation of a model early childhood program in the public schools,K-3; the involvement

of parents; supervision of staff; the writing and administration of a community program to include citizen training, adult education, career counseling for low-income parents; dissemination activities required of a model federal project; research and evaluation design; budget administration and liaison with the Far West Educational Laboratory, Berkeley, California. Her program received the New Hampshire Council for Better Schools Award in 1968.

Serving as a consultant for the New Hampshire State Department of Education in 1971, she designed staff development activities including a teacher-training program, the design of workshops for elementary principals, and the monitoring and revision of pre- and in-service programs for the State Department of Education.

She has been active in community affiars and professional organizations, including membership on the advisory board of New Hampshire Health Care in Hanover, pre-service on the board of directors for the Spalding Youth Center, and president and member of the board of directors for Planned Parenthood of the Upper Valley. Her leadership roles include: treasurer of the New England Coalition of Educational Leaders; service on the Advisory Committee on Certification of School Administrators for Massachusetts; and service as a member of the Task Force to the Assistant Secretary of Health, Education and Welfare, for the conference on Women in Education.

Ms. Clement holds a B. A. degree in economics from Mount Holyoke

College, which she received in 1952; a M. Ed. degree in guidance and counseling from American University, in 1968; and Ed. D. degree in administrative careers from Harvard University, in 1974. She has received three fellowships which have added to her educational experience. In 1952 she was a United Nations Intern, on the Economic Commission for Europe in Geneva, Switzerland. For the 1953-54 school year she had a teaching fellowship in the Department of Economics at the University of California at Berkeley. In 1976 she received the summer National Endowment for Humanities Fellow, at Stanford University.

Published articles by Ms. Clement include:

- "The Costs of Educational Innovation," Current History, July, 1972. Co-author with Mark Shedd.
- "Where are the Women Superintendents?" Women's Studies Newsletter, Vol. II, No. 1, Winter, 1974.
- "Open Education: Program and Curriculum Implications," in To Do, To Learn, To Become...Alternative in Primary Education. Title I, ESEA, Division of Instruction, State Department of Education, Concord, New Hampshire, 1974.
- "Sex Bias in School Leadership," Integrated Education Associates, Evanston, Illinois, 1975.[289]

[289] Jacqueline P. Clement, Resume, Brookline, Massachusetts, 1979, pp. 1-3. (Mimeographed.)

TABLE 15

SELECTED WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS 1900-1977

Name	Years	Positions							
		Asst. Prin.	Prin.	Local Asst. Supt.	Local Supt.	State Supt.	School System	State
Ella Flagg Young	1887-1898			x			Chicago City	Illinois
	1905-1909		x				Chicago City	Illinois
	1909-1915				x		Chicago City	Illinois
Bridget Peixotto	1916-1918	x					New York City	New York
	1918-1948		x				New York City	New York
Annie Webb Blanton	1919-1922					x	Texas State	Texas
Pearl Anderson Wanamaker	1917-1921		x				Island County	Washington
	1924-1927				x		Island County	Washington
	1941-1957					x	Washington State	Washington
Susan Almira Miller Dorsey	1902-1913	x					Los Angeles	California
	1913-1920			x			Los Angeles	California
	1920-1929				x		Los Angeles	California
Anna Lawson	1923-1936	x					New York City	New York
	1936-1951		x				New York City	New York

TABLE 15 (continued)

Name	Years	Positions					School System	State
		Asst. Prin.	Prin.	Local Asst. Supt.	Local Supt.	State Supt.		
Ira Jarrell	1934-1944		x				Atlanta City	Georgia
	1944-1960				x		Atlanta City	Georgia
Ione Swann	1923-1951		x				Los Angeles	California
Georgia Ruth Rice	1977-					x	Montana State	Montana
Jeanne Ethridge Meiggs	1976-1977			x			Currituck County	North Carolina
	1977-				x		Currituck County	North Carolina
Jacqueline P. Clement	1973-75			x			Brookline	Massachusetts
	1975-78			x			Hanover Supervisory Union 22	New Hampshire

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In spite of "...decades of oppression and stereotyping, society still does not recognize that equality of opportunity, like liberty, is indivisible..."[290]

The above statement aptly describes the findings of this study. Education, since before the turn of the century, has been viewed as a female profession, but women have by and large gained and held only entry level positions. The field of education as a part of the total social picture reflects the same practices found in other professions, that of men in the policy-making and authoritative roles. Complete departure from this attitude could not be identified throughout this study. Some changes in attitude are beginning to take shape, but progress has been slow and totally dependent upon society's interest in the full participation of its membership.

The findings of this study indicate a steady decline in the number of women in administration since the early 1900's. The factors contributing to this decline are so multifaceted that they are difficult to isolate and to identify. Some of the factors that could be identified are:

- The attitude of boards of education reflecting the general public's views concerning employment of women outside the home.

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290 Women in Educational Leadership: An Open Letter to State Legislators (U. S., Educational Resources Information Center, ERIC Document ED 117 843, October 1975), p. 5.

- Lack of encouragement for women to prepare for positions plus their lack of background experience.
- Discrimination against women in the profession.
- An effort on the part of decision-makers to defeminize the profession.

Sex stereotyping excludes women from opportunities for positions at the higher levels in the educational hierarchy. The employment of women is strongly influenced by the existing attitude toward the position and function of women in the culture. The socialization factors which children are exposed to early in life result in stereotyped sex attitudes which advocate male dominance. Both teachers and peers contribute to the attitude the child develops concerning sex roles and differences. Girls usually learn early that their male peers should be the aggressive members of society and aspire to professional heights and that girls should aspire to lesser pursuits. This attitude has been accepted by women without question until the development of the latest feminism movement. By the 1970's this movement had tended to raise the consciousness level of women to awareness of their plight in society.

Women are becoming aware that competence is not enough to assure them a place in administrative ranks of education. They are not encouraged by other administrators to enter the field to the degree men are. An informal system of sponsorship does not exist for the female. Neither is the selection process for filling vacancies the same for women as for men.

This absence of women on the governing boards that select administrators also limits the opportunities for women to acquire positions in

this field. The overall attitude of society is reflected in the make-up of the boards of education which influence decisions concerning the placement of women in decision making roles. School boards are usually composed of the conservative element of society and do not feel inclined to extend career opportunities to women. Their interest in retaining men in the field of education has led to the common practice of advancing men to administrative positions at the expense of qualified women. Many boards of education have at some time passed regulations against the hiring of married women in the public schools. By the 1950's, however, very few boards retained such a policy, and recent federal legislation also makes any policy of this nature illegal.

Many writers contend that women do not hold the necessary degrees to place them in competition for administrative positions. By the end of the 1960's the number of women receiving bachelor's and master's degrees in the field of education had increased beyond that of men. Men were still in the vast majority in seeking doctorates. However, the number of women seeking higher degrees continued to increase considerably throughout the 1970's.

Information assimilated in 1969-70 shows that women earned 55.3 percent of the master's degrees conferred in education while men earned 44.7 percent. Women earned 20.3 percent of the doctorates compared to 79.7 percent earned by men. In 1970-71 women at the master's degree level earned 56.1 percent of the degrees in the field of education while men earned 43.8 percent. Women at the doctoral level earned 21.1 percent while men earned 78.8 percent. This data is evidence that there

was a drastic difference in the number of men and women receiving degrees beyond the master's level.

Following the advent of suffrage, women were prone to consider employment outside the home as a temporary situation between school and marriage. They gave little thought to planning a career. Changes began to occur following World War II. By the decade of the 1960's women were entering the labor market at an increased rate and the condition of the economy dictated that work away from the home was necessary. Women at this time began to recognize that they were being discriminated against in the work force.

As women became more aware of their plight, there was increased interest in federal legislation to assure them of equitable treatment in the labor market. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act was enacted in 1964 to help combat the situation. Sexual inequality had become a major social issue by the dawn of the 1970's, but there was yet no federal legislation to protect women from discrimination in the field of education. By 1972, however, protective legislation was made applicable to educators and students through the Equal Employment Opportunities Act. Women were offered protection from discrimination based on sex in all areas of employment.

The maternity legislation of 1972 provided women with additional freedom to seek administrative roles. No longer forced to terminate their employment because of pregnancy, they are now permitted to remain in their position and thus continue to gain the experience which allows them to become more competitive in the area of administration.

During the decade of the 1960's, more men were attracted to the teaching profession than ever before due to national, political, and economic conditions. To avoid the draft and to provide for the defeminization of the classroom, men were encouraged to enter the profession. The number of men teachers at the secondary level exceeded the number of women teachers. This occurrence created a situation that had not existed since before the turn of the century. Recent statistics show that women have almost been eliminated from secondary school administration.

The increase in the number of men entering the profession was attributed to the rise in status and salary. The decrease of women in administrative positions was attributed to the complexity of the position and attitudes of those who hired personnel. The amount of time and money needed to carry on the work and the continuing education needed to keep abreast of changes in the profession involved so much time that women were not willing to take this responsibility at the risk of neglecting their families.

Although women have constituted the majority of the teaching force since the middle of the last century, men have usually dominated the roles of administration. However, at the turn of the twentieth century women achieved responsible positions in the public schools and held a number of the top administrative positions. They achieved a majority at the principal's level. Women continued in the majority as elementary principals until the depression of the 1930's when jobs were scarce and it was deemed more important for men to be employed than for women.

Following the depression years, women regained their majority role in the elementary principalship. The available statistics show that by 1938 they held a larger percentage of these positions than before.

In 1938 they held 66.8 percent of the elementary principalships compared to 55 percent held in 1928. By 1948 this lead had dropped to 41 percent and men had moved ahead of women as elementary principals except as teaching principals. Women dominated in the area of the teaching principalship during this period. In 1958, 62 percent of the supervising principalships were held by men and 38 percent held by women. Women continued to hold the majority in the area of the teaching principalships. In 1958, 41 percent of the teaching principalships were held by men and 59 percent were held by women. Of all the elementary principalships in 1958 women held 41 percent. The NEA research report of school year 1966-67 showed that women held 24.8 percent of the elementary principalships which was a drastic decrease from the reports made nine years earlier. During the school year 1970-71 women held 21.0 percent of all elementary principalships and by the 1972-73 school year their numbers had decreased until they held only 19.6 percent of the elementary principalships, an area of administration they had dominated through the earlier decades of the century.

Statistics reveal a reduction since the 1960's in the number of women holding positions in junior and senior high schools. During the 1963-1964 school year 10 percent of the senior high school principalships were held by women. By the 1970-71 school year this percentage was reduced to 3.0 percent and by the 1972-73 school year to 1.4 percent. A 1977 survey by the National Association of Secondary School Principals found that women were beginning to regain their interest in becoming high school principals and the number of women in the high school principalship was increasing. Women held 4.0 percent of the junior high school principalships

during the 1964-1965 school year; 3.5 percent during the 1970-1971 school year; and 2.9 percent during the 1972-1973 school year.

Numerous studies have been done comparing the performance of men and women in the position of principal. The results on each of the surveys found that women perform as well as men in the principalship role. These studies found no basis for the drop in the number of women in the principalship role based on the quality of performance. In other areas of administration, the percentage of women in these positions had been so low that there have been no studies made.

Women in the position of local superintendent fared well in the first decade of the century. In 1903 women were reported to hold 324 of the superintendent's positions; in 1910 they held 490; in 1970-1971 they held 90 positions and in 1972-1973 the available statistical data shows that they held 65 superintendent's positions.

In 1910 four women were reported in the position of chief state administrator. Six state superintendent's positions were held by women in 1931 and in 1950 women held this position in seven states. By the 1970's this situation had deterioriated drastically. Instead of gaining at this level, the number of women in these positions had decreased until in 1979 there is only one state superintendent reported for the entire nation.

Today's women are closer to enjoying equality in education than in any period during the history of the nation. The struggle has been slow, using various techniques, but gains have been made in the past few years. Much remains to be gained, but the trend to equality is irrevocable at this point in time. Small victories are won periodically which result in the improved status of women.

CONCLUSIONS

Based on the findings of this study the following conclusions may be made:

1. Women usually place their home and family responsibilities first. The bio-social role takes precedence over the occupational career role.

2. Women in the area of public school administration usually serve as principals of elementary schools. As more and more men enter the profession, women administrators at all levels are being replaced by men.

3. The number of women in the position of superintendent continues to decrease. Additional associate and assistant superintendent positions have been opened to women, but they do not hold an equitable share of positions even at this level.

4. Advancing to administrative positions for most women is difficult and many women face the same problems. The difficulties appear to stem from old beliefs, attitudes and prejudices that have prevailed since the dawn of civilization.

5. Women must learn the strategies and skills needed for moving into the administrative mainstream.

6. The administrative talents of women in the public school sector of this country are not adequately recognized nor are they utilized to the extent that federal legislation designates. Women have less experience than their male colleagues in the area of administration in that their on-the-

job training has been different from that of men.

7. Recent federal legislative action has provided the laws giving women the legal means to achieve equality in employment, but women still do not understand the unwritten subtleties that prevent them from gaining acceptance in the administrative hierarchy.

8. The number of women with credentials qualifying them for administrative positions is much greater than those being hired for these positions. The lack of preparation by women in administration does not appear to be the basis for limiting the number of women employed in this area. The existing problem appears to relate to the hiring practices of the local systems rather than in the preparation of the candidate. The available information shows that there are sufficient qualified women from which to choose female administrative staff at all levels of the educational hierarchy.

9. The policy-making group in public school administration consists almost entirely of men. Women are present in the very lowest level of the policy-making group, and then in token numbers, which leaves sexual democracy in public education virtually non-existent. Most women are placed in support roles where they carry out the decisions of their superiors or at the lowest level of the decision-making hierarchy.

10. Public school curriculum and teachers have a responsibility to increase student awareness of the subtleties of discrimination. In the next decade it is most likely that sex discrimination will not be accepted by women.

11. Women are needed in decision-making roles in proportion to their numbers in the profession. The influence of women in decision-

making roles would help the men in these positions to become more aware of sex stereotyping and to make more equitable decisions on behalf of women.

RECOMMENDATIONS

The findings of this study lead the writer to make the following recommendations:

1. Notice should be made of the absence of women in policy-making posts which limits the sensitivity of those in higher level positions to the problems of women.

2. Women should establish a communications network designed to support the advancement of other women.

3. Women should enjoy the necessary freedom from home and family responsibilities to permit the degree of dedication necessary for achieving success in administrative positions.

4. Human capabilities should be utilized at each level of the policy-making structure to ensure that women are provided equitable opportunity in all facets of education.

5. Administrators should be selected for their ability to work with the problems of the people with whom they work, their understanding of human relations,and the teaching-learning process.

6. The collection of data on educational leaders by sex should be more systematic at the higher level administrative positions beyond that of principal.

7. Women should learn the techniques for seeking advancement.

8. An in-depth study should be made of other women who have contributed to education through their administrative positions.

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APPENDIX A

Section 1604.10 Employment Policies Relating to Pregnancy and Childbirth

(a) A written or unwritten employment policy or practice which excludes from employment applicants or employees because of pregnancy is in prima facie violation of Title VII.

(b) Disabilities caused or contributed to by pregnancy, miscarriage, abortion, childbirth, and recovery therefrom are, for all job-related purposes, temporary disabilities and should be treated as such under any health or temporary disability insurance or sick leave plan available in connection with employment. Written and unwritten employment policies and practices involving matters such as the commencement and duration of leave, the availability of extensions, the accrual of seniority and other benefits and privileges, reinstatement, and payment under any health or temporary disability insurance or sick leave plan, formal or informal, shall be applied to disability due to pregnancy or childbirth on the same terms and conditions as they are applied to other temporary disabilities.

(c) Where the termination of an employee who is temporarily disabled is caused by an employment policy under which insufficient or no leave is available, such a termination violates the Act if it has a disparate impact on employees of one sex and is not justified by business necessity.

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[288] U. S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, "Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex," p. D12, Cited in Affirmative Action and Equal Employment. Vol. 2 (Washington, D. C.: Government Printing Office, 1976), p. 7.

APPENDIX B

Selected Federal Civil Rights
Legislation applicable to Equal Employment Opportunity in School Districts

1. Title VII of The Civil Rights Act of 1964.

   a. Applicable for professional workers March 1972.
   b. "Prohibits: Discrimination on the basis of sex (as well as race, color, religion and national origin) in hiring or firing; wages; fringe benefits; classifying, referring, assigning or promoting employees; extending or assigning use of facilities; training, retraining, or apprenticeships; or any other terms, conditions, or privileges or employment. Covers all employees.
   c. Enforced by: Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, 2401 East Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. 20506."

2. Equal Pay Act of 1963.

   a. Applicable for professional workers, employees of federal, state and local governments, May 1974.
   b. "Prohibits: Discrimination (on the basis of sex) in salaries and almost all fringe benefits. Requires that men and women performing equal pay. Establishes the job content and not the job titles as the determinant of job equality.
   c. Enforced by: Wage and Hour Division, Employment Standards Administration, U. S. Department of Labor, Washington, D. C. 20201."

3. Title IX of The Education Amendments of 1972.

   a. Applicable July 1972. Regulations effective July 21, 1975.
   b. "Prohibits: Discrimination on the basis of sex under any education program and activity receiving federal financial assistance, including school districts, their professional and nonprofessional employees (men and women), and students as well as employees.
   c. Enforced by: The Office For Civil Rights, Department of Health, Education and Welfare, 330 Independence Avenue, S. W., Washington, D. C. 20201."

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[289]Doris M. Timpano, "Here are the anti-sexism laws of the U. S., what they prohibit, and how they're enforced," The American School Board Journal, 163 (June, 1976) 22-23.

APPENDIX C

Filtering System

RECRUITING FILTERS.

Passing the word along about job openings through the informal buddy system, the "boys", or other fraternal or male-dominated professional associations.

Using the formal buddy system by contacting university placement services known to recommend men even though qualified women are registered; and employing search groups or head hunters with established track records for selecting men, only, as finalists.

Notifying women-oriented organizations of selected openings only, such as supervisor of home economics.

Announcing "possible" positions, only to withdraw them when qualified women apply.

Limiting the announcement of a job opening to "within the district" when that district has few, if any, women certified as administrators.

Using sexist language throughout recruitment literature to convey subtly the image of a male candidate. And some of the messages are not so subtle, such as a district's widely-circulated job announcement that begins with, "We are seeking to replace a man who left our high school principalship..."

Advertising the position, but:

- Placing the advertisement in papers just one week before the deadline for filing applications;
- Advertising only after the selected candidate is already on the new job;

- Carefully selecting journals known to be circulated mostly among men;
- Using blind box numbers to avoid identifying the district. (If qualified individuals are rejected by receiving no responses at all, they have no comeback.)

APPLICATION FILTERS.

Downgrading an applicant for a top administrative opening by suggesting that she apply for a lesser administrative or teaching position, if available.

Placing on application forms questions (Many of which are potentially illegal) that:

- attempt to elecit information about children and their ages, title as Miss or Mrs., spouse's name and work, marital status, and previous husband(s) name(s);
- lead to unequal pay for equal work by inquiring into the "lowest salary acceptable."

Separating, by sex, applications received from qualified applicants and automatically sending all women a form rejection.

SELECTION CRITERIA FILTERS.

Adhering to selection criteria unprov-n as valid predicators of successful performance, such as requiring a specific number of years of experience in a particular administrative position especially when few, if any, women hold such posts - a practice often considered evidence of discrimination when a district is investigated by enforcement agencies.

Not considering comparable or even a superior alternate experience in lieu of established requirements.

Applying dual selection criteria by allowing men to skip one or more rungs on the career ladder while requiring women to climb each step and sometimes blocking them along the way.

Requiring women applicants to hold appropriate state certification while (in New York state, for example) knowing how to circumvent this regulation for a "favored" male candidate.

Implying that physical strength is a requirement for a successful building principal or assistant principal.

INTERVIEW FILTERS.

Holding interviews conducted by men only, individually or collectively.

Asking women questions that are considered illegal, if they are not usually asked of male applicants for the same position. Such as:

- "How will your children be cared for while you work?"
- "How do you think men teachers will feel about receiving directions from a woman?"
- "Aren't you concerned about returning home alone late in the evenings from meetings?"

Attempting to elicit personal data from questions that now are deleted from application forms because of the actual or potential illegality of those questions - and then rejecting applicants who recognize this and remind you of the impropriety of the questions.

Acknowledging(through body language and verbal and non-verbal communication) appreciation of women primarily as sex objects, while ignoring professional preparation or toughing upon that preparation almost incidentally, with questions such as: "Why would such a bright and attractive woman ever want to be superintendent?"

SELECTION DECISION FILTERS.

Rejecting a woman because she is "aggressive," while employing a

man because he is.

Selecting a woman in order to demonstrate publicly the district's commitment to equal opportunity, while the district is privately aware that she will be eliminated shortly through a school closing or a negative personal factor such as her poor medical report.

Offering a woman a position, finally with the same responsibilities but different title and salary available to men on the district's staff. Example: Woman employed as administrative assistant to the high school principal with the same responsibilities but lower salary and less opportunity for advancement than the former or current male assistant principal.

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290 Doris M. Timpano, "How to tell if you're discriminating against would-be women administrators, and what to do about it if you are," pp. 20-21.