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*The Leadership Of Six Women Secondary Principals
In A New Right Environment*

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*A Thesis Presented In Partial Fulfilment Of The Requirements
For The Degree Of Master Of Educational Administration*

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this thesis was to explore and describe the early socialisation and leadership practice of six women secondary school principals, working and living in the same provincial area of New Zealand. This study had three broad aims: to explore firstly, the early socialisation and “influential personal and professional experiences” leading each of the participants to their principalships; secondly, the “reality” of being a woman secondary school principal and, thirdly, the “impact of New Right educational reforms” on their school leadership practice.

The changes initiated by the Tomorrow’s Schools (1988) educational reforms have deeply impacted on New Zealand schooling. The decentralisation of many government administrative functions to school boards of trustees, in addition to the withdrawal of many government support services, is considered to have had a profound effect on the workloads and stress levels of principals and teachers (Palmer, 1997). Many critics of the reforms (Codd *et al*, 1990) believe that the increased emphasis on accountability and efficiency in education may be in direct conflict with collaborative school leadership initiatives.

This qualitative, case study research sought to achieve its aims by exploring the ways in which six women secondary principals approach school leadership in 1998 and those values supporting their leadership action. While the research sample is placed against a backdrop of six differing school cultures and class constituencies, data illustrate several common leadership themes woven throughout the research. In adopting a life-history (Middleton, 1986, Acker, 1989) approach, this study analyses early life experiences and how these “shaped” the participants as women. Circumstances and situations, regarded by the participants as influential and resulting in decisions directly impacting on their respective career paths, are also explored.

This study illustrates that five of the six women adopted a “holistic” view (Neville, 1988) of their career development and meandered to their principalships, always mindful of personal events in their lives. They describe accepting opportunities rather than formally adopting linear career plans. Data show that the women have always held a commitment to being high quality teachers, with four principals continuing to have direct classroom contact.

The principals employed values of inclusion, collaboration, care and empowerment, underpinned by a very strong determination and “inner locus of control”, to make a positive difference to the lives of their staff and students. There is an increasing body of literature about women in educational leadership, written exclusively by women (Neville, 1988, Blackmore, 1989, Shakeshaft, 1989, Strachan, 1997, Adler *et al*, 1993, Hall, 1996). This thesis will add to that literature and provides six further role models for women following in their footsteps.

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CONTENTS

<i>Abstract</i>	2
<i>Acknowledgements</i>	3
<i>Table of Contents</i>	4
<i>List Of Tables And Figures</i>	8
CHAPTER ONE : THE SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH	
<i>Aims of the Thesis</i>	9
<i>Background to the Study</i>	9
<i>The Researcher and Feminist Educational Leadership Theory</i>	10
<i>Setting the Scene</i>	11
<i>Reason for the Study</i>	12
<i>Tacit Knowledge</i>	14
<i>Format of Thesis</i>	15
CHAPTER TWO : A LITERATURE REVIEW	
<u>PART ONE : WOMEN AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION</u>	
<i>Introduction</i>	15
<i>A History Of Women In NZ Education</i>	16
<i>Women's Absence From Educational Administrative Theory</i>	18
<i>Androgynous Leadership Literature</i>	20
<i>Women In Educational Leadership Theory, Research and Practice</i>	20
<i>A Feminist Reconstruction of Educational Leadership</i>	21
<i>Summary</i>	23
<u>PART TWO : A NEW RIGHT EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT</u>	
<i>Introduction</i>	24
<i>Background To A Changing Educational Environment</i>	24
<i>The Market Model Of Schooling</i>	26
<i>Criticism Of The Educational Reforms</i>	28
<i>The Reforms And The Role Of Principals: A Changing Workload</i>	29
<i>Women And The New Right: Dilemmas and Barriers</i>	30
<i>The Increasing Social Responsibility Of Schools</i>	32
<i>Schools As Multi-faceted, Gendered Organisations</i>	33
<i>Summary</i>	35
<u>PART THREE : WOMEN AS LEADERS</u>	
<i>Introduction</i>	36
<i>Public And Private Lives Blurred</i>	36
<i>Women's Style of Leadership</i>	37
<i>Women Resisting 'Management Through Control'</i>	39
<i>Power and Empowerment</i>	40
<i>Summary</i>	41

CHAPTER THREE : METHODOLOGY**PART ONE : THE RESEARCH DESIGN**

<i>Introduction</i>	43
<i>The Qualitative Research Paradigm</i>	43
<i>Qualitative And Quantitative Paradigms Compared</i>	45
<i>Case Study Research Design</i>	47
<i>Weaknesses And Strengths Of Case Study</i>	50
<i>Researcher's Role</i>	50
<i>Data Collection Procedures</i>	51
<i>Data Analysis</i>	53
<i>Ethical Considerations</i>	56
<i>Verification</i>	57
<i>Theory And Generalisability</i>	57
<i>The Qualitative Narrative</i>	57

PART TWO : THE RESEARCH PROCESS

<i>Introduction</i>	59
<i>Selecting The Participants</i>	59
<i>Letters of Consent and Information Sheets</i>	59
<i>First Interviews</i>	60
<i>Data Verification and Internal Validity</i>	60
<i>Emerging Themes</i>	60
<i>On-going Communication And Interest</i>	60
<i>Second Interviews</i>	60
<i>Data Verification</i>	61
<i>Preparing A Narrative Framework</i>	61
<i>Limitations Of The Research Design And Process</i>	62
<i>Summary</i>	63

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

<i>Introduction.</i>	64
<i>Initial Impressions And First Interviews</i>	64
<i>Life History Approach Adopted</i>	69

PART ONE: EARLY EXPERIENCES

<i>Family Values</i>	70
<i>Origins</i>	71
<i>Developing Determination</i>	71
<i>Gender And Parental Encouragement</i>	72
<i>Families And A Sense Of Belonging</i>	72
<i>An Ethic Of Care</i>	73
<i>Fathers As Authority Figures</i>	74
<i>Mothers As Early Role Models</i>	74
<i>Attitudes About Academic Ability and Attending Univesity</i>	75
<i>Summary</i>	76

PART TWO : TEACHING CAREERS

<i>Factors Influencing Career Choice</i>	76
<i>Professional Qualifications On Entering Teaching</i>	77
<i>Professional Qualifications After Entering Teaching</i>	78
<i>Career Steps Plotted</i>	79
<i>Support Networks</i>	79
<i>The Impact Of Marriage And Children</i>	80
<i>Surrogate Families</i>	81
<i>Positive And Negative Aspects Of Teaching</i>	81
<i>Developing An Appetite For Advancement</i>	82
<i>Significant Professional Milestones</i>	84
<i>Summary</i>	85

PART THREE : THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE

<i>Introduction</i>	86
<i>Stepping Into The Principal's Shoes</i>	86
<i>Empowering Staff</i>	87
<i>Executive Decisions Versus Consultation</i>	87
<i>Empathy And Communication</i>	89
<i>Leadership Lenses</i>	90
<i>Senior Management Dynamics</i>	91
<i>Building Networks</i>	93
<i>Benchmarks And Expectations</i>	93
<i>Rituals and Routines</i>	94
<i>Power Shared Is Power Gained</i>	95
<i>Creating Ownership Through Community</i>	96
<i>Response To Feminism And Feminist Leadership Theory</i>	97
<i>Modelling Attitudes</i>	98
<i>Brickbats</i>	99
<i>Bouquets</i>	100
<i>Public Property</i>	101
<i>Pioneer</i>	102
<i>Achieving A Balance</i>	102
<i>Summary</i>	105

PART FOUR : A NEW RIGHT EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

<i>Introduction</i>	106
<i>Carte Blanche Or Constraints</i>	106
<i>Servant Leader Versus Chief Executive Officer</i>	108
<i>The Market Model</i>	108
<i>Criticism Of The Reform Culture</i>	109
<i>Increased Managerialism</i>	109
<i>Teaching Principals And Instructional Focus</i>	110
<i>Delegation</i>	110
<i>Relationships With Staff</i>	111
<i>Emotional Investment As A 'Feminised' Attribute</i>	111
<i>School Competition</i>	112
<i>Decisions And Dilemmas</i>	113
<i>Gender And Academic Achievement</i>	114
<i>Disciplinary Issues Related To Drugs And Alcohol</i>	115
<i>Eroding Social Standards</i>	117
<i>Summary</i>	118

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSIONS	
<i>Introduction</i>	120
<u>PART ONE: ORIGINS, IDENTITY AND PREPARATION FOR LEADERSHIP</u>	120
<i>Origins And Ethics</i>	121
<i>Early Role Models And Behaviours</i>	122
<i>Socialisation, Gender And Self Image</i>	123
<i>Attitudes To Education</i>	124
<i>Tertiary Qualifications</i>	125
<i>Choosing Teaching</i>	125
<i>Varying Personal Circumstances</i>	126
<i>Uncontrollable Variables</i>	129
<i>Self Knowledge</i>	132
<i>Assuming Leadership Responsibility</i>	132
<i>Mentors</i>	133
<i>Career Development</i>	133
<i>Attitudes To Feminism And Feminist Educational Theory</i>	135
<u>PART TWO: THE PRINCIPALSHIP IN A NEW RIGHT CONTEXT</u>	136
<i>Introduction</i>	136
<i>Power</i>	138
<i>Leadership Values</i>	139
<i>Metaphors For Leadership</i>	140
<i>Leadership Fronts</i>	142
<i>Senior Management Support</i>	142
<i>Self-Managing Schools</i>	144
<i>The New Right And Ethical Leadership</i>	145
<i>A Balancing Act</i>	146
<i>School Competition</i>	147
<i>School Image</i>	148
<i>School Governance</i>	150
<i>Summary</i>	151
<u>PART THREE:IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH, THEORY, PRACTICE</u>	
<i>Methodological Weaknesses Create Scope For Further Research</i>	153
<i>Implications For Future Theory, Research And Practice</i>	155
<i>Summary</i>	159
<u>POSTSCRIPT</u>	161
<i>Final Thoughts</i>	166
<i>References</i>	168
<i>Appendices</i>	186

LIST OF TABLES AND FIGURES

<i>Figure 3.1 The Analysis Process</i>	55
<i>Figure 4.1 Origins</i>	71
<i>Figure 4.2 Shared Values And Parental Expectations</i>	73
<i>Figure 4.3 Preparation For Being A Principal</i>	89
<i>Figure 4.4 Leadership Lenses</i>	91
<i>Figure 4.5 Benefits Of Developing Ownership And Community</i>	96
<i>Figure 4.6 Personal Challenges</i>	104
<i>Figure 4.7 Disciplinary Issues Related To Drugs And Alcohol</i>	116
<i>Table 4.1 Professional Qualifications On Entering Teaching</i>	77
<i>Table 4.2 Professional Qualifications After Entering Teaching</i>	78
<i>Table 4.3 Career Steps Plotted</i>	79
<i>Table 4.4 Positive And Negative Aspects Of Teaching As A Career</i>	82
<i>Table 4.5 Significant Professional Milestones</i>	84

CHAPTER ONE: THE SCOPE OF THE RESEARCH

The Aims Of The Thesis

There are three broad aims of this study:

To explore

1. the way in which each of the participants *arrived* at their principalship
2. the reality of *being* a woman secondary principal and
3. the *impact* of “New Right” educational reforms on their leadership values.

Background To The Study

Before entering the field, the researcher reviewed recent literature on educational leadership. In doing so, she felt frustrated. Despite the enormous contribution that women have made to New Zealand education, they do not figure prominently in the research, theory and practice of educational leadership (Court, 1989, Strachan, 1993, 1997).

This study, therefore, provides the opportunity to focus on the personal and professional lives of six women who did become “the woman in the principal’s office”. It offers an insight into the way the participants view their role in 1998, while re-tracing the development of the childhood values which would later guide the women on their respective journeys to become secondary principals. The experiences and reflections of the women in this study may, in turn, be insightful for other school leadership aspirants.

Throughout the study, the women spoke passionately about their schools as “communities” and about their responsibility to lead by “modelling attitudes” and “raising expectations”. The bonds between people in their school communities were described as *felt* and shared. The bonds usually found in schools, as organisations, are contractual. As principals, the women employed aspects of Sergiovanni’s (1992) moral leadership, which effective schools’ research illustrates underpins many school improvement initiatives (Smyth, 1989, Caldwell and Spinks, 1992, Bush and West-Burnham, 1994).

This thesis is based on qualitative, case study research completed between January and August, 1998. The descriptions and conclusions, emerging from this research are theoretically applicable only to the six women, at the time of the research, in their respective schools. However, data supports earlier analyses about women and educational leadership (Neville, 1988, Court, 1989, Strachan, 1993, Hall, 1996) and, therefore, may be of interest to other women and principals outside the research.

At the time of the study, all six women lived and worked in the same provincial town. Since the research was completed, two principals have resigned. One woman has taken up a professional role outside education. The other principal retired due to increasing ill health. To protect their anonymity and to fulfil the requirements of the Privacy Act (1993), all six women adopted pseudonyms for this research. Any reference to any aspect of their schools has been written in such a way as to protect both the principals' and the school's anonymity.

The Researcher And Feminist Educational Leadership Theory

As Valerie Hall (1996:3) in her book, Dancing On The Ceiling, acknowledges, "any book or thesis written by a woman, about women, runs the risk of attracting the label 'feminist'". The researcher, therefore, will briefly explain her perspective on feminism and feminist educational leadership theory here. Before commencing study towards her Master of Educational Administration degree, the researcher would not have considered herself to be a feminist. She does not like the label, or indeed any other terms that confine people to a category. However, her outlook has broadened considerably through her reading of feminist literature on educational leadership.

Specifically, the researcher found work by Sue Adler, Jenny Laney and Mary Packer (1993) and Valerie Hall (1996), in Britain and Marian Court (1989, 1993) and Jane Strachan (1993, 1997) in New Zealand to be very enlightening. These writers represent only a few of an increasing number of feminist women working in the field of educational administration. The researcher, therefore, is now very supportive of feminist theorists and their efforts to effect greater social justice through education.

Today, the researcher is *pro* women, believing very much in young women being encouraged to enter and succeed in occupations of their choosing. She acknowledges, however, that gender stereotypes do remain problematic to women (Blackmore, 1989, Court, 1993, Adler *et al*, 1993), particularly when co-educational school boards appoint secondary principals.

If more women are to become school principals, or leaders in society generally, we need to value the skills that their early socialisation can bring to leadership (Hall, 1996). Data in this study illustrate the way in which the six women feel responsibility to utilise formal power and influence to empower other people to become leaders.

Setting The Scene

In part one of the literature review, the researcher describes the way in which earlier accounts of educational leadership were often based on flawed research methodologies and were, therefore, problematic to women. Charol Shakeshaft (1989:150) describes the effect of flawed theoretical models and concepts concerning organisational theory in educational leadership scholarship. She posits that “correcting weaknesses in this scholarship is a methodological issue of enormous importance, as bias affects conceptual formulation as well as issues of reliability and validity.

While reading feminist critiques of organisational theory (Adler *et al*, 1990, Blackmore, 1989, Court, 1989, 1994, Shakeshaft, 1989, Strachan, 1991, 1997, Hall, 1996), the researcher was drawn to their ‘reconstructions’ of leadership, specifically underpinned by values of emancipation and empowerment. Over the past decade, many theorists and practitioners have given increasing attention to collaborative and consultative styles of leadership which have historically been associated with women (Blackmore, 1988, Court, 1989, Strachan, 1993).

While this study is exclusively about women, it may be useful to re-examine leadership, to reconstruct a view employing “behaviours which are the exclusive property of neither men, nor women” (Hall, 1996:3). Perhaps we can learn from the inclusiveness and affiliation of early female socialisation and experiences, integrating these into an expanded, holistic leadership paradigm?

There have been earlier analyses into the relative merits and/or disadvantages of a cross-gendered, or androgynous, leadership paradigm. Some of these analyses are discussed in the first and third parts of Chapter Two, “The Literature Review”. In the second part of the literature review, key government documents credited with leading to the Tomorrow’s Schools (Lange, 1988) reforms are reviewed. Increased competition between schools throughout New Zealand is becoming a daily reality. The instructional leaders of yesterday’s schools are today’s principals.

School leaders are increasingly pressured to subscribe to business models of operating in the interests of “New Right” assumptions about efficiency and equity (Clarke, 1997). Some critics of the reforms (Codd *et al*, 1990) suggest that this “New Right” managerialism may conflict with values underpinning educational leadership and shared responsibilities in school communities. This study, therefore, provides an opportunity to explore the impact of “New Right” reforms on the personal and professional lives of the six principals studied.

The participants were selected for two reasons. Firstly, each was chosen for ease of accessibility by the researcher. Secondly, they are all experienced principals. At the time of this study, their experience ranged between four and 14 years as principals. Three of the participants are second-term principalships. They are all pakeha women. The researcher would like to have included a Maori woman principal in the area but chose not to because of the obvious difficulty of protecting her anonymity.

The participants measured their success in terms of *watching their students develop the skills and confidence they needed to succeed in life* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) and not in terms of the status or prestige of their position, thereby supporting earlier studies by Neville, (1988) and Hall, (1996). The principals found it extremely difficult to balance their personal and professional lives (Court, 1989) and they often felt like *public property* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). However, they were passionate about *making a positive difference* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) to the lives of staff and students. They enjoyed re-living their early socialisation and the events and circumstances leading to their appointment to their first principalship.

All data from this study are arranged thematically and presented in Chapter Four: “Results”. In Chapter Five: “Analysis and Conclusions”, data are analysed in the light of current literature and conclusions are drawn. Implications for future research, theory and practice are also considered in Chapter Five.

Reason For The Study

Research shows that women have, historically, been disadvantaged in their attempts to become educational leaders. The statistics prove that there are still a disproportionate number of men in positions of authority, throughout all levels of education, except in early childhood education.

While women make up 16,341 of the 18,775 teachers in state primary schools, their representation is not reflected in primary principalships (Ministry of Education, March 1997). Of the 2179 primary schools, there are only 737 women principals (ibid). The picture is only slightly better for women in state secondary schools. Statistics (ibid) illustrate that women represent 5759 of 9471 state secondary teachers. However, they comprise only 2951 of the 6339 middle management positions.

The number of women becomes even more dis-proportionate to men in secondary principalships, where 82 women have been appointed to 331 state secondary principalships. There are 47 women principals leading girls' secondary schools and only 34 women principals out of a total of 233 co-educational secondary principalships (ibid).

Reflecting on the statistics, to identify any possible increases for women since 1990, we see that 19 percent of state secondary principals were women (ibid). Despite equal employment opportunities (EEO) legislation, embodied in the State Sector Amendment Act of 1989, making EEO a statutory requirement for the management of personnel in education and other state sectors, only 25 percent of secondary principals were women in 1997. Statistics, therefore, illustrate less than a one percent increase, per year, since 1990.

When investigating historical reasons why women have been absent from positions of influence in education and other sectors of society, Marian Court (1994) posits that the masculinist nature, or "androcentricity", of administrative work in the public arena has created a sexual division of labour. This has created a separation between the public sphere of men in administration and the private sphere of women at home, raising children (ibid). Court maintains that gendered stereotypes of men being 'good at management' and women being 'good at teaching' have seeped into our subconsciousness. For many people, these stereotypes have become commonsense and normal. For women to break through these stereotypes, especially in educational leadership, we need to value our experience and socialisation, as 'women' and as 'mothers' (ibid).

Women may also have suffered historically, due to too few role models. This thesis, therefore, provides a small contribution to the growing literature about women by a woman. It aims to expose the many personal experiences of the women studied, which would otherwise be kept behind a 'veil of mystery'.

While there is an opportunity for the participants to reflect on their roles as principals and for the reader to benefit from those reflections (Jones, 1997), this study also pinpoints why the participants chose to become school leaders at all.

The professional and personal preparation required for being an effective secondary principal is discussed, as is the way in which the six women work in a “New Right” educational environment. Readers can experience six perspectives on effective school leadership in 1998 and consider the difficult social issues principals have to face today. Possible links between the participants’ early socialisation as children (Acker, 1986, Middleton, 1988) and leadership values guiding their practice are also drawn.

Tacit Knowledge

The qualitative paradigm of case study allows the researcher to explore the women’s feelings and tacit, highly personalised, experiences using a single perspective lens in an interpretivist (Weiler, 1985) and exploratory manner. The researcher did not interview, or consult, any of the six principals’ staff or significant others.

However, the researcher’s tacit knowledge and experiences may, subconsciously, have impacted on her analysis and reporting of the data. Her position, therefore, is declared in Chapter Three: “Researcher’s Role”.

Format of the Thesis

Finally, to recapitulate on the format of this study: Chapter One is an introductory chapter. Chapter Two is a literature review. In Chapter Three, the researcher describes the qualitative case study methodology supporting this thesis, outlining the research process from beginning to conclusion. In Chapter Four, data are presented in four parts: Part One - early experiences, Part Two - teaching careers, Part Three - the principal’s role and Part Four - a “New Right” educational environment. In Chapter Five, data are analysed and conclusions are drawn by the researcher. Implications for future research, theory and practice are then discussed. Following Chapter Five, relevant references and appendices are attached.

CHAPTER TWO: A LITERATURE SURVEY

PART ONE: WOMEN AND EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

Introduction

Part One of this chapter examines the literature on women in educational administration, both in New Zealand and overseas. New Zealand feminist theorists (Middleton, 1988, Court, 1990, O'Neill 1992) have been particularly concerned with, firstly, the ways in which the 'masculinist' nature of administration in this country led to education policies blatantly discriminating against married and single women and, secondly, the ways in which the 'androcentric' (Court, *ibid*) bias of early educational administrative research methods and theories generally failed to contribute to knowledge about the ways in which women work as leaders. It is often considered that a significant percentage of educational administrative literature has been characterised by inconsistencies, flawed methodologies and unreliable data (Strachan, 1993), making earlier generalisations about women highly questionable.

Part Two examines the way in which Treasury's 1987 commitment to "New Right" assumptions about increasing equity, accountability, efficiency and choice in New Zealand education led to sweeping educational reforms, significantly impacting on New Zealand schooling. In 1998, critics continue to believe that the "New Right" re-organisation of education was founded on politically-driven rhetoric and ideology, supported by an impartial scholarly examination of events (Grace, 1990). While schools now have greater control over their local resources, other "New Right" reforms have had serious social, cultural and economic ramifications for our society, for educational administration and for the leadership practice of principals.

Part Three examines some of the growing literature on effective schools. Links between a feminine 'style' of leadership and effective schools initiatives are drawn. A consultative, collaborative and responsive feminist educational leadership theory, underpinned by values of empowerment and emancipation is discussed. This raises the question of power and how women utilise their 'formal' power in educational settings to increase educational outcomes.

A History Of Women In New Zealand Education

Women have far out-numbered men as teachers throughout New Zealand education history. However, their paths into educational administration have been difficult at best and often completely eroded. Feminist analyses of early educational policies and employment conditions in this country (Middleton, 1988, O'Neill, 1992, Court, 1994) describe how men have, historically, held the majority of administrative positions, throughout all sectors of society.

While New Zealand women were the first in the world to win the vote in 1893, their efforts in education and in administration went unrewarded. Patriarchal ideologies continued to promote men as the rational, skilled administrators of society. This is not surprising, as New Zealand's values were shaped in the patriarchal, colonial tradition of Victorian England.

As New Zealand's population increased around 1900, schools were developed to meet the rising rolls. The national education system gradually became a co-ordinated, developed, male-driven hierarchy (Court, *ibid*), for the most part due to a subconscious 'commonsense' expectation (*ibid*) that women were the care-givers and naturally disposed to the domestic sphere of the home. Women, as child-bearers, therefore continued to be primarily responsible for child-rearing as well as all other 'unpaid' work (*ibid*). Not surprisingly, this gender imbalance became a focus for many feminists promoting the rights of women.

Feminist writers (O'Neill, 1992, Court, 1990, Strachan, 1997) argue that women are self-confident in contexts where they have had experience, as in private sphere activities. They also illustrate the ways in which men are encouraged and socialised to compete in the public sphere activities of administration and management. Historically, men have also been encouraged to participate freely in all aspects of research, theory formulation and educational management practice, whereas women have not had the same access to those arenas. Women, therefore, have been doubly disadvantaged as they have had few positive role models or female exemplars.

There were, however, some small gains made by women, mainly in middle management positions and mainly in secondary schools. Women gradually became supervisors and heads of departments. Despite small gains, their access was limited to subjects considered 'soft' and of little interest to men, including Art, Home Economics, Health and Music.

One of the greatest barriers to women administrative aspirants has been the issue of merit (Court, 1994). Merit, when applied, reflected the values of the people - usually white, middle class men - who had the power to appoint. Most principals' positions involved the management of several staff and the supervision of dozens and later, hundreds of students.

From historical accounts, good discipline was closely tied to good management in schools. There was also an assumption that "discipline" equalled "strength" (Court, 1994). Therefore, men were usually appointed as principals of both primary and secondary schools. All hierarchies are notoriously top-heavy. Schools were hierarchies and, therefore, those people...usually pakeha men...with the power maintained their power and maintained the 'status quo'.

Women in education have also been blatantly disadvantaged through the utilisation of government education policies (O'Neill, 1992). After the 1920s' depression, married women were squeezed out of teaching positions, deemed "the first right of men as breadwinners" (Court, 1994:85). Later, during the post-war baby boom, women were recruited into education, however their studentships were terminated once they married. In 1932, a marriage bar was instigated, whereby boards could refuse to employ married women (O'Neill, *ibid*). When school roll growth slowed down, in the 1970s, women returning to work after more than three years out of the service had to re-train. Often men were paid more than women for the same work. From the 1930s to the late 1950s, married men received a marriage allowance on top of their already higher salaries. Single women, therefore, were disadvantaged twice.

With a move towards a more flexible workforce, there is now growing concern about women (representing the majority of part-timers and relievers) being further disadvantaged under bulk funding (Sayers, 1992). The Employment Contracts Act (1991) has shifted negotiating power to employers who are still predominantly men. Finally, the 1989 State Sector Amendment, requiring boards to put in place equal employment opportunities (EEO) initiatives to date, has "failed to 'morally challenge structural inequalities' in schools, organisations and the labour market generally" (Tremaine, 1990:68).

In 1998, school boards continue to hire more men as principals, especially in primary and co-educational secondary schools. Statistics (Ministry of Education, 1997) continue to reflect the underlying historical assumption that men are better than women at managing disciplinary issues and dealing with 'at risk' or difficult students.

Women's Absence From Educational Administrative Theory

Early attempts to investigate educational administration and leadership failed to consider gender as a major factor. In research, theory and practice, theorists were concerned with how men managed and then applied their findings to both men and women. International feminist analyses of early leadership theory exposed the flawed, androcentric nature of early research methodologies, resulting in volumes of flawed literature viewed as problematic to women (Blackmore, 1989, 1993b, Shakeshaft, 1989, Shakeshaft and Hanson, 1986).

Many New Zealand feminist writers felt compelled to attack early educational leadership theory due to, firstly, the absence of any consideration or account of women's experiences, in both the research and theory and, secondly, due to the bias created by the research participants being typically white, middle class males (Strachan, 1997). This theoretical generalisation was applied to all New Zealanders, irrespective of ethnicity, gender, culture and socio-economic status. The resultant theory, therefore, was considered naive (ibid), flawed and unreliable.

To understand any theory's contribution to existing knowledge, questions need to be asked concerning sponsorship, participation, research methodologies, values, timing, contexts and research questions themselves. It is this investigative approach that was largely responsible for exposing the androcentricity of much of the earlier literature on educational leadership (Shakeshaft, 1989, Blackmore, 1989).

Women's absence from the literature, leadership discourse and knowledge creation also resulted in women's absence from leadership itself. Women and leadership became separated in terms of organisational life. This separation, developing between the public and private sphere activities of men and women, contributed to women's 'invisibility' in political, as well as organisational, leadership discourse (Court, 1994).

Men, therefore, were assumed to be rational and society's 'natural' leaders. From the 1940s to the mid 1960s, leadership theories assumed that leaders were born with special 'traits' (Hoyle, 1988). However, as with all other theories of organisational life, trait theories were produced by white, middle class men. Any assumptions about leadership naturally reflected their experience, their beliefs and their values.

Trait theories were particularly problematic to women as they provided culturally defined, masculinist assumptions about leadership, making it difficult for women to be taken seriously as administrative aspirants. Trait theories also failed to acknowledge between effective and ineffective leaders and disregarded learned and socialised leadership behaviours (Blackmore, 1989).

Rather than being leaders, men viewed women as being naturally disposed to more nurturing tasks. Men were guided by an underlying, commonsense male assumption that leadership equalled "control"; control equalled "strength" and strength equalled "masculinity". To become successful leaders, the only option left to aspiring women at that time was to act in a masculine way (Korndorffer, 1992), or to appear strong, tough (Jones, 1985) and less feminine.

Natasha Josefowitz's book Paths to Power: A Woman's Guide From First Job To Top Executive (1980), is just one of many publications aimed at helping women get appointed to management positions and succeed in 'a man's world'. The author focuses on women, although without adopting a feminist perspective. Her book and others, for example Cameron's (1990) The Competitive Woman and Bryce's (1989) The Influential Woman: How To Achieve Success Without Losing Your Femininity, fail to acknowledge that women's experiences, as women, are valuable and should be acknowledged and not disguised.

During the 1970s, contingency theories attempted to explore and explain what trait theories had failed to contribute to leadership theory. Contingency research was concerned with leadership 'style', context and desired ends. Theorists believed that leadership style was dependent on the context in which the leader was working. Three main leadership styles were identified as: 'authoritarian', 'democratic' and 'laissez-faire'. However, contingency theories failed to consider the implications of gender and failed to recognise that men and women were viewed and valued differently by their colleagues and subordinates (Blackmore, 1989).

Internationally, masculinist conceptualisations and methodologies have continued to infiltrate prominent educational journals. Shakeshaft and Hanson, in their 1986 review of ten years of *Educational Administration Quarterly*, found that leadership theorists have continued to overlook issues of gender, race and class (ibid). In New Zealand, pakeha women, Maori, ethnic minorities and people with disabilities have also been eclipsed (Tremaine, 1994) in leadership discourses, research and knowledge creation by pakeha male values and 'commonsense' (Court, 1994) assumptions.

Androgynous Leadership Literature

There is another body of literature that promotes a 'blend of leadership attributes' which are neither the property of women nor men. This literature is labelled "androgynous" (Hall, 1996) and originated in the corporate sector of the United States. It evolved from feminist reconstructions of leadership, primarily aimed at a more democratic and, for women, a more egalitarian society.

The androgynous leadership 'style' essentially encompassed a universally applicable ideal, integrating cultural dimensions. Sargent (1983) claimed that an androgynous style of leadership would be advantageous, especially to women, as it valued traditionally 'feminine' attributes and, therefore, potentially resolved tensions created by traditionally masculinist management values. Some androgynous research findings have also been promoted in educational contexts (Gray, 1987, cited in Strachan, 1997).

However, the androgynists' investigation into employee preferences of leadership styles has proved inconclusive (Strachan, 1997), with research into both business and education sectors providing mixed results (ibid). There has also been rising concern over the androgynists' disregard for early female socialisation and its relevance to values underpinning women's leadership action as adults.

There has been increasing support for a feminine 'style' of leadership, which recognises the relevance of early female socialisation in shaping leadership values (Elshtain, 1987). This study, therefore, provides an opportunity to study six women in the light of earlier childhood and teenage experiences. It draws conclusions about socialisation and parental expectations and how these may have shaped adult leadership values.

Women In Educational Leadership Research, Theory And Practice

When women's experiences and 'gender' became the focus for theorists there were many attempts made to integrate women's experiences into existing research designs. However, more often than not, inconsistent and conflicting results were produced due to the 'masculinist' origins of the research designs. Any assumptions about the leadership effectiveness of men, as compared with women, were problematic to women. However, androcentric assumptions initially remained unchallenged "and continued to measure women against the male norm" (Shakeshaft, 1989:166).

Adler *et al* (1993) describe attempts to prove women were no less effective than men. Tkach, (1980:8), also notes that "women are no less qualified psychologically for positions in management than men". However, leadership was defined by men with no investigation into the 'differing' ways in which women and men might lead. Gareth Morgan (1986:212) notes that organisations are dominated by gender-related values and it, therefore, makes a great deal of difference whether you are a man or a woman:

As long as organisations are dominated by patriarchal values and structures, the roles of women in organisations will always be played out in male terms...(The) real challenge facing women who want to succeed in the organisational world is to change the organisational values in the most fundamental way.

An increasing body of literature investigates the ways in which male hegemony is reflected in society as a whole (Connell *et al*, 1982, Connell, 1987). The power that men have historically held enables their values and beliefs to become established as 'the best and most normal way' of doing things. In that context, all other views and values become marginalised.

A Feminist Reconstruction Of Educational Leadership

Feminist scholars aimed to better reflect women's experiences and to reconstruct a women's view of educational leadership. Their research has provided valuable insight into understanding the ways in which women might differ from men, as leaders. It was only when women were researched in their own right, that research designs were better geared to exploring women's leadership experiences.

The focus for many feminist studies has been on the special qualities which women are 'socialised' to value and usually bring to leadership positions. These qualities include nurturing, listening, encouraging, including, consulting, sharing and bonding (Fauth, 1984, Court, 1989, Neville, 1988, Adler *et al* 1993, Strachan, 1993, Jones, 1997). This study, therefore, provides an opportunity to investigate whether the six participants utilise these 'socialised' values as women leaders.

Feminist leadership studies also aim to describe the differing leadership 'styles' of men and women and to define what is worthy of consideration in researching women. Previously, the nurturing and inclusive styles of women had been regarded as either deviant or deficient in the literature. Being different, they had been viewed negatively against the male experience of leadership effectiveness. Feminist studies, therefore, have redefined the conceptual framework of research designs to more effectively explore and measure women's contribution, meanings and experiences in educational leadership. Women, were finally studied in their own right as this study, in 1998, aims to do.

Adler *et al* (1993:35) claim that "feminism places women at the centre and gives us ways of analysing, understanding and relating to the world". Of the 85 women in Adler's (1990) study of educational leaders, most felt empowered by feminist leadership values. However, at least half of the women did not consider themselves to be feminists.

These findings reflect Simeone's (1987:97) study of 20 women managers in higher education, where only nine women identified themselves as feminists without qualification. Eight women had some reservations or ambivalence, leaving three "certain that they weren't feminists". Here are varying responses to the question "Are you a feminist?", from Simeone's (*ibid*) study:

An ex-deputy principal: Yes, I am a feminist. It means a different way of seeing and experiencing the world, from the dominant male model we are asked to accept as normal, and valuing those differences.

An acting principal: In the end though, like most women, I take the elements from the various feminisms and fashion them into my own theory of the world, constantly changing, a world with a vision of the possibility of it being a better place for everyone.

Another principal: No, I'm not a feminist. I accept that men and women are different and I don't try to be a man.

While feminist educational theory has made a significant contribution to the research, theory and the practice of educational leadership, some discourses are limited to a singular focus on either gender, culture or power. However, Valerie Hall (1996) favours a theoretical approach encompassing all three dimensions and not one at the others' expense. The researcher favours Hall's (ibid) approach, acknowledging the complexities involved in educational leadership and the risk involved when narrowing down, instead of opening up, the focus of study (Adler *et al*, 1993). It is the researcher's belief that using the three dimensions of gender, culture and power to investigate women school leaders' experiences not only promotes a broader, but also a deeper understanding of their situation.

Summary

Many women's experiences in educational leadership differ to those experiences which men have historically valued. However, there has been an underlying assumption in the educational administrative literature that management is masculine. Historically, women have been overlooked and excluded (Fauth, 1984, Neville, 1989, Adler *et al*, 1993, Court, 1994, Hall, 1996, Jones, 1997, Strachan, 1997). When gender was acknowledged, women were measured by male definitions of leadership and viewed as 'deviant' because they were different. At best, they were advised to act like men (Korndorffer, 1992) in order to succeed in administration.

Despite the perception that women have made in-roads into more senior and middle management positions, recent statistics (Ministry of Education, 1997) illustrate that the number of women state secondary principals has increased less than half a percent, per year, since 1990. Educational administration across a wide spectrum of schools, therefore, is still predominantly the domain of men. The implications for future research, theory and practice are that we need to make a conscious effort to use women's writing and to continue to explore a greater number of women's experiences.

PART TWO: A NEW RIGHT EDUCATIONAL CONTEXT

Introduction

In 1987, Treasury presented a document, entitled Government Management: 'Volume II: Educational Issues', to the re-elected Labour government. This document set in motion a number of "New Right" educational reforms that would, over the following decade, dramatically change New Zealand schooling. Government Management: 'Volume II (1987): Educational Issues' outlined a dismal view of New Zealand education (Jesson, 1988). In its place, a complete reorganisation of education was promoted by Treasury to better prepare New Zealanders for a rapidly changing global economy and, secondly, to achieve greater equity, accountability, efficiency and choice in education.

Acting on Treasury's advice, Prime Minister (and Minister of Education), David Lange commissioned Brian Picot to establish a special taskforce, which produced the Picot Report (1988), recommending specific educational reforms. Tomorrow's Schools (Lange, 1988) further outlined 'How' and 'When' these improvements within education should and would effectively take place.

Ten years on, there are an increasing number of reform critics, believing that Treasury's 1987 assumptions, about "choice" and "equity", were fundamentally flawed (Codd, 1990, Clark, 1997, Strachan, 1997). Instead of greater equity and choice, the reforms have effected increasing competition between schools, forcing a gradual separation between well-resourced educational communities and at risk ones. The "New Right" emphasis on managerialism, accountability and efficiency has had an enormous impact on the working lives of principals and school leaders. The breadth of the principal's role has expanded to become 'chief executive', 'instructional leader' and 'guidance counsellor/social services director', due to increased managerialism and continually eroding social standards.

Background To A Changing Educational Environment

From an educational research perspective, which could be equally applicable to educational administration, educational philosopher John Clark (1997:112) describes how “the Labour government....implemented radical economic reforms which were to have a significant impact....the ideas of the New Right, promoted with great vigor and zeal....became firmly cemented into the structural reorganisation of research”.

Clark, (1997:120), posits that Treasury, in Government Management (1987), made “selective use of both New Zealand and overseas literature to demonstrate that existing liberal educational policies had not only failed to reduce social and educational inequalities but had also contributed to their reproduction”. Treasury claimed that the existing egalitarian philosophy of education was no longer relevant. That philosophy is best illustrated in the 1939 statement of Peter Fraser, then Minister of Education:

The government’s objective, broadly expressed, is that every person whatever (their) level of academic ability, whether (they) be rich or poor, whether (they) live in town or country, has a right, as a citizen, to a free education of the kind for which (they) are best fitted and to the fullest extent of (their) powers (cited in Clark, 1997).

What followed was a new libertarian social philosophy characterised by a complete re-orientation of education towards a ‘market model’ of user pays, choice, competition, bulk-funding, “the elimination of provider capture” and a focus on accountability and outputs (Clark, *ibid*).

In 1993, The New Zealand Curriculum Framework was introduced and it promoted an improvement on the existing national curriculum. It outlined two fundamental principles; firstly, that the individual student was at the centre of all teaching and learning and secondly, that the curriculum for all students would be of the highest quality (Ministry of Education, 1993:6).

The Department of Education was restructured and many former government administrative responsibilities were passed to schools. In the new ‘self-managing’ ethos, schools had greater management accountability and greater local control of many of their resources. Special education and advisory services were re-organised in an attempt to become more responsive to the needs of individual schools.

However, one specific recommendation regarding the role of principals made in the Picot Report (1988) was not adopted in Tomorrow's Schools (1988). In the Picot Report the principal's role was defined in collaborative management and leadership terms. However, in Tomorrow's Schools the principle emphasis on their role was managerial functions only. Under the New Right 'market model' of schooling, principals were more like chief executives, especially in larger state schools with their layer of middle management.

Many reform critics considered "New Right" values of accountability and efficiency to be in direct conflict with collaborative leadership strategies (Codd, 1990, Glazer, 1991, Jones, 1997). Greater compliance with externally-driven government mandates, critics felt, would mean time taken from schools developing internal strategies to improve their teaching and learning programmes.

This study, therefore, provides an opportunity to explore the real impact of the "New Right" educational reforms on the participants' respective workloads, their leadership and school improvement initiatives, their relationships with staff and their school communities. It also explores increasing competition between six provincial schools servicing the same geographical area. It also explores whether, or not, "New Right" reforms have effected what they aimed to achieve – namely improved educational outcomes, greater equity and choice. Finally, this study considers the impact of eroding social standards and the increased social responsibilities facing principals today.

The Market Model Of Schooling

"The Market Model has a distinctively managerial bias to it" (Jones, 1997:10) and, as Glazer (1991:330) comments, "is embodied in the rhetoric of task force reports and state action plans whose recommendations focus on excellence, standards, accountability, achievement and outcomes". Reviewing the reforms, Strachan (1997:45) identified "close links between increasing choice, privatisation and reducing state intervention". Reduced government intervention was advocated to be 'morally right', allowing school communities to better respond to local concerns and issues. "De-zoning" of schools was also implemented, to provide parents with greater freedom to choose the education they wanted for their children.

While the overall responsibility for school philosophy and school governance rested with individual school boards, the day to day responsibility rested with principals. By 1990, principals' roles had grown in scope from one of being the instructional leader, to a combination of being chief executive, marketing manager and cultural high priest (Schein, 1992). In a "New Right" environment, schools had to perform well on all levels. If they failed, they would risk losing students to schools producing 'the results'. The daily responsibility to achieve performing schools rested with principals.

This study, therefore, provides an opportunity to explore philosophical and governance issues, vis a vis 'day to day' school management and the role of principals. In a self-managing ethos, special character has also become a marketing tool for schools and data is presented in Chapter Four, "Results". In a "New Right" environment, school traditions, rituals and routines contribute more than ever to a school's individuality. These aspects of schooling and their impact on learning and educational leadership are analysed in Chapter Five, "Analysis and Conclusions".

When the reforms were ushered in, 'accountability' was considered fundamental to increasing efficiency and to improving educational outcomes (Treasury, 1987). At all levels, schools became accountable both financially and educationally (Strachan, 1997). However interdependent, these two aspects of accountability were difficult to separate in practice (ibid). Financially, schools were responsible for spending allocated funding to achieve specified (financial and) educational objectives (ibid), whereas educational accountability was measured against specific objectives outlined in a school's charter and monitored by the Education Review Office (ERO).

Teachers were made more accountable. All policy documents outlined teacher accountability, pre-empting the establishment of the Education Review Office and the Teacher Registration Board. This study provides the opportunity to explore the real impact of increased accountability on staff; on the work of principals and their approach to issues of professional development and the empowerment of staff.

EEO became a statutory requirement for managing people in education and other state sectors, when the State Sector Amendment Act was passed in 1989. People specifically targeted as 'EEO groups' were women, Maori, ethnic minorities and people with disabilities. One of ERO's responsibilities was monitoring Equal Employment Opportunity (EEO) in schools in which "the board will adopt equal employment opportunities principles generally in appointment procedures; and this will be audited by the Review and Audit Agency [ERO] as part of its regular review" (Lange, 1988:5).

The intent of EEO was to make organisations more equitable and fair. However, EEO as a concept has been extremely vulnerable to many other social pressures. There have been varying interpretations of the purposes, utility, definition, philosophy and practice of EEO which Tremaine (1994:27) believes is now "at a crossroads as a structural change strategy". This study explores how the six participants feel about EEO; its utility and whether they have specific EEO policies in place in their schools.

Criticism Of The Educational Reforms

There has been increasing criticism of the assumptions underpinning the reforms (Lauder *et al*, 1988, Codd *et al*, 1990, Middleton, 1990). Gerald Grace (1990) examined Government Management (1987) and claimed it was based on an ideological view of new right values and rhetoric, and not a well-supported scholarly document.

Grace (1990) did not believe that education could be measured and viewed as a 'commodity' and considered the research, used in supporting the claim that education had failed to produce social equity, was unsound and selectively used. Lauder *et al* (1988) had earlier claimed that any assumptions about education being viewed as a commodity were highly questionable, as education was essentially 'transformative'. Knowledge is not finite. It expands and facilitates awareness, both informally and within a formal education curriculum. This study, therefore, explores the participants' views of education's role in our wider society.

Further criticism of the reforms was levelled at 'efficiency' agendas and reflected mounting suspicion over why educational administration needed to be aligned at all (Lauder *et al*). Some critics believed that it was a smokescreen for attempting to realign education with the needs of a changing, increasingly global economy (Peters and Marshall, 1990). Others believed that a reduction in the state's involvement would inevitably result in the state becoming the guarantor of every individual's rights and freedoms (Codd *et al*, 1990).

Before the abolishment of zoning in 1991, each school serviced its local geographical area. All students, regardless of socio-economic status or ethnicity, could attend. With de-zoning, students in many areas are now openly competing with each other for schools considered 'the best'. Some schools thrive in this "New Right" milieu. However, it is often at the expense of many other schools (Snook 1996). This study, therefore, provides an opportunity to explore the impact of school competition between schools located in the same geographical area.

Reforms And The Role Of Principals: A Changing Workload

Since 1988, school principals have worked in a decentralised, site-based, competitive and largely privatised environment. The impact of "New Right" reforms on their leadership practice has been profound (Caldwell, 1993). The increased emphasis on accountability, in addition to increasing media criticism by politicians and other interest groups, has impacted heavily on principal stress (Whitehead and Ryber, 1995, Brown and Ralph, 1992, Wylie 1990, 1993). Mitchell's (1993) research into the impact of the reforms on school leadership revealed increasing concern over the time devoted to management. Administrative workloads and related occupational strain were the main causes of stress (Wylie, 1994).

However, "New Right managerialism" was believed to be directly in conflict with principals' instructional leadership responsibilities (Codd *et al*, 1990). The Board of Trustees' Opinion Survey (1995) reported that increased stress experienced by principals was compounded by tasks such as: dealing with a wide variety of outside agencies, maintaining relationships with the wider community, meeting administrative requirements of government agencies and working within government regulations and funding levels. Principals were feeling increasingly powerless and having difficulty addressing the needs of their students (Wylie, 1992, 1994).

Trembath, in the PPTA News (June, 1994:30) identified six factors that significantly affected the role of secondary principals. These included: work overload, educational change, dealing with student issues, issues relating to resource management, staff relationships and dealing with community issues.

Robertson (1991:17) outlines the breadth of dilemmas with which principals are faced as “administration versus instructional leadership; accessibility versus efficiency and increasing responsibility versus decreasing authority” or what they described as “the persistent tension between the principal’s desire to be an instructional leader and the practical necessity of leading a school”. Codd *et al* (1990) claim that all clauses pertaining to principals emphasise their managerial role. Bennett (1994:39) also notes ambiguities for principals leading the self-managing school:

The role of principal as both board of trustees member and an employee and educator; as an advisor to and employer of staff; as responsible for both staff appraisal and staff development; as the professional leader and also manager-in-chief; as a member of the union while being employed on an individual contract and at the same time being on the staff’s employing board and ultimately, as accountable to both the Minister of Education and the parents.

The increasing emphasis on managerialism in educational leadership reinforces the links between masculinity and rationality (Court, 1993). New Right values and the increasingly competitive environment of efficiency and accountability may indirectly place pressure on collaborative internal initiatives in an effort to make the ‘best’ use of time (*ibid*). This study explores this dichotomy with each of the participants, to assess any existing tensions and where their leadership priorities are focused.

Women And The New Right: Dilemmas And Barriers

When we reflect on the documents impacting most directly on schooling in this country - Treasury’s Government Management: Volume II (1987): Educational Issues, The Picot Report (1988), Tomorrow’s Schools (1988) and The New Zealand Curriculum Framework (1993)- those responsible for assessing and recommending the changes “were in most cases all members of official organisations” (Clark, 1997:123).

John Clark lists these organisations as “Treasury, State Services Commission, Business Roundtable and political parties” and then notes that “with few exceptions all were males”. The reforms “were fractured along the dimension of gender: powerful male interests were entrenched and female interests ignored” (ibid).

This gender power imbalance is hardly surprising, given the history of women in educational leadership described in part one of this chapter. Those with the power - pakeha men - wish to maintain their power. Therefore, the reforms have done little to improve the lot of women in educational leadership. Sue Middleton (1988:137) claims the feminist slogan ‘the personal is political’ provides an important insight into the research process and feminist theorists contribution to that, for it links the personal (private troubles) to the political (social structure). “Thus, feminist research sets out to reveal how the political reaches into areas always held to be personal, in addition to areas always held to be political” (Clark, 1997:132 emphasis added).

This connection between the personal and political can be seen in terms of the relative power and *powerlessness* of women in society and is directed at what Reinharz (1992:251) calls “consciousness-raising” to transform gender relations and social arrangements. This study explores the issue of gender and power with the participants and their views are presented in Chapter Four, “Results”.

Sue Middleton (1990) was critical of the gender blindness of mainstream education policy. Jane Strachan’s (1997:61) analysis of reform documents illustrates Middleton’s point: “In 1990, New Zealand elected a National government and contrary to what was intended in the 1989 reforms, it appeared that what actually followed was a general downgrading of the commitment to equity issues in education”. Strachan succinctly provides an overview of the Education Review Office’s diminishing responsibility to monitor Equal Employment Opportunities and a general weakening of other agencies’ commitment to EEO, between 1991 and 1996:

In 1991, the Equal Employment Opportunity Reviewers had a change of title to Personnel Reviewers with an associated reduction in focus on equal employment opportunity. In 1993, these positions were removed completely (Court, 1993, 1994). In 1995, only 55 percent of schools had submitted their EEO reports to ERO and 34 percent of these reports had not met the legislative requirements (Equal Employment Opportunities, 1996). Yet, when this situation occurred in 1994 no school was penalised or taken to court for not complying (Wylie, 1995). Other committees and bodies specifically established to look after the concerns of women and girls in education were either disestablished or downgraded. The downgrading of the priority given to equity in schools had serious implications for women working in education (Court, 1993).

Although there has been a gradual increase in the number of women working in senior management in secondary education, breaking through the final barriers to principalships of co-educational schools remains problematic in 1998. “New Right managerialism” has infiltrated education, and continues to promote greater accountability and efficiency. Boards of trustees feel pressured to make the ‘right’ decisions about school leadership and, the researcher believes, still consider men to have better ‘business acumen’ and ‘rationality’ than women.

In addition to fewer role models as women principals, Gardner (1990:23) believes that while boards “have little educational expertise and input on the selection panel” the disproportionate number of women principals will be difficult to redress. This study explores the issue of gender and leadership effectiveness with the six women principals and whether they have experienced any gender prejudice, as teachers and as school leaders.

Critics of the impact of reforms on women point to two fundamental reasons for continued resistance to their attaining principalships, particularly of primary and co-educational secondary schools. Firstly, equal employment opportunities (EEO) has failed to seriously challenge structural power bases in schools, as organisations (Tremaine, 1994, Paki-Slater, 1996), assisted by the National government’s lack of commitment to EEO from 1990 onwards. Secondly, there is a lack of relative educational expertise of school boards, combined with a residual fear of appointing women, as principals, in difficult economic and social times (Gardner, 1990).

The Increasing Social Responsibility Of Schools

Government Management (1987): 'Volume II: Educational Issues', The Picot Report (1988) and Tomorrow's Schools (1988) all expressed concern over eroding social standards and their impact on educational outcomes. Government Management described the retention rate of secondary students as being below many other OECD countries and claimed that Maori retention rates were lower than their pakeha counterparts. Also, the relative academic achievement of Maori was not as high as pakeha at secondary schools (Strachan, 1997). This had effected a high number of unskilled Maori leaving school at age 15. Many were considered 'at risk' and lacking any career focus and that raised concerns for future generations.

Ironically, during the reform era of 1988 to 1993, many government support functions were either streamlined, privatised, eliminated altogether or they became the responsibility of schools with some funding allocated. In 1998, schools are increasingly carrying social responsibilities. This is further complicated by increasing juvenile crime, truancy, incest, family abuse and teenage suicide.

The mounting pressure on schools is evidenced by the number of teachers currently leaving the profession (Ministry of Education, 1997). The pastoral care and discipline areas of most schools have become the ultimate daily responsibility of principals, who aim to provide a safe and secure learning environment for all students. The workload of principals, therefore, has expanded to include 'social services director'. This study explores how the six participants approach difficult social issues and how they cope with increasing social responsibility in 1998.

Schools As Multi-faceted, Gendered Organisations

Much of the earlier educational leadership theory has been influenced by business management theory (Foster, 1986:93). Foster's examination of administrative literature suggests that "educational concerns such as the role of students, the work of teachers and the nature of the curriculum get only passing reference, if they are mentioned at all". This is problematic, as schools are complex organisations and their effectiveness is difficult to measure in economic terms. However, they are extremely influential culturally and socially. This section reflects on the multi-faceted, gendered and unique nature of schools and the role they can play in empowering the next generation of New Zealanders.

Willard Waller (1932), a sociologist in the early 1930s, was among the first to study the relationships that occur between staff and students in schools. He described student sub-cultures and the conflict that inevitably occurs when students are forced into a regimen that totally engulfs them. Contemporary theorists concerned with both the nature and effects of schools have continued this approach (Willis, 1977, Ogbu, 1981, 1982). One area of interest has centred around “how schools contribute to the reproduction of the social strata” (Ogbu, 1981:93).

Foster (1986:93) believes that all educational leaders have the responsibility to consider the following questions: How are society and culture reproduced through schooling? Why are students of middle-class parents likely to become middle-class parents themselves? How is a culture of sexism and violence perpetuated? Why can't schools break the cycle of class reproduction? These questions are equally relevant in a “New Right” environment, as Foster illustrates:

When, however, it can be shown that in a society committed to liberal political values such as equality of opportunity social classes reproduce themselves, high proportions of minority students drop out of schools and effective schools are largely those that draw from from a population whose values reflect school values then the legitimacy of administration is in question.

Foster explains that there is not necessarily a conspiracy working on the part of dominant groups and that, in fact, most schools are full of very caring and concerned people. However, consideration of these issues remains paramount for school leaders aiming to create a democratic and empowering environment for all staff and students, regardless of ethnicity, gender or social status.

Bourdieu and Passeron (1977) investigated cultural reproduction in schooling. Bourdieu describes cultural ‘capital’ as analogous to economic capital: the more one has the wealthier one is. This analogy can be used to describe the relative *powerlessness* of women and girls in New Zealand’s education history. Gender stereotypes have provided cultural currency for the dominant gender - pakeha men. Bourdieu (ibid:98) found schools reflected the culture or ‘habitas’ of the dominant group - meaning their tastes, preferences, language and idiosyncracies. “Those who come to schools without this habitas must either leave, be rejected or learn a new habitas” (ibid:98). Some of these issues also appear in Sharp’s (1980) analysis of schools.

Sharp adopts the Italian Marxist, Gramsci's (1971) idea of hegemony in a similar way to Bourdieu's view of habitus to explain how school knowledge and structure are reflective of the dominant classes. Marx (1970:20) said "it is not the consciousness of men that determines their existence, but their social existence that determines their consciousness".

Hegemony refers to a set of assumptions, theories, values and beliefs, a "world view" through which the ruling class exerts its dominance. Like educational leadership research, theory and practice, schools have also been historically dominated by hegemonic values and beliefs (Court, 1989). Gender stereotypes, therefore, have infiltrated both knowledge creation in literature and social reproduction in schooling (James and Saville-Smith, 1989).

This study investigates the class constituencies of the six respective schools, the values underpinning the leadership of the six participants, the importance of schools in social reproduction and whether the principals feel professionally and personally committed to providing a 'level playing field'. This study also provides the opportunity to explore how they approach dealing with 'at risk' students in order to break the social cycle.

Summary

The past decade of "New Right" educational reforms, underpinned by assumptions about greater efficiency, equity and choice, have had a dramatic impact on New Zealand schooling. In a self-managing ethos, schools are responsible for many key administrative functions that were, prior to 1988, the responsibility of the former Department of Education.

"New Right managerialism" has provided schools with the opportunity to become more responsive to their local communities. However, it has also dramatically increased the workloads of principals, senior managers and school boards of trustees. While some schools are thriving in the "New Right" environment, it has often been at the expense of other schools. De-zoning has resulted in increasing competition between schools, especially in the geographical area investigated in this study. Eroding social standards and the government withdrawal of many key support agencies has further contributed to principals' increased workloads. This study provides the opportunity to explore these issues.

A review of statistics (Ministry of Education, 1997) illustrates that the position of women in a “New Right” educational environment has not dramatically altered since 1990, despite making EEO a statutory requirement. Critics believe that this is due to a gradual reduction in the Education Review Office’s (1990) responsibility to monitor EEO in schools (Tremaine, 1996) and a lack of commitment by boards to honour the intent of the 1990 Act. Again, this study provides the opportunity to explore equity issues with the participants with data being presented in Chapter Four: “Results”.

PART THREE: WOMEN AS LEADERS

Introduction

In Part Three, the writer examines how leadership styles may differ between men and women, especially when considering women’s view of the formal power associated with their position and *empowerment* of staff and students. It is interesting to note that collaborative and affiliative leadership ‘styles’, usually attributed to women, are appearing more frequently in the effective schools’ literature.

Public and Private Lives Blurred

In a journal article entitled ‘Removing Macho Management’ in Gender, Work and Organisation, Marian Court (1994) analyses interview data on leadership styles, from a group of six women working in management positions, within primary and secondary schools. Data suggests that these women felt their leadership styles and philosophies cut across ‘traditional gendered splits’, between private and public spheres, emotionality and rationality and between teaching and administration.

The integration of such dichotomies through an affiliative, collaborative approach to problem solving and decision making was a common theme throughout Court’s research. Through the development of a programme designed to enhance the personal and professional development of ten women aspiring to positions of educational leadership, Jane Strachan (1993:77) also found:

They talked about their lives and how there was an interweaving of their work and family lives. The two were inseparable. Very seldom was one talked about in isolation from the other. If the women were contemplating promotion, or other career moves, then the decision was put into the context of how that would impact on their families.

This study explores the integration of the personal and professional dimensions of the women's lives, as well as investigating the apparent dichotomy that may exist between the administrative and the instructional dimensions of their educational leadership. Rejecting any split between these dimensions, Marian Court (1994:33) believes inclusive management styles "must be supported and valued, for the contribution they can make to improving cultures and enhancing school learning and teaching environments".

It is essential that we, as women and as educational administrators, continue to probe and explore the experiences of women leaders in our field, as this study aims to do. That way, we may begin to understand the issues and practices which combine to contribute to women's skills and experiences being eclipsed and continually undervalued by those people with the power to appoint (Paki-Slater, 1996), both within education and in our wider New Zealand society.

Women's Style Of Leadership

The leadership effectiveness literature examines school effectiveness and the qualities, values and beliefs leaders of those schools bring to their practice. Shakeshaft (1987) outlines five key attributes characterising a feminine leadership style as "relationships" with others; "building community"; "teaching and learning is a major focus"; "marginality as a result of sexist attitudes" and the definition between "public and private worlds blurring" (ibid). These same qualities are believed to be fundamental to improving educational outcomes in schools (Hall, 1996).

Pitner's (1981:291) research into men and women educational administrators found that women were more likely to be informal and more flexible in meetings than their male counterparts. They spent more time actively visiting classrooms and teachers (ibid). Josefowitz (1980) found women had a different style to men, described as overtly humanistic and directed to the 'wholeness' of the human experience. This view of a woman's holistic approach to her work was also explored in Mollie Neville's (1988) study Promoting Women. The researcher in this study investigates whether or not a holistic approach to school leadership is favoured and whether or not the six women principals utilise the many inclusive and collaborative strategies that have been identified by later analyses, including Adler *et al*, (1993), Hall, (1996) and Jones, (1997).

Research into effective leadership and excellence in schools stresses the importance of a 'communicated vision' informed by strong values (Beare et al, 1993). In her study of female headteachers, Marianne Coleman (1996) says the women had a clear vision of where they were taking their schools. Two main sets of values emerged: honesty and integrity, as well as striving for equality of opportunity for all.

Charol Shakeshaft (1989) in Women in Educational Administration, draws on her analysis of over 200 dissertations, 600 research articles and her own research on women in administration to show the ways in which women leaders define excellence and fulfilment, through relationships and intimacy, in their leadership practice. Collegial decision making and collaborative ways of working have proved to be effective in developing schools where staff, students and parents are well motivated towards learning (Chapman, 1990).

In a study of innovative schools, Ramsey *et al* (1991:22) in There's No Going Back: Collaborative Decision Making In Education, found "that women tended to be more open minded than men, more often initiating collaborative approaches". Sergiovanni (1990:20) promotes the concept of 'leadership by bonding' and an affiliative, collaborative, shared approach to organisational goals and objectives. He says "such leadership occurs when one or more persons engage with others in such a way that leaders and followers raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality" which only occurs when both parties work closely together, relying on each other in a team-oriented way (*ibid*). While this transformative (Burns, 1978) style of leadership is not only the property of women, it has been closely linked to feminine ways of working at every level of education. Sergiovanni (1990:24) believes:

Leadership by bonding is the cornerstone of an effective, long-term leadership strategy for schools because it has the power to help schools transcend competence for excellence by inspiring extraordinary commitment and performance.

This study investigates whether the six participants employ 'bonding' type strategies in order to continuously improve their educational and school cultural outcomes.

Women Resisting Management Through 'Control'

While there has obviously been a dominant androcentric management paradigm for many years in education, there may be other reasons why a dis-proportional number of women choose to remain within the lower ranks. Elizabeth AlKhalifa, (1989:89) in Management by Halves, argues that many women may resist moving into school leadership positions because they want to distance themselves from what they perceive to be management practices putting an emphasis “on control rather than negotiation and collaboration and the pursuit of competition, rather than shared problem solving”. She believes that “such resistance is grounded in a positive valuation of their femininity and alternative perspectives on valued and effective behaviours in school management” (ibid).

In The Female Advantage: Women’s Ways Of Leadership, Sally Helgesen (1990) observed four women leaders in the United States, with similar results to those described by Mollie Neville (1988), Marian Court (1989) and Valerie Hall (1996). She used day-long diary studies, based on Mintzberg’s (1973) approach in The Nature of Managerial Work. While the ‘styles’ of the women she studied were all radically different from each other and from standard management practice, they all developed a circular or *web-like* organisation rather than a hierarchy. Helgesen (1990:102) found that her women formed such webs of inclusion instinctively. They fostered teamwork and placed greater emphasis on process: work flow, communication and relationship building. “They were all women with a very strong view of themselves as pioneers. They were conscious of being women and conscious of bringing something new into the workplace”.

Judy Rosener, (1990:119) in Ways Women Lead, recognises that “a new generation of women managers is drawing on skills and attitudes developed from their shared experiences as women”, emphasising collaboration, building relationships, sharing information and valuing the views of all employees. Teamwork is emphasised and not the traditional macho hierarchies “driven by competition and individualism” (Ellis and Wheeler, 1991:79-80). However, Marian Court (1994) posits that we “should downplay gender differences” and, instead, consider “gender power relations”.

Both Neville (1988) and Court (1989) found that the women leaders they interviewed preferred a style of leadership that emphasised the importance of relationships, that included shared decision-making processes and that were empowering of others. This style Marian Court (1992) refers to as 'affiliative'. While this literature review emphasises women's preference for an affiliative leadership style, it is important to stress that not all women are alike and some women may choose to employ a different style. This study provides the opportunity to explore the leadership 'styles' of six women leaders, noting both common traits and differences.

Power and Empowerment

There have been many investigations into how women use power to *empower* others in their work as leaders. In her study of 142 women administrative aspirants in the United States, Edson (1988:66) reports that a feeling of powerlessness coincides with the frustration female aspirants experience "when seeing inadequate administrators already in positions of power". In such cases, many women feel compelled to become administrators:

My God, here I am taking orders and directions from people I feel are incompetent. I know I could do a better job. I could effect more change for kids and administrators. Basically, I am fed up with my lack of power, lack of challenge and the under-utilisation of my abilities.

Edson (ibid:17) found that these women frequently felt a desire to influence and change public schooling. "Notably absent from their explanations were the commonly held notions of why individuals pursue leadership positions - namely, the need for personal prestige and status". This thesis provides a further opportunity to explore the personal motivators, or 'drivers', of each of the six women principals.

Mollie Neville, (1988) in Promoting Women, describes a female paradigm for educational leadership including how women use their formal power as educational leaders. She describes how women are more likely to *share* power and view their staff as whole people. Wheatley (1981) and Marshall (1984) emphasise how women extend their power base to include more non-traditional areas in order to be effective. Wheatley (1981:264) says that when women use power "it is visible; can cope with crisis situations, is pioneering and non-routine". Power can impact on behaviour and, if used to empower, can effect improved educational outcomes.

Marshall (1984:108) views power as a complex concept, analysing it through four key 'lenses' or dimensions: Power over - coercion, reward, formal/positional; structural factors - centrality to organisational tasks, visibility; personal power - competence, wholeness, self-esteem, autonomy, capability and power through - informal networks, politics, coaching, mentoring, attention to wider community issues. This study investigates the differing dimensions of power described here and considers which aspects, if any at all, are utilised in the leadership of the six participants.

Neville (1988) argues that women that she studied combined traditional leadership skills with others that are feminised. They were able to make executive decisions and welcomed accountability for their responsibilities as leaders. However, they also valued people and wanted to empower them to achieve personal and professional goals. They did not see people as 'automatons' or pawns to be moved about. One woman in Neville's (1988:55) study described her professional aims:

I never want to think that anything I know about efficiency will come in between that and the fact that when you are managing, it is good for the good of people and they've got to come first. That may seem inefficient in terms of time and energy but it's the most important thing.

Giving responsibility to and supporting staff, therefore, may lead to positive change and improved educational outcomes through empowering strategies. Hierarchical delegation and more linear models seem to be an outdated concept, often recognised for failing to build cross-curricular and collaborative allegiances in schools (Foster, 1986, Beare *et al*, 1989, Sergiovanni, 1992). This thesis explores the various ways in which six women utilise their formal power and influence as school leaders in a competitive educational environment.

Summary

With mounting pressure on schools to continuously increase their performance, principals and senior staff continue to seek "best practices" or more innovative, improved educational outcomes. Ironically, effective schools research continues to point to collaborative and affiliative strategies, usually employed by women. Sadker *et al* (1986:35) summarise the frustration which many women feel, when reflecting on their historical contribution to education:

The persisting under-representation of women in principals' positions and the lack of analysis of gender factors that impinge on educational leadership structures and practices, are of particular concern when research findings show that schools with female principals have fewer discipline problems, higher faculty and student morale and higher student achievement.

There are definite links between women's inability to access positions of influence in educational leadership and the absence of consideration, or account, of their special attributes and experiences in educational leadership, research and theory. In adopting a life-history approach and investigating links between parental expectations and school leadership values, this study will make a small contribution to the growing literature exploring the 'origins of women's leadership paradigms'. It will add six further stories focusing on the socialised attributes brought to school leadership by principals as 'women', while considering any ramifications for future school leaders; both men and women.

CHAPTER THREE: METHODOLOGY

PART ONE : THE RESEARCH DESIGN

Introduction

This study explores the impact of early family socialisation on values underpinning the leadership practice of six women secondary principals. It also investigates their approach to school leadership in a “New Right” educational environment. A qualitative, case study design has been chosen as the conceptual framework supporting this study because its underlying purpose is to ‘understand’ and to ‘describe’ the personal worlds of the six participants. The advantages of a qualitative research paradigm are outlined below. During the study, theory emerges in an exploratory, interpretive and inductive way and is ‘grounded’ (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) in the worlds of the participants. All theory emerging in this study, therefore, is context and time specific (ibid).

The Qualitative Research Paradigm

Lincoln and Guba (1985) have termed the qualitative paradigm the “constructivist” “naturalist” and “interpretivist” approach. It began as an alternative to the positivist tradition in the late 19th century, with origins in cultural anthropology and American sociology. Recent writers in this field include Kirk and Miller, 1986 and educational research studies by Borg and Gall, 1989. In qualitative research the emphasis is on understanding underlying meanings and beliefs of a social situation, event, role, group or interaction (Locke, Spirduso and Silverman, 1987).

Qualitative research, therefore, is a process of ‘sense-making’ through investigation and gathering data, through contrasting, comparing, reducing, replicating and classifying common patterns and themes (Marshall and Rossman, 1989). Through interaction with informants, the researcher seeks to understand their perspectives and meanings (ibid). Qualitative methods of data gathering allow the researcher to explore “selected issues in depth and detail” (Patton, 1990:13) and to explore ideas, thoughts, feelings and experiences which would be lost in other research approaches (Strachan, 1997).

There are important underlying assumptions associated with the qualitative paradigm and which Miller (1992) outlined in his unpublished, doctoral dissertation proposal on the experiences of a first year college president. Qualitative research is carried out in natural settings involving human social interaction. Theories and hypotheses are not established **a priori**, as in quantitative research (ibid). Characterised by an emerging theory, qualitative research, therefore, proceeds as the research process develops.

The qualitative researcher is the primary research instrument in data collection, unlike the more “inanimate” mechanisms used in quantitative research (Eisner, 1991, Fraenkel and Wallen, 1990, Lincoln and Guba, 1985, Merriam, 1988). Qualitative data is descriptive, usually reported in the words of informants by using direct quotes and “thick description” (Bogdan and Biklen, 1982).

Other data gathering methodologies include illustrations and photos, rather than a reliance on numbers or statistical calculations (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1990, Locke et al, 1987, Marshall and Rossman, 1989, Merriam, 1988) and a small number of participants are usually involved (Strachan, 1997). Qualitative research is essentially an exercise in sense-making, in understanding the perceptions and meanings of the ‘multiple realities’ of informants and their (sense-making) of situations (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1990, Locke *et al*, 1987, Merriam, 1988). The processes of qualitative research are as important as the outcomes of the research. They are not just a means to an end. Occurrences and the meaning behind events, therefore, are of particular interest to qualitative researchers (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1990, Merriam, 1988).

Each qualitative study is taken “in context” with attention paid to the particulars of that study without the use of generalisations. Meanings and interpretations of qualitative designs are always negotiated with informants because it is “their realities” which are reconstructed and described by the researcher (Lincoln and Guba, 1985, Merriam, 1988).

Data are not quantifiable in the traditional manner because much qualitative research explores tacit knowledge and experiences, intuition and feelings. The criteria for judging the objectivity and truthfulness of the qualitative paradigm are different from those used in quantitative research. The researcher seeks ‘believability’ based on coherence, insight, instrumental utility (Eisner, 1991) and trustworthiness (Lincoln and Guba, 1985), through a process of verification rather than through the more traditional methods of validity and reliability.

While validity and reliability are still important, they are perceived differently. Believability and trustworthiness are of prime concern to qualitative researchers (Merriam, 1988). Being able to show that a piece of research is trustworthy is important in establishing the qualitative researchers' (scholarly) acceptance (Morgan, 1981). As qualitative research has "understanding" as its main goal, trustworthiness is judged and established differently from research carried out in the quantitative paradigm. Trustworthiness is established by seeking on-going verification of data with the informants, through triangulation of informants or through comparing and contrasting data as theory emerges.

A qualitative research problem may emerge from any of the following situations: The concept is immature due to a lack of theory. This is certainly true of the chosen focus for this study - women secondary principals' leadership - where theory is emerging and yet important, given the links between collaborative and affiliative leadership styles (often associated with feminine qualities). A qualitative research problem may also emerge in a situation where the existing theory may be biased *or* inaccurate, or a need exists to explore phenomena to develop theory; or the nature of the problem may not suit the quantitative paradigm.

Qualitative and Quantitative Paradigms Compared

The researcher chose a qualitative research paradigm to investigate and describe the "personal experiences" of six women principals as the ontological, epistemological, axiological and methodological assumptions of this paradigm not only suit the research problem but also they are aligned to the researcher's belief about the nature of reality. For example; regarding the ontological issue, "What is real?", the researcher believes that reality is constructed by the individuals involved in the research process.

There can be multiple realities in qualitative research. Patterns and common themes are explored in a process of sense-making, as the research progresses. Multiple realities include the researcher's and those of any audience interpreting the study. Ontologically, in quantitative research, the researcher views reality as objective and independent of himself or herself. Quantitative methods, therefore, assume that it is possible to measure reality 'objectively'.

Regarding the position of the researcher, or epistemologically, the paradigms also differ. In quantitative research, the researcher expects to remain 'independent' of the researched. However, in this study, the qualitative researcher interacts with informants in a partnership of shared sense-making and exploration, enabling the researcher to understand, as an insider, personal experiences, tacit knowledge and meanings. The case study methods employed are interactive and they require developing trust and rapport with the informants. This brings to our attention the axiological issue, or the role of 'values' in the qualitative research process.

Values are approached very differently within qualitative and quantitative paradigms. In quantitative research, the researcher's values are supposedly omitted from the study by eliminating any inference or statements about values in the written report, by using impersonal language and by reporting only facts, supported by evidence gathered in the study. However, as in this qualitative study, the researcher openly admits to the value-laden nature of qualitative research, reporting personal bias as well as emphasising the value-laden nature of the data that are reported and interpreted. The researcher's position, therefore, is declared under "Researcher's Role".

There are other differences between the two paradigms, in addition to those mentioned above. The language of reporting differs, too. In quantitative reporting, the language, or 'rhetoric', is characterised by the use of formal, impersonal descriptions usually based on accepted expressions such as "relationship", "comparison" and "within group". "Concepts and variables are well defined from accepted traditions" (Cresswell, 1994:6/7). Qualitative studies are characterised by very different language. Words like "understanding", "discover" and "meaning" made their way into qualitative texts to emphasise the nature of the qualitative paradigm, contributing to an emerging vocabulary of personal and informal expressions (ibid).

Evolving from the ontological, epistemological, axiological and rhetorical differences between the two paradigms is a methodology, or research process, that differs as well. Quantitative methodology requires a deductive form of logic with fixed **a priori** theories and hypotheses, remaining static and being tested in a context-free situation. The intent of quantitative study is to develop generalisations or theoretical ideas (contributing to theory and allowing predictions and explanations of a particular phenomenon), enhanced if the instruments used in the study are found to be reliable and valid.

Inductive logic, however, is the basis of a qualitative methodology where characteristics and categories emerge throughout the study, rather than being predetermined **a priori**. The data emerge and unfold in a 'context-specific' manner. The accuracy, or truthfulness, of data can be verified through triangulation of the informants, to assess various sources, or points of view (ibid). The methods employed by the researcher to determine internal validity are outlined under "Verification".

Case Study Research Design

An evolving, interpretive case study framework is employed with the aim of increased understanding of educational leadership, while developing emerging theory (Yin, 1989) by analysing and coding data and identifying patterns or common themes in the participants' leadership practice. Case study has been selected because the aim of the study is to "describe" and "understand" the world of the six women principals or, as Bouma (1996:89) puts it, "What is going on?"

Historically, case study evolved in both the United States, in a classical case study tradition (exemplars include Hargreave's Social Relations in a Secondary School (1966) and Wolcott's The Man in the Principal's Office (1973)) and, in Britain, within the evaluative dimension of the Humanities' Curriculum Project (1968). Case study design marked a departure for many people in educational research, away from the rigidity of positivist methodologies, which failed to account for cultural and cognitive processes of individuals and social groups.

Case study is closely linked to critical theory, feminist and minority methodologies, theorising and research traditions, by aiming to understand, describe, "educate" and "emancipate" participants. Case study allows the many social 'realities', often reflecting the interests and values of a dominant group, to be uncovered, described and understood.

Case study offers a wide variety of research methods and approaches. The researcher explores "the case" or "the subject(s)", bounded by time and activity and then collects information, using a variety of data collection procedures during a sustained period of time (Merriam, 1988, Yin, 1989). A case study may be of a single person, a social group, a school or an entire community, with the primary purpose being to understand and to describe human social interaction.

In educational research, Stenhouse (1981) outlines three differing strands of case study: action research, evaluation and naturalistic traditions. All three overlap to varying degrees. Action research has developed into the study of practical problems in an educational context with a view to resolving problems, for practice. Theories are validated through practice in a form of collective, self-reflective enquiry.

The evaluation strand of case study was generally aimed at gathering evidence with which people could make reflective and deliberate judgements. Parallel to the evaluative element, evolving from the Humanities' Curriculum Project, was Parlett and Hamilton's notion of illuminative evaluation (1972) and American, Robert Stake's, (1967,1972a, 1972b) evaluation as the 'portrayal of cases' (Stenhouse, 1981:23). More recently a naturalist, constructivist (ibid) case study has emerged and is gaining in popularity in educational research.

Recognising the existence of multiple realities and context-specific values, meanings and beliefs, the researcher adheres closely to qualitative inquiry using data to illustrate an emerging story as the study progresses. Lincoln and Guba (1985) refer to "pattern theories" as an explanation that develops during naturalistic or qualitative research. These pattern theories represent a pattern of "interconnected thoughts" or parts linked to a whole. Neuman (1991:87) notes that pattern theories are "systems of ideas that inform" as the research process unfolds.

Case study design offers a variety of data gathering methodologies to the researcher. There are ethical considerations regarding some of these in particular contexts and there are ethical questions to consider, when writing up and reporting data. All research is political and undertaken with a particular outcome or objective in mind (Bell and Newby, 1977). Therefore, the reporting stage of the research is critical and requires internal verification to ensure the data are reported as accurately as possible and that the informants are comfortable with their portrayal.

Specific research techniques such as ethnography, surveys, participant observation, quantitative methods, clinical methods and interviewing all overlap with case study. Observation, when employed, is neither neutral nor passive. It will always be interpretive, interventive and subjective and it will reflect the researcher's own bias and experiences.

Other methodologies used in case study include analysis of documents, surveys, video recordings (overt and covert, although there are ethical concerns with the latter), photographs, sketches and other pictorial material. This study employs biographical surveys, audio-taped interviews and research journals for recording notes throughout the research process.

Data analysis in case study is often completed at the time the data are collected, true to the qualitative research paradigm. It is eclectic as there is no right way (Tesch, 1990). Data analysis requires the researcher to sit comfortably with 'emerging categories' (Cresswell, 1994) and in continuing to compare and contrast as the case unfolds. The case study researcher must keep an open mind at all times, to allow any contrasting data or alternative views to surface and to be described.

All qualitative methods, of which case study is only one, can generate volumes of data to be analysed and the integrity of the researcher is paramount when it comes to the overwhelming task of making sense out of transcribed interviews and field notes (Patton, 1980). The researcher needs to start writing early and be balanced and accurate in that writing. Wolcott, 1990, says that subjectivity is a strength of qualitative approaches and the sooner data are written up, the more closely related the researcher is to that data. Leaving time to elapse may result in detached objectivity.

Writing up and reporting case study data can take several forms, including narrative, vignette and analysis (Stenhouse, 1977). These three can be blended to suit the intent of the report. Case studies in educational settings are often commissioned or sponsored and the form of the report, therefore, is often analytical. Analysis is the most definitive approach to reporting and it is likely to be the most critical or requiring future action.

Narrative and vignette are methods that take a more subtle approach to reporting, than analysis. With narrative, the reporter "tells a story" with events unfolding in a simple, direct and subtle way and it is especially useful when describing historical perspectives or biographical data, as this researcher has done. Vignette is a more "fleeting impression" of events or an "illuminated observation" (ibid). The researcher in this study uses narrative reporting to tell the "personal stories" of six women secondary principals. By taking a thematic approach, the researcher is able to generate theoretical explanations and to blend cases if and where appropriate.

Weaknesses And Strengths Of Case Study Design

Jane Strachan (1997) reports that critics can say that case study, as a research design, lacks theoretical rigor. However, case studies are designed to shape theory in an emerging, exploratory fashion, from the information or data collected. The theory collected is 'grounded' (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) in the context or worlds of the research participants. Theory shaping in case study aims to find out "Why?" and "How?" (Merriam, 1988). This is particularly true of interpretive rather than purely descriptive case studies. Theory is woven through the entire research process.

By taking personal, 'single perspective' accounts of the participants and not cross-checking their stories with their staff or other relevant people, any theory emerging from this study is limited in reliability. However, the researcher aims to communicate the participants' accounts of their experiences as *they* see and feel them and has an expectation that the meanings of situation, observation, reporting and reading will be integrated into a 'believable whole'. The researcher recognises that trustworthiness and believability are important, as are the highly personal and tacit experiences of the participants grounded (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) in their respective worlds. The third-tier information recorded in the research journal and the interview tapes were utilised to increase the reliability of recording and reporting data and its validity, analysis and understanding.

Researcher competency can, however, be a weakness (Strachan, 1997) in case study. Multiple methods of gathering data by the researcher, as the primary research instrument, requires the researcher to be skilled in all of those methods employed to gather data. As Merriam (1988) acknowledges, researchers are only human and will make mistakes and overlook opportunities. However, researcher proximity to the phenomenon being explored invariably allows for flexibility and early responses to new opportunities presented (ibid).

Researcher's Role

Anne Jones (1992) claims that qualitative researchers need to reveal their bias, self consciously exposing their theoretical and cultural lenses which determine and shape their accounts. Marian Court (1989) notes that this approach generally invites a response to theorising, rather than simple acceptance or rejection of data presented.

The researcher's position in this study can not be as an insider, as she has met only one of the participants. However, she admits beginning this study with a general admiration and empathy for women who work around the clock, juggling many pressures that seem to spring from several directions at once! The researcher was in a similar position herself a few years ago.

A pakeha woman, the researcher works in middle management in a boys' secondary school. She recognises that her tacit experiences will have impacted on what she deemed to be important and to be included in the research. In an interpretivist exploration of women's experiences and the significance of their daily lives (Weiler, 1985), the researcher, therefore, has had to treat the familiar as 'unfamiliar' (Barton, 1988). However, she has also treated her experience as a 'backdrop' (Smith, 1974) for her knowledge.

At all times, the researcher sought to be critically aware of her personal perspective and how that affected her sense-making and action (Court, 1994). The researcher endeavoured to develop 'critical' subjectivity (Reason and Rowan, 1981) which grew and broadened throughout the study, by pursuing awareness that Torbert (1991) describes as 'action inquiry'. The researcher let the inquiry process inform her of the topic in an inductive vein while being acutely aware of exercising vigorous practice (Hollway, 1989, Denzin, 1992, Stanley and Wise, 1993).

Data Collection Procedures

The number of participants was kept small and accessible, to allow for a tighter focus on the experiences of women living and working in the same geographical area. Data were collected from February through to September, 1998. The researcher chose a qualitative approach to data gathering, which required collaboration and working closely with the six women studied. Initial information was collected through a biographical questionnaire (attached as Appendix Five). This was mailed to each of the participants in March 1998, on receipt of their signed consent forms (attached as Appendix Three).

The questionnaire requested broad personal and professional experience in order to provide a backdrop against which to collect remaining data. However, the questions did not compromise the participants' anonymity. They were mainly "fill the blank" and "multiple choice" (Anderson, 1994:209) to provide "context and a sense of setting" (Court, 1989:58).

Two face-to-face, one hour, audio-taped interviews with each participant, in addition to a research journal of events and issues (timed and dated), provided a further platform for collecting data. Multiple interviewing has often been used in feminist research to establish trustworthiness and credibility. It provides the researcher with the opportunity to receive feedback and to ask further questions (Strachan, 1997).

The researcher was the main instrument and taped interviews were the primary data collection method from which to generate emerging theory (Reinharz, 1992). The researcher felt very comfortable with interview as a methodology, as Reinharz (ibid:20) notes “asking people what they think and feel is an activity females are socialised to perform”. One telephone conversation (with Helen, 2/9/98) and one letter (from Sue, 25/8/98) were used to fill gaps identified by the researcher and the informant (respectively). These two forms of data were then added to other data and integrated into Chapter Four, “Results”.

Ann Oakley (1981b:30) discusses the methodological problems of interviewing, highlighted during her research on motherhood and she describes a gap existing between the textbook models and her experience. Traditional criteria for interviewing, she says, assume that interviewing is a one way process in which the interviewer elicits and receives but does not provide information to the interviewee. Oakley recommends the interactive or ‘conversational’ approach to interviewing, providing the opportunity for the researcher to respond to the participants. Interviewing is non-experimental as a methodology. However, it is useful when exploring the personal realities of participants and in gaining a deeper understanding of a situation and its meaning for those involved (Merriam, 1980).

During the research, emphasis at all times was on presenting the ‘voices’ of participants, from the initial interviews to the final qualitative narrative. Interview tapes were reviewed by the researcher several times, to ensure an accurate and complete transcription of participant responses. Each transcribed set of interview responses was mailed to each respective participant, to ensure that they were happy with the transcription of their comments. After providing consent a second, taped interview was arranged with each principal. The interview tapes were useful when cross-checking for accuracy and trustworthiness of note-taking before writing up the first draft of Chapter Four, “Results”.

As the study progressed, the researcher's on-going interaction with the participants resulted in a developing rapport. This allowed for more candid and intimate responses from the women during their second 'life-history' interviews, as was experienced in similar studies by Valerie Hall (1996) and Anne Jones (1997).

A semi-structured, conversational style of interviewing was employed, which followed the women's concerns within the parameters of the research (Court, 1989) and aimed not to restrict their thinking (Barnes, 1994) about their experiences. The researcher's part was to treat the familiar as unfamiliar (Barton, 1988) but to identify with the women in a shared construction of meaning (Mischler 1986). Attached (as Appendix Four) are key research questions and supporting interview questions naturally evolving using the conversational methodology (Oakley, 1981b) described earlier.

In addition to the biographical questionnaire and two taped interviews with each principal, a research journal was kept, noting issues and ideas that could significantly enhance the data (see Appendix Seven for a sample of note-taking). For example, patterns, and 'common themes' emerging after the first set of interviews were noted and brought up for discussion in the second interviews. Also noted were body language, gestures and expressions during both interviews, which all add to the richness of interview data. All entries were timed and dated, to keep an accurate account of this 'third tier' of information.

Data Analysis

The approach to data analysis is based on Glaser and Strauss's (1967:23) Discovery of Grounded Theory. The authors say that, in discovering theory, the researcher creates conceptual categories from evidence, "then evidence from which the category emerged is used to illustrate the concept". Evidence may not be accurate beyond doubt "but the concept is undoubtedly a relevant theoretical abstraction about what is going on in the area studied" (ibid). In generating grounded theory, the emerging data, therefore, are grounded in a conceptual framework that may develop as the research process develops.

Data analysis was also influenced by Middleton's (1988) techniques used to analyse, categorise and interpret her findings in addition to cross-case analysis (Huberman and Miles, 1994) to explore emerging themes in the women's leadership. Within-case analysis (ibid) was not adopted, as it would have compromised the anonymity of the participants. For the purposes of this study, cross-case analysis is effective in exploring leadership styles and values, without exposing the participants to individual examination.

When interviews were completed, the audio-tapes were played back to ensure accuracy and validity of data, before indexing and coding emerging themes and patterns. As in Middleton's (1988) analysis, coloured highlighters were used to assist with ease of theme identification for analysis (see samples as Appendix Seven, Eight and Nine in appendices). Data analysis was on-going and undertaken as often as possible, as Delamont (1993) suggests. All data noted in the research journal was also used to provide an extra layer of trustworthiness and believability.

Ethically however, nothing observed falling outside the broad focus of the research was included. The process of analysis was inductive and continually tested by negotiation (Anderson, 1994) with the six women. As each new theme emerged, it was listed on a separate chart and numbered, colour coded and reviewed against the interview notes and research journal (see Appendices Seven - Nine).

Figure 3.1 The Analysis Process

Phase One

Read Data

Reflect

Re-read data

Identify possible categories **Phase Two**

Label transcripts

Underline interesting data

Develop 'generally inclusive' categories

Phase Three

Reflect

Reflect again

Identify 'strong' patterns and themes

Reflect

Link theory with literature

Re-read

Classify data into chunks

Reflect

Phase Four

Check validity/triangulation

Develop theory

Test theory against data

Re-analysis

Establish theory

Tell the 'research story'

An adaption of "The Analysis Process", by Roz Palmer (1997:51).

Ethical Considerations

There are frequent references to ethical considerations by writers such as Locke *et al* (1982), Marshall and Rossman (1989), Merriam, (1988) and Spradley, (1980). They describe the researcher's on-going obligation to respect the rights, needs, values and desires of the informants (Miller, 1992). Case study research is interventive and intrusive, even though the participants have expressed on-going interest in this research.

There were several safeguards established to protect participant identities. Once the principals agreed to participate by signing the consent form, an interview request form was sent to them, seeking permission to audio-tape the interviews. This was completed and returned with the date and time chosen by the participants. Pseudonyms were adopted for the study to protect the anonymity of the women.

On-going opportunities for participant-checking of first interview transcripts, second interview transcripts and the preliminary drafts of Chapters Four, Five and Six (later collapsed into Chapter Five), allowed them to ensure that the rules of confidentiality were being met, at all times. Approval for inclusion of figures and diagrams illustrating broad biographical and professional details, compiled from the questionnaire, was also sought.

When asked by participants, on four occasions, to remove statements and pieces of the narrative, the researcher did so without hesitation. The women were also aware that they could withdraw, at any stage of the research, for any reason. All interview tapes, the research journal, notes and raw data will be kept, secured and confidential to the researcher, until final examination of this thesis has been completed. All data related to the study will then be totally destroyed.

Verification

To ensure internal validity, the following steps were integrated into the research process:

1.Participant checking

all participants made the necessary data checks

2.On-going review and examination

by the researcher's supervisors at Massey University

3.Participatory modes of research (Miller, 1992)

where participants had every opportunity to be involved in most phases of the study

4.Clarification of researcher bias

declared under "Researcher's Role".

Wolcott's (1990) advice was followed, to further satisfy the on-going requirement of trustworthiness, believability, validity and reliability: Talking a little and listening a lot; recording accurately; writing early; offering informed interpretations; reporting fully; being candid; seeking feedback; maintaining rigorous subjectivity and writing accurately.

Theory And Generalisability

Working 'up' from the data, "participant validation and triangulation can be weighed up alongside generalising and conceptualising" (Delamont, 1992:160) in forming an emerging theory against which to view further data. Emerging themes resulting from data analysis have either become grounded theory (Glaser and Strauss, 1967) or are generalised to the context of the study and are discussed in Chapter Five, "Analysis and Conclusions". Any data not supporting these generalisations or theoretical assumptions are discussed separately and reviewed against the limitations of the study.

The Qualitative Narrative

The results of this qualitative study are presented in a descriptive, narrative form.

An in-depth exploration and portrayal of the paths leading to six principalships and the experiences of six women, as principals, in a "New Right" educational context, are presented in Chapter Four, "Results". In Chapter Five, "Analysis and Conclusions", the writer reviews data in the light of current literature and draws conclusions about the study, considering implications for future research, theory and practice.

The six principals' frustrations, successes, challenges and triumphs provide an insight into their worlds and make a small contribution to emerging literature on women in educational administration (Adler *et al*, 1993, Hall, 1996, Jones, 1997, Strachan, 1997).

In preparing a qualitative narrative, Southworth (1995:51) distinguishes between three different forms, applicable to data presentation in this study. They are the "everyday", the "autobiographical" and the "biographical":

The everyday narrative articulates how actors go about their rounds and accomplish their tasks. The autobiographical narrative is the telling of one's own story and how one's past is related to the present. Biography is concerned with the ability to empathise with the life stories of others and with the retelling of the other's life.

Telling life stories (Middleton, 1986, Acker, 1989) as detailed biographies is difficult within the parameters of this study. However, the personal reflections of the participants are presented as they recall 'key' life experiences. The result is a brief overview of their earlier lives (Woods, 1987) and family socialisation, highlighting the relationships they describe as the most influential to their developing leadership values. Parental expectations and a "sense of self" are considered while exploring 'triggers' or major life experiences impacting on later career decisions. This study aims to understand the participants as "complete" people and draw conclusions about "whole people in whole contexts" (*ibid*).

The use of thick description, where the researcher uses direct quotations from the participants, in Chapters Four and Five, calls on the everyday and autobiographical components of narrative. However, it is also important to qualify the subjectivity that permeates the study and final chapters. This is a study about women, by a woman and, therefore, has a definite gender lens "immersed in feminine culture and power" (Hall, 1996:19) through which activities are explored and discussed.

PART TWO : THE RESEARCH PROCESS

Introduction

The entire research process spanned a period from November, 1997 to September 1998 with data collected between March and September 1988. Data were studied, analysed and reviewed again against a backdrop of literature, before being presented in four parts in Chapter Four: “Results”. Data presentation is chronological in the following chapter providing, firstly, an insight into the participants’ early socialisation; secondly, the six pathways taken to their principalships; thirdly, their leadership experiences as secondary principals and, finally, the impact of a “New Right” educational context on their leadership values and priorities. The research process adopted by the researcher is outlined here.

Selecting Participants

The participants were selected for ease of accessibility to the researcher and to compare the experiences of six women secondary principals, living and working within the same provincial area of New Zealand. While the researcher acknowledges that the research sample is relatively small, there are differing ‘types’ of secondary schools represented in this study.

For example, there are two medium sized state girls’ schools; one small, private multi-denominational girls’ school, one small, private Presbyterian girls’ school; one medium sized, integrated Catholic girls’ school and one medium sized, co-educational state secondary school.

Letters Of Consent And Information Sheets

In November 1997, all potential participants were telephoned by the researcher, to assess their initial interest in the study. While they were all busy, they indicated a willingness to participate “next year”. The researcher then mailed a copy of her 1997 research proposal for the study; the Massey University Ethics Committee’s consent form and an information sheet, to each principal.

The proposal explained the parameters of the research, while a covering letter requested initial interview times and the adoption of pseudonyms to protect participant identities. At all times, the participants’ rights and anonymity remain the researcher’s primary concern.

First Interviews

Adopting pseudonyms was the first step in six 'research partnerships' which have since developed with the researcher. The six women will be known as Rose, Sue, Helen, Bev, Jill and Mary. These pseudonyms will be used throughout the remaining chapters of this thesis.

Data Verification And Internal Validity

Following the first interviews, the researcher reviewed all taped responses and prepared transcripts, as accurately as possible. Where required, the transcripts were utilised to cross-check meanings inferred by the participants' tone of voice. All data were returned to the participants for participant feedback and/or amendment. At each stage of the research, the researcher wanted to ensure that the women were happy with what was written, as it is their personal experiences that are being described and considered. A clean, corrected copy of first interview data was returned to each participant, before any second interviews were scheduled. Therefore, any concerns were resolved at every step in the research process

Emerging Themes

Coloured highlighters were used to identify emerging themes, while analysing first and second interview data. Themes emerging from the first interviews formed the basis of the second, 'life-history' interviews (Middleton, 1986, Acker, 1989), discussed below. The themes later formed some of the subheadings in Chapter Four: "Results" (see appendices Seven - Nine for examples of the colour coding during the analysis process).

On-going Communication And Interest

At every stage of the research the participants generously responded to queries, as and when required. They were genuinely interested in the researcher's on-going progress. Regular contact by the researcher was maintained with participants, usually via brief written updates so as not to be intrusive.

Second Interviews

In the second interviews, influential life experiences impacting on leadership values were explored. Specifically, early socialisation and parental expectations, which may have shaped the principals' leadership action, were the focus. Investigation centred on whether the six women had always been determined to make a positive difference in the lives of others and "Where?" and "How?" they had first developed their leadership values.

Like the first round of interviews, second interviews were generally conversational (Oakley, 1981b) in nature. The researcher also wondered “When?” and “Why?” these women chose teaching as a career and “Why?” they had continued through senior management to principalships.

Data Verification

As with the first interviews, all second interview data were checked by the participants before preparing drafts for Chapters Four: “Results” and Five: “Analysis and Conclusions”. Participant responses (*italicised* and integrated directly into the text) had to reflect participant experiences, as they recalled and described them. However, the utilisation and inclusion of every participant response was not necessary, due to the thematic approach adopted, by the researcher, for data presentation.

Preparing A Narrative Framework

When the researcher initially embarked on this study, she had not considered adopting a life-history approach (Middleton, 1986, Acker, 1989) to exploring participant experiences. In taking such an approach, the researcher not only found leadership values of affiliation, care, inclusion and empowerment as described in earlier analyses of women in educational administration (Neville, 1988, Blackmore, 1989, Court, 1989, Strachan, 1993, Blount, 1994), but also she uncovered a dogged determination. This determination was a common thread throughout the data presentation and analysis and is best described as being *determined to make a positive difference* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) for students and staff.

Regardless of the socio-economic, cultural, gender or class constituency of their schools (James and Saville-Smith, 1989), data illustrate that these women adopted a similar stance as school leaders. They were articulate advocates for ‘their’ schools. They believed strongly in what their schools offered. They were *determined to maximise the potential of all available resources* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98), including their human resources, through empowerment and consciousness raising of both students and staff.

The narrative framework evolved after data had been analysed and coded into logical themes (see appendices Seven through Nine). A chronological, thematic approach to data presentation is adopted in Chapter Four, “Results”, with early socialisation and parental expectations in Part One; career influences in Part Two; the reality of being a principal in Part Three and the impact of “New Right” reforms on school leadership practice, in Part Four.

Limitations of The Research Design And Process

While this study will make a small contribution to the growing literature on women in educational administration, there are several limitations. First, in telling the ‘life stories’ of the six women, it is not possible to offer the level of detail necessary to formulate a reliable and valid theory of women’s educational leadership from only two taped interviews, the biographical questionnaire and the research journal. Second, the researcher has taken accounts from the women themselves, without cross-referencing their experiences with any of their staff, or other relevant or interested people. Therefore, the experiences described in this thesis are highly tacit, personalised and through the ‘personal lenses’ of the women themselves.

The third limitation is that five of the six women are principals of girls’ schools and appear not to have experienced the gender barriers so often described by other women in earlier research (Al-Khalifa, 1989, Barnes, 1994, Blackmore, 1993, 1996, Chapman, 1990, Hall, 1996). That is not to say that gender barriers no longer exist. Rather, it suggests that, in some contexts, there may be fewer barriers existing (for example, in girls’ secondary schools, where women represent the majority of staff members). The final limitation is that the one ‘co-educational’ principal’s experiences do differ slightly from the other five women. Implications, therefore, are considered in Chapter Five: “Analysis and Conclusions”.

Summary

This chapter examines the procedures and research methodology used in the study. It outlines the researcher’s role and why participants were selected. The research process began when the researcher telephoned ‘prospective’ participants in November 1997. Letters of consent and information sheets were forwarded to the six women, who had all expressed interest in participating. After receiving the signed consent forms the researcher worked with the participants, scheduling the first interviews at five of the six schools. One interview was completed at the researcher’s home at the request of the participant. Immediately after each interview was completed, data recorded on audio-tapes were transcribed, as accurately as possible, by the researcher.

Second interviews were carried out in the same, conversational manner (Oakley, 1981b) as the first interviews. A biographical approach to data collection was adopted for the second interviews, with on-going contact resulting in greater rapport developing between the participants and the researcher. Immediately after each of the second interviews, the audio-tapes were reviewed and data were again transcribed by the researcher.

A copy of each principal's second interview data was mailed to them, requesting amendments, deletions and/or comments to ensure for reliability and validity of data. Once the transcripts had been sighted and checked by the participants, data was analysed and colour coded into common patterns and themes. Themes and categories later formed the basis of some of the sub-headings in Chapter Four, "Results".

When a draft of Chapter Four was completed, it was returned to the participants for their feedback. At all times, the researcher aimed to preserve the intent of what was said in interviews. At every stage, participant portrayal was verified by each principal. Comments were again sought from participants, after viewing the draft of Chapter Five. Any participant amendments, or concerns, were always resolved before the researcher was free to forward her drafts to both supervisors, for feedback and advice.

The process of writing, reviewing and rewriting various draft chapters took much longer than the researcher had initially anticipated. While the first draft of this thesis was completed in November 1998, the third and final draft was not submitted for examination until well into 1999. All research data was kept confidential and secure until it could be shredded and destroyed.

CHAPTER FOUR : RESULTS

Introduction

This chapter briefly introduces the six participants of this study before presenting integrated data obtained from the questionnaire, the audio-taped interviews and from the research journal. Data are arranged into key themes and have been deliberately presented in narrative form, in figures, tables and in diagrams to add variety. There are four parts to the data presentation: Part One - “Early Experiences”, in which participants reflect on their childhood, parental expectations and life ‘shaping’ experiences. Part Two - “Teaching Careers” in which triggers which may have led these women not only into teaching but also into educational administration are explored; Part Three - “The Principal’s Role”, in which participants describe their school leadership, how power is viewed and what it feels like to be the public face of a secondary school; and Part Four - “A New Right Educational Context”, in which participants describe the impact of Tomorrow’s Schools (Lange, 1988) educational reforms and managerialism on their workloads and 1998 leadership initiatives.

To allow readers to hear the participants’ “voices”, direct quotations, with minimal interpretation, are integrated throughout this chapter (indicated *in italics*, with longer quotes being indented). Words added by the researcher to original data are indicated [as such]. Most responses are labelled (with the date and data source) to indicate, to the reader, from where data were obtained. Data presented here form the basis for analysis and conclusions in Chapter Five.

Initial Impressions And First Interviews

Having conceived and prepared the conceptual framework supporting this study, the researcher was finally ready to enter the field. Late in 1997, all participants had appeared receptive to the idea of participating. They had expressed a genuine interest in the research process and in reading the finished formal report. Earlier effective schools’ research suggests that women principals work collaboratively and in consultation with their staff (Josefowitz, 1980, Pitner, 1981, Gray, 1987, Elshtain, 1987, Hall, 1996). The researcher, therefore, wondered whether or not these women would work collaboratively with her. Would, or could, they be candid with an outsider? The researcher also recognised that securing participant trust was fundamental to exploring their worlds and early life experiences.

Rose

The researcher's first interview is with Rose. Having been greeted by the principal's secretary, the researcher is welcomed and led by Rose to her office. Rose is a very confident, immaculately presented, articulate woman in her fifties. She immediately makes the researcher feel at ease and quite happily answers her questions. While the first interview develops as a conversation (Oakley, 1981b), Rose describes the reality of being a principal and the frustrations and triumphs of leading a private girls' school in a "New Right" context.

Rose's school has fewer than 200 students and she is guiding the school towards its January 1st, 1999 *integration into the state system* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). Her school has a long and proud tradition and Rose hopes that it will *retain its special character and combine the best of both private and state education*. A first-time principal, Rose was previously the deputy principal of a larger girls' state secondary school in another province. Rose and her husband moved to this school four years ago. In that time, Rose has forged strong links with students, staff and her wider school community. Leaving Rose, the researcher feels inspired and impressed by her enthusiasm and vitality. The emotional investment which Rose is giving to her school is very evident; as is the pride she has in her school and the ethic of on-going care which she says *characterises most relationships* there.

Sue

The researcher's next interview is with Sue, the following day. Sue chose the researcher's house as the venue for their first interview. The researcher worked with Sue briefly as a reliever a couple of years ago and has not seen her since. However, Sue was the first person to suggest that the researcher undertake post-graduate papers in educational administration. Sue completed the Master of Educational Administration degree herself in 1990. Very encouraging of anybody taking the initiative to develop personally and professionally, Sue has shown particular interest in this study.

Sue was the assistant principal, then the deputy principal and, in 1993, was appointed principal of a local co-educational decile three secondary school. Sue is in her late forties, she is married for the second time and has a grown up family. As data will illustrate, Sue's experiences as a principal and as a woman differ, in some respects, from the other five women. This indicates that there is a need for further research into co-educational, women secondary principalships.

Sue's school has over 550 students and was founded during the 1950s. It once had a roll of over 1000 students. Since then, two additional co-educational state secondary schools have opened, directly impacting on the roll of Sue's school which has gradually declined. While Sue has arrested that decline, she appears more threatened by the competition between schools than the other five principals in this study. While Sue responds candidly, she also realises her co-educational status may leave her more vulnerable to later identification.

Sue articulates her feelings and beliefs about leading a co-educational school. She strongly advocates what she believes are the unique benefits of co-education. Sue is extremely proud of what her school offers and her experiences are recounted in an entertaining, albeit thoroughly professional manner. Sue has *had to become a pioneer* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) in many areas of her life and her participation, therefore, adds a special dimension to this study.

Helen

Two days later, the researcher meets Helen. She is a second-time principal, with 15 years experience. Her previous, state secondary girls' school had well over 1,000 students including a high percentage of Maori and Polynesian students. Of the six women, it will be Helen who appears to have most deliberately planned her career from first entering teaching.

Quietly confident and very approachable, Helen's experience in her previous principalship gives her added confidence as a second-time principal at this small, private girls' school. Helen has been here for almost one year. She is used to dealing with unexpected crises, whether of an educational, social, financial or cultural nature. While this school has had a long tradition of academic excellence, Helen believes that there should be *a tighter academic focus*. She wants the staff and parents to *make this their first priority*. Like Rose, Helen is currently co-ordinating the 1999 integration of her school into the state education system.

Like her predecessors, Helen wants to successfully combine the special character of the school's proud traditions, *with the educational demands of the day* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). As an educational leader, Helen wants to make a positive difference in the lives of her students and staff: a difference that may require some educating of parents and staff.

Bev

The following morning, the researcher meets Bev for the first time. Bev has been the principal of her school for nine years. It is a decile six, state girl's secondary school with over 750 students and an impressive tradition spanning more than a century. Like the others, Bev has plenty of self-confidence. She has a quiet air of authority, suggesting a 'no-nonsense' approach to her leadership. Bev's wicked sense of humour, her intuition and her ease of articulating seemingly complex issues in a lucid and entertaining manner characterise her approach to school leadership.

Bev's love for her school is woven into every response. In her early fifties, Bev has never married and she has never, until recently, taken time out from teaching. Her life *is this school* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). However, Bev receives professional and personal support from a circle of very close friends and colleagues and shares her home with the assistant principal, who has been her *very close friend since 1985*. That is when Bev was appointed as deputy principal of her school.

While Bev reflects on her role as a principal, she has the researcher doubled over in laughter one minute, while near to tears in the next. Bev has the ability to transport you; to *re-live* her experiences. She is very candid. She makes no apology for this. She has been diagnosed with a very serious illness. Bev knows that mentioning her condition may identify her, despite her pseudonym. However, she wants to be *up-front* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) about her health and she wants the researcher to specifically mention it. She wants to participate, to offer advice and insight to future educational leadership aspirants. Bev wants to re-live her life and leave her experiences *as a legacy*. This study is indeed timely for her.

After one hour, Bev's secretary enters to remind her that she is giving gifts in assembly. Apologising for having to leave, Bev farewells the researcher and says she is looking forward to their next interview. The researcher leaves Bev's school feeling sad. It seems unfair that such a vital, enthusiastic and intuitive educationalist should become so ill and be faced with the increasing burden of her deteriorating condition. Bev says she feels she still has so much to do and has been given so little time. *I want to prove them all wrong* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) she says, determined to do so.

Jill

Later that day, the researcher meets Jill. As the long-serving principal of a decile nine, Catholic integrated girls' school with around 450 students, Jill welcomes the researcher into her office. After training as a teacher, Jill trained as a Sister of a Catholic religious Order of nuns, when she was 23. Like Helen, Jill is a second-time principal with 18 years experience. She has been principal of this school for 13 years. Single and unmarried, Jill lives with other Sisters at the Convent adjacent to her school. They have become her surrogate family.

As the researcher investigates the reality of being a principal of an integrated Catholic girls' school, Jill draws comparisons between her earlier experience as an *autocratic principal* and her current, *more collaborative role* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98), since the Tomorrow's Schools (Lange, 1988) reforms. Again, an ethic of care and the analogy of Jill's school being one of *learning community* emerge as possible research themes. While the participants clearly differ in their individual manner and personal styles, there are increasingly common values linking their leadership practice.

There are values of care, service, inclusion, integrity, honesty, consistency, collaboration, empowerment, achievement and a place for humour. With each interview revealing another participating 'personality', these values increasingly weave a common thread about the women, defining their emotional leadership investment. Meeting Mary confirms this tentative hypothesis.

Mary

Mary recently moved back to this province, having lived here several years ago. Previously, she was the principal of a small, integrated Anglican girls' school in another provincial part of New Zealand. In her forties, Mary is married and has no family. Mary has the reputation of "getting things going" and "turning things around". Driving through the gates of Mary's decile two, state girls' secondary school, the researcher is immediately aware of a hive of activity.

Students and staff are busy moving in and out of the front office, outside Mary's door. Mary has been "tied up momentarily with a parent". "Is there anything I can get you?" asks one woman, offering the researcher a seat. "Mrs Smith will not be long. She is in a meeting" offers another staff member, courteously. More people walk past. This corridor seems incredibly busy compared with other schools the researcher has visited recently.

Apologising for the delay, Mary ushers the researcher into her office. She commands authority, although not in the traditional, hierarchical sense. She is confident, approachable and friendly but with a professionalism suggesting she is used to dealing with a myriad of situations. Mary has been at this school for only a few weeks. While she is still adjusting, Mary has identified areas needing attention and will soon focus her energy on these. She intends employing the services of a strategic planner, whom she used in her previous school. Before Mary accepted this position she *had to gain the Board of Trustees' commitment to strategic planning* as a necessary step in 'reshaping' the school and *raising student expectations* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

The researcher reflects on the collective energy and commitment of each of the six women. Each one differs in many personal ways. However they are all positive and confident women. Their determination, clear vision, empowering purpose and belief in "making a difference" in their respective schools are common threads linking their leadership practice. The three married women - Rose, Sue and Mary - describe having extremely supportive husbands allowing them to clearly invest a significant amount of energy into their work. Bev, Jill and Helen, as single women, have made their schools their 'life'. They each have hostels attached to their schools. The hostels *increase the many demands on already limited personal time* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Despite their individual 'personal' situations, the six women encourage close relationships within their schools as learning communities. The *love* they have for their schools is contagious, inspiring and emotionally demanding at times. However, not one of the women would wish to be doing anything else given the opportunity.

Life History Approach Adopted

Having completed the first interviews, the researcher felt the need to review the participants' formative years and explore firstly; "When?" these women first wanted to make a positive difference to others and, secondly; "Where?" they learned the values and determination which clearly underpin their leadership practice today. A life-history approach to the second audio-taped interviews, therefore, was considered necessary and adopted by the researcher.

The second interviews were more candid than the first interviews as the women were asked to disclose information about themselves. On-going interaction with the participants resulted in a developing rapport between the 'researcher' and the 'researched'. Both parties were now part of a research partnership exploring common themes.

The women seemed to enjoy recalling and reflecting on childhood influences and in making ‘connections’ between parental expectations and their leadership styles as principals. Data from both interviews, the questionnaire and the research journal are presented, thematically, in four parts: Part One - “Early Experiences”; Part Two - “Teaching Careers”, Part Three - “The Principal’s Role” and Part Four - “A New Right Educational Context”.

PART ONE: EARLY EXPERIENCES

Family Values

The women shared surprisingly similar backgrounds, as illustrated in Figure 4.1 “Origins”. Bev, Sue, Mary and Rose came from rural areas, while Jill and Helen grew up in provincial areas of New Zealand. The women all recall staunchly ethical backgrounds, with parents who were *heavily involved in the church* (Sue, second interview 29/5/98):

You know: “Don’t take the last cake on the plate....always do good unto others....be honest.....always try your best”. You know, those small town rural values: “Honour thy father and thy mother, and obey the law”. “Hard work will get you somewhere”. That was all part of how we lived
(Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Origins

Figure 4.1 “Origins” illustrates the family expectations and values common to all six women. It shows which of the participants grew up in a rural environment and which ones were raised in a provincial area of New Zealand:

Figure 4.1: Origins

Bev, Rose, Sue and Mary

Rural farming community

Rural primary school

Parents valued education

Parents lived by Christian principles and beliefs

Parents opinions valued, strong mother figure and father figures

Close-knit family, emphasis on family activities

Felt capable but not super intelligent

Provincial city

Provincial primary school

Helen and Jill

Developing Determination

As children and as teenagers, the women were encouraged and expected to *have a go* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98) at various activities. Coming from rural districts, Bev, Mary, Sue and Rose were more restricted as to what they could do. However, Jill and Helen were more fortunate. There was the expectation for all of them that *if you started something then you should ‘stick’ at it. We weren’t allowed to pull out* (Helen first interview, 26/3/98). Jill remembers her parents provided *the opportunity and encouragement* to try many activities. *There was an ethic in our family that you persevered with things.* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98):

Gender And Parental Encouragement

Five of the women had grown up in the company of a brother, or brothers. However, they recall being treated equally by both parents. As young girls, the women did not feel less capable, than their brother(s) or other boys. Sue had no brothers, being one of five girls *and the daughter of a policeman* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98). She *always got on well with boys and was not a frilly person. Sue thought girls were a bit mad* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Jill always felt *the same as my brothers* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98). Her father was an engineer. *He took an interest in me being around the garage. He would spend time showing me how things worked, the same as he would the boys* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98). Helen was encouraged to *attain the top of a profession* as her brothers had been (Helen, second interview 27/4/98).

Mary's mother looked for opportunities to extend her, saying *you seem to talk a lot, so I think speech would be your thing!* (Mary, second interview, 6/4/98). However, Mary's father believed that *children should be seen and not heard* and that she had *rather too much to say* at times (Mary, second interview, 6/4/98). Rose did not specifically view gender as an issue, although *it was assumed that my brother would probably farm [the family farm] and he did* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98).

Families and a "Sense of Belonging"

The six women recall being raised in close-knit families, respecting both parents and feeling a sense of belonging. Jill's family would *picnic and go blackberrying together. There was a real quality in my family that you probably didn't always find in other families* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98).

The women's parents cared about them and their *overall development* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98). Mary's family *talked about things and had books. Our parents took us all over New Zealand, when some people had hardly been to Hamilton* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98).

The women's parental expectations during childhood were very similar. Their 'role in the world' and their 'sense of self' was shaped by these. Any parental advice, about their behaviour towards, others later *had a significant impact* (Bev, second interview 14/5/98) on their leadership practice as principals. Values of fairness, respect, care and concern were fundamental to their upbringing. Figure 4.2: "Shared Values and Parental Expectations" illustrates parental 'catch-phases', recalled by the participants:

Figure 4.2 Shared Values and Parental Expectations

Sue

“Don’t take the last cake on the plate”
“Always do good unto others”
“Be Honest”
“Obey the law”(second interview, 29/5/98).

Helen

“Always do your best”
“Always stick with things”
“Work hard to attain the top”
(first interview, 27/4/98).

Mary

“You have to prove yourself”
“Be fair”
(second interview, 3/6/98).

Bev

“Work hard”
“Maintain high standards”
“Help others”
(first interview, 27/3/98).

Rose

“You’ll have a good education”
“Be good”
“Work well”
(second interview, 11/6/98).

Jill

“Try everything”
“Stick with things”
“Help others”
(second interview, 4/6/98).

An Ethic Of Care

At Jill’s school, *you’d collect for missionary endeavours* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98). If Duke of Edinburgh had been there at that time *I would have been in boots and all!*. Mary’s rural primary school had specifically *encouraged older children to care for the little ones*. (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98). Bev can remember times when she thought things were unjust....*or things that happened that weren’t right. Things have got to be fair*. (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Fathers As Authority Figures

The women viewed their fathers with respect and saw them as having authority, both in the context of the family and in the community. Helen's father was working at a senior level *in the fire service* (Helen, telephone conversation, 3/9/98). Sue's father was *a policeman* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98). Jill's father was *an engineer* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98). Mary, Rose and Bev's fathers were farmers. Rose's father also *went to War* for three years (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98).

Mary grew up often feeling that her father disapproved of her as a child, saying that she was *precocious* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98). It, therefore, was particularly important to Mary that her father approved of her as an adult. There was probably a connection between her father's impression of her and her subconscious motivation to *do a good job* and achieve. However, it was not until Mary was 25 that she *felt totally comfortable with the relationship* [with her father] (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98).

Mothers As Early Role Models

The women spoke highly of their mothers and their mothers' influence on their developing 'sense of self'. With the exception of Mary's mother (at age 73), none had attended university. Nevertheless, all six women believed their mothers were highly intelligent and, in another time, *would certainly have become a professional* (Sue, second interview, 24/3/98).

At 73, Mary's mother graduated with a Bachelor of Arts in History, from Massey University. Mary recalls being *pushed quite hard* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98) by her mother while she was growing up. She would say "But you haven't proved yourself yet!". Mary says her mother always made *a differentiation between academic learning and putting it into practice* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98).

Jill's mother *achieved University Entrance in the 1920s at a time when girls hardly ever completed secondary education*. Her mother's attitude *and enthusiasm rubbed off* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). Other women, on both sides of Jill's family, have also been *very strong role models* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98). Her grandmother came out to New Zealand on the first French immigrant ship to Nelson. *She was only 16 and she was alone* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98).

Sue's mother is *85 on the outside and 25 on the inside* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98). Like Mary and Jill, Sue believes that her mother is *really very intelligent* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98). Although they are reasonably close, their relationship has not been a demonstrative and loving one. Sue has *always resented* the way in which her mother tells others how well Sue is doing but is not good at telling her. Sue has used that as a model and *tried really hard with my own kids to tell them how proud I am of them*. (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98) because her mother was so 'stand-offish'.

When Rose's father went to World War II, her mother ran three farms. They had farm managers on them but her mother *took care of everything. She had difficult moments with men who hadn't gone away, thinking that she might 'need' something* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98). Bev's mother was a great role model but particularly in regard to *her respect for education* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98). She was *passionate about education. She pushed us out in our prams, as babies, with books propped up at the end of them!* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98).

Helen's mother was also *extremely capable* (Helen, telephone conversation, 3/9/98). She ran a dress-making business from home for many years. In 1929, Helen's mother was credited with being *the first woman to be the owner/driver of a motor car in her home town* (Helen, telephone conversation, 3/9/98).

Attitudes About Academic Ability And Attending University

For Sue, Rose, Bev and Mary coming from rural districts to begin secondary education *was a cultural shock* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98). They felt *reasonably capable* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98), however none was totally sure of her ability or had seriously planned to eventually attend university. Academically, Sue felt *second rate* and *did not feel confident* about her ability (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98). It wasn't until her thirties that Sue completed a Bachelor of Arts degree and recalls that *it wasn't until I opened the envelope in my final year to see all those A's, that I felt OK!*

Mary had no idea about her academic ability until she was *placed in the top class* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98) at high school. From that moment on, her mother said "You will go to University". Before that, her parents thought *I was precocious*. Being qualified at something meant freedom and *a ticket out of the area* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98).

It was not until the end of her Form Seven year that Rose was encouraged to go to university by the headmistress of her boarding school: *Until then it had never crossed my mind* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98). However, she wanted to *have a geographical break from boarding school days* [in Wellington], later completing a Bachelor of Science at Otago [University] (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98).

Summary

Part One provides an overview of the way in which family socialisation and key influences impacted on the six principals' early lives, their values and their view of 'their role and responsibility' in society. Having been raised by parents who expected them to persevere with things, all six women shared a determination to do their best in every pursuit. They share strong and intelligent mothers as role models. Their fathers were viewed with fond memories and respect as 'head' of the family, in a patriarchal, traditional sense. Fathers were also regarded as authority figures. They did not encounter any gender prejudice within their own families and did not consider gender a barrier in their early lives. All six women, therefore, were socialised to rise to accept challenges and new opportunities coming their way and did this at various stages in their professional development.

PART TWO : TEACHING CAREERS

Factors Influencing Career Choice

Entering teaching had been *an underlying parental expectation* for Sue and viewed by her parents as *a safe, solid profession* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Going to university and teacher training had always been Bev's *ultimate goal* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98). She couldn't wait to get her own classroom to *help children learn* and to *have the opportunity to be creative and innovative* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98).

Having completed a Bachelor of Science degree, Rose initially planned to do research. However, she went supply teaching overseas and *liked working with young people* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98), later making the decision to teach.

As a very young child, Jill had *always wanted to teach* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

For Mary, teaching was *a convenient job for putting down and picking up* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98). She chose teaching *because it was easy and she lacked the confidence* to do Law.

Helen *always wanted to be a principal* and to exercise leadership and *attain the top of my profession* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Professional Qualifications On Entering Teaching

When Bev went to university, with the aim of becoming a teacher, her bachelor's degree was *the expected qualification*. At the time Bev *didn't feel it was necessary to get a master's degree and couldn't wait to have my own classroom* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98). Sue's Trained Teacher's Certificate represented a special achievement for her, being *the first person from my high school to go to Teachers College* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Jill completed one year of primary teaching before realising that *it wasn't what I wanted to do, so I worked for Inland Revenue to gain the money I needed for secondary teacher's college* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). Over the page, Table 4.1 illustrates the respective qualifications held by the six participants on entering teaching:

Table 4.1 Professional Qualifications On Entering Teaching

<i>Bev</i>	<i>Sue</i>	<i>Mary</i>
Bachelor of Arts degree Dip. Tchg	TTC	Bachelor of Arts degree Dip. Tchg
<i>Helen</i>	<i>Jill</i>	<i>Rose</i>
Bachelor of Science Dip. Tchg	Bachelor of Arts degree Dip. Tchg	Bachelor Of Science Dip. Tchg

KEY: Dip. Tchg - Diploma of Teaching
TTC - Trained Teachers' Certificate

Professional Qualifications After Entering Teaching

As a deputy principal in 1986, Bev wanted the challenge of *increasing my qualifications by completing a diploma*, through Massey University, in *Educational Administration*. *It shaped my thinking and reinforced everything I already knew about people management and schools* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

After raising her family, Sue was determined to catch up *with others who had the same length of service and qualifications but who were getting a lot more than me* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). Sue was so encouraged by the A's she received in her Bachelor of Arts degree that she *enrolled in the first two papers of an extramural masters*, completing it in 1990. Table 4.2 illustrates the additional qualifications gained by Bev, Sue, Helen and Jill.

Jill has always placed a personal priority on professional development. She completed her masters degree while training to be a *Sister of my [the religious] Order* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). In 1994, Jill *spent nine months in Sydney completing a Diploma in Mission Studies*. Helen added a *JP and the NZIM* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98) to her Bachelor of Science degree while she was the principal of a large state secondary school.

Table 4.2 Professional Qualifications Completed After Entering Teaching

<i>Bev</i>	<i>Sue</i>	<i>Mary</i>
Dip. Ed.Admin	Bachelor of Arts degree	Nil
	M.Ed.Admin	
<i>Helen</i>	<i>Jill</i>	<i>Rose</i>
Justice of the Peace	Master of Arts degree	Nil
NZIM	Dip. Mission Studies	

KEY: **Dip. Ed. Admin** - Diploma of Educational Administration.

M.Ed.Admin - Master of Educational Administration.

NZIM - Member of the New Zealand Institute of Management.

Dip. Mission Studies – Diploma of Mission Studies.

Career Steps Plotted

While the teaching experiences of the six women are similar, they were shaped by differing personal circumstances. Over time, these circumstances impacted on decisions made to either remain in positions, leave teaching or to progress further up the career ladder. Table 4.3 plots the steps taken by the six participants:

Table 4.3 Career Steps Plotted

BLOCK CAPITALS indicate CIRCUMSTANCES resulting in periods of time taken 'out' of teaching. Mary has had no breaks from teaching.

<i>Bev</i>	<i>Sue</i>	<i>Mary</i>
Assistant Teacher	Assistant teacher	Assistant teacher
Careers Advisor	MOTHERHOOD	Dean
Head of Department	Dean	Head of Department
Assistant Principal	Assistant Principal	Head of House
Deputy Principal	Deputy Principal	Assistant Principal
Principal	Principal	Principal
ILL HEALTH		Principal
<i>Helen</i>	<i>Jill</i>	<i>Rose</i>
Assistant Teacher	Assistant Teacher	Assistant teacher
TRAVEL	TRAINED AS SISTER	MOTHERHOOD
Head of Department	Management role in IRD	Head of Department
Assistant Principal	Principal	Dean
Deputy Principal	HEAD OF N.Z.ORDER	Deputy Principal
Principal	Principal	Principal
Principal	TRAVEL/STUDY	

Support Networks

The women received varying levels of encouragement and support from friends, family and colleagues during their professional lives. The three married principals (Sue, Mary and Rose) enjoy having *a very supportive husband* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98) which facilitates their respective workloads, albeit from a domestic perspective.

Retrospectively, however, this was not the case for Sue during her first marriage, when her children were very small. At that time, Sue resented being stuck on a farm and *totally immobilised* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). Her husband was a fourth generation farmer. *From the moment I first entered teaching, I felt I couldn't move* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). Their marriage broke up shortly before Sue received a study award to finish her Bachelor of Arts degree. In complete contrast, Sue gets *huge support* from her second husband. *All sorts. He's totally understanding.* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

As three single, unmarried women, Jill, Helen and Bev depend on emotional support from members of their families, friends and occasionally colleagues. Jill receives support *from the Sisters* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) in her Catholic community.

Helen's support comes from her Board Chair *and relatives* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). *Yesterday, I drove out to her [the Board Chair's] farm and stayed on for dinner. It's good to have a break from being here* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Bev's support, especially since her illness, comes from her parents, *our [new] deputy principal and my flatmate [the assistant principal]* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Rose's husband became an *advocate of teachers* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). Now retired, her husband cooks and does a lot of domestic duties, including all of the gardening. *That means I don't have a lot of juggling to do* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). When their children were young, Rose's parents were very supportive, caring for her son on their farm *during extended parts of the school holidays*.

Committed to becoming a principal, Helen was professionally *given opportunities and responsibilities*. Former male principals and colleagues gave her her 'wings' (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). She now sees that as *a very important part of the role [as principal]* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

The Impact of Marriage and Children

Sue felt *totally immobilised* during her first marriage. When children arrived she stopped teaching but *worked part-time* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98), while her children were growing up. She *constantly felt loneliness* during the study, *juggling kids and marriage and career* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Also married to a farmer, Rose made a conscious decision to *focus on being a "supermum"* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98) which she did for twelve years. Rose never resented giving up work during those years.

Mary has been married twice. However, she has no children and has never felt the need to have a break from teaching. Like Sue's second husband, Mary's second husband is teacher and is *very supportive of my role* [as a principal] (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Surrogate Families

Jill, Bev and Helen are 'single' and have never married. As a Sister, Jill is 'married' to her Convent and religious Order. Her family *are the Sisters* [of the Order] (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). Bev shares her home with her assistant principal. They have been *very close friends* for years (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Helen also feels the importance of maintaining connections *with family nearby* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Jill, Bev and Helen have hostels attached to their schools and, therefore, are '*on call*' *seven days a week* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Realising the significance of extended opportunities to 'model attitudes', these women deliberately play an active part in hostel activities most weekends. *The girls see me in my garden and [they] see me as a whole person. That's very important* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). It is important to [get to] *know the girls on all levels* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) and for them to get to know the principal [in various situations].

Positive And Negative Aspects Of Teaching As A Career

The participants frequently identified positive and negative aspects of teaching, during both taped interviews. The most common responses are listed in Table 4.4 (over the page), with the number of responses indicated (in brackets):

Table 4.4 Positive And Negative Aspects Of Teaching As A Career

<i>Positive Aspects</i>	<i>Negative Aspects</i>
Children's learning (6)	Stress (6)
Empowering/Developing others (6)	Less privacy (6)
Sharing knowledge (5)	School competition (5)
New professional opportunities (5)	Health problems (4)
Networking with others (3)	Less personal time (6)
Opportunities for advancement (4)	Less energy (6)
Transformative aspects of education (3)	Eroding social standards (6)
Challenging and exciting (3)	Occasional loneliness (4)
It's <i>your</i> vision (4)	Administrivia (4)
Always fulfilling (6)	Maintaining standards (3)

Developing An Appetite For Advancement

Five of the six principals had not deliberately planned a linear "career". However, they were each confronted with a new challenge at a particular stage in their professional lives. This *challenge for self-development* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98), or advancement, was sometimes suddenly imposed. For example, Bev's HOD *died suddenly*, hoping that she would take over his department. Bev *accepted the challenge and grew* [in the role]:

I had had no management training, as such. I don't buy into any of that advice about....you know....you haven't been trained in 'management'. It's a load of old cobblers!! Although there's lots to be learned, you can learn on the job and grow with it (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Rose admits that, at some point, she must have turned into *an opportunist*. (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). She was also fatalistic. *If something didn't work out... then it wasn't meant to be. Another door would open* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Sue's motivation to advance in education dramatically increased when she returned to teaching, after raising her family. Sue was *horrified to find people* [with the same service and qualification] *getting quite a lot more. I knew I would have to increase my qualifications* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Sue immediately started study towards a Bachelor of Arts degree. When she had completed it, *I applied for two A.P jobs and was offered both.* Sue later completed an *extramural M.Ed.Admin* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) while being an assistant principal, at a co-educational secondary school, during the day.

Mary's first 'break' occurred when she was a Year Four teacher. She was asked to *sort out some 4th Form options that grew into a 4th Form Dean's position* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). Later, her HOD left and Mary *stepped straight in* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Always wanting to *move up the ladder* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98), Helen saw two positions advertised for Senior Mistress/Master and Deputy Principal at a brand new secondary school, in the same town as she was considering moving her elderly mother to, to be nearer her family. However, due to former Department of Education 'criteria', Helen had to work out her five years as an assistant teacher, *before getting any credit for doing the job* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

After being a successful Head of Department for five years, Bev also felt the need for a greater challenge. She had such ideals about improving education and making her 'mark'. However, while she was appointed the assistant principal of a co-educational secondary school out of 33 applicants, Bev *only lasted two years* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98):

There was no joy in it. Some days felt like a war zone and I began to lose interest in working in co-education any longer. I waited for a girls' school with good academic standards, pride of community and a place for tradition. I was appointed to the deputy principal's position [here] in 1985.

Instead of carving out her own destiny, as the others five participants have done, Jill was *'detailed off' to do the [principal's] job* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) by the Catholic Church. *It was a huge leap. I was young for that sort of job.* However, Jill became a very successful principal for nine years and *the roll grew from 375 to 575.* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Being the assistant principal of a co-educational school, Mary thought, *would be the pinnacle of my career* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). However, she was very disillusioned, often feeling like *the 'wife', looking after the staff welfare*. Being a deputy principal didn't appeal, so Mary became the principal of a small, integrated provincial girls' school. However, *it's a complete myth that small schools are easier* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). Mary became *chief disciplinarian; chief guidance counsellor; dean; career's advisor; [and was] responsible for the boarding house seven days a week, 24 hours a day!* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98).

Significant Professional Milestones

When asked to identify really significant times in their professional development, the six women described being *tasked with specific duties* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98) and *rising to new challenges* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Professional post-graduate study and entry into senior management roles were also considered important milestones. The most important period of personal development identified by each of the six women is underlined and *in italics*, outlined in Table 4.5:

Table 4.5 Significant Professional Milestones

<i>Helen</i>	<i>Sue</i>	<i>Mary</i>	<i>Jill</i>	<i>Rose</i>	<i>Bev</i>
HOD	Deaning	Head/House	<u><i>Sister</i></u>	Opportunities	HOD
SM	<u><i>MEdAdmin</i></u>	Deaning	IRD	Deaning	AP
DP	AP	AP	Masters	<u><i>DP</i></u>	DP
<u><i>Principal</i></u>	DP	<u><i>Principal</i></u>	Principal	Principal	<u><i>DipEdAdmin</i></u>
Principal	Principal	Principal	Principal	Principal	Principal

Key

HOD - Head Of Department

IRD - Inland Revenue Department

Masters - Master's Degree

AP - Assistant Principal

Dip EdAdmin - Diploma Of Educational Administration

Deaning -(Level) Dean

DP - Deputy Principal

SM - Senior Mistress

Sister / Religious Order

Summary

Part Two illustrates that only Jill, Helen and Bev entered teaching with a passion to make it their life career. Rose made a later decision to enter teaching, preferring it to research *when supply teaching overseas* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). Sue's parents believed it was *a safe and solid profession* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98), while Mary *lacked the confidence to do Law* at university. She believed that teaching *would a good job for picking up and putting down* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98) if she had a family.

Rose and Sue, the only 'mothers' in this study, both left teaching to raise families. However, they had differing experiences. Rose relished the idea of becoming a "*supermum*" (Rose, first interview, 11/6/98), while Sue resented her *lack of mobility* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). Jill also spent several periods away from teaching, *working in a management role* [outside education] and later *training as a Sister* [of her religious Order], before being *detailed off to become a principal* [at the young age of 29] (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Helen *wanted to be a principal* from day one. After three years as an assistant, she travelled to *broaden her horizons* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98) for two years. While Helen planned to gain experience in as many differing school contexts as she could, her decision to enter a private school, after only three years as an assistant in the state system, cost her 'real time' when she sought an assistant principal's position in a new, co-educational state school. She had no choice but to *work out my time* [as an assistant] *while doing the AP's job* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). Years later, Helen accepted a Woolf Fisher study award, travelling again for three months overseas, in an effort to improve her professional practice.

Only Bev and Mary had uninterrupted, *linear* progression towards their principalships. Bev had *always wanted to teach*, knowing that education *could be a whole lot better* than her own experience (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). However, neither woman entered teaching with the specific aim of becoming a principal. Regardless of their individual journeys, all of the women have gathered valuable experience, determination, a clear academic vision, supported by strong leadership values of care, concern, community and self-belief.

These women were recognised and promoted because they had been *first and foremost an excellent teacher* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). They were also committed to raising expectations; developing and empowering staff to *step outside the normal pattern expected of secondary teachers* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) and have recognised others *taking initiative* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Part Three examines the principal's role through the eyes of six women, as principals in 1998.

PART THREE : THE PRINCIPAL'S ROLE

Introduction

The researcher used the first interviews to explore aspects of school leadership with each of the participants. The scope of their role, workloads, leadership initiatives and formal power, to improve teaching and learning, were investigated and are presented here. Data presented here are analysed in Chapter Five.

Stepping Into The Principal's Shoes

Sue's first task as principal of the school, where she had been promoted from assistant to deputy principal in four years, was *focusing on paperwork* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98):

We had to go back and rewrite the charter and all the policies. We changed the timetable too. It was my opinion that we had to get the infrastructure right before we could get ahead with the curriculum. I also flattened the management structure, assisting more staff to get both internal and external promotions.

Helen decided to spend her first year as a second-time principal assessing her new environment before making changes. *You'll [soon] see some changes here* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). She aims *to break the impression that this school is elitist and snobby*.

After only a few weeks on the job, Mary has *not made any really big decisions* at her new school. However, the Mission Statement has not been looked at since 1989 and she has identified *areas really in need of attention* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98):

We're too accommodating. Kids can achieve extraordinary things if we raise their expectations. We're a decile two school. So, unless we make sure that our kids are really doing their best, we won't break the cycle.

Empowering Staff

Empowerment was one of the most important dimensions of the participants' roles. All six women referred to the immense satisfaction gained from developing their staff and seeing them promoted. Sue's *flat management structure* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98), creates an opportunity for staff to briefly 'join' her senior management team of five managers. This approach has encouraged increased staff motivation at her school. *It opens people eyes when they work in the main corridor. They see the school differently.* Sue's staff has become more supportive of her leadership initiatives and *it gives them a 'leg-up' for promotion* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). Sue's philosophy of people management is looking at staff and identifying, or creating, contexts in which she can place people to develop their skills and talents.

Executive Decisions Versus Consultation

Some days, Sue makes executive decisions by deliberately circumnavigating staff input *because I am the boss* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). While usually collaborative, Helen also recognises that *the buck stops here* and is not afraid to make hard decisions and live with them. *I'm big enough that if it proves to be wrong I say "Let's look at it again"*. Helen's hands-on experience has provided her with the *copying mechanisms* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Rose is *responsible for everything* in her school. However, she prefers to *consult the appropriate people*. If decision-making can be shared, *I share it* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). Bev also describes herself as collaborative and consultative. *I make decisions in consultation with groups...SMTs, HODs, the Curriculum Committee for example.* She says no one should ever enter her school without working in a collaborative way. However:

There are times when I have to make executive decisions and I do....and I'm quite comfortable about that. In fact, I believe there is still a place for the principal to exercise her decision-making. Consultation can only go so far. If you are being paid to lead, then lead (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Due to ill health, Bev has shared things that she *wouldn't normally have shared* and her deputy *has had her first year often being acting principal*. (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

The women enjoyed the autonomy of becoming a principal and the opportunity to be creative and to influence school culture and empower staff. Personal and professional attributes, considered fundamental to being a successful principal, are listed in Figure 4.3 on the following page:

Figure 4.3 Preparation For Being A Principal

	<i>Personal Attributes</i>	<i>Professional Attributes</i>
Rose	<i>Like people Experience</i>	<i>Interest in business and management (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98)</i>
Sue	<i>Determination Experience Know everything</i>	<i>Be an excellent teacher/ business savvy Don't be AP, DP, boss in same school Be 'Jack of all Trades' M.EdAdmin shaped my thinking. (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).</i>
Bev	<i>Love working with children Experience of 'life'</i>	<i>Extramural, post-graduate work [helps with] thinking about policies and the <u>whole</u> school (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).</i>
Helen	<i>Learn on <u>every</u> job Mobility, move around Travel the world Broaden your horizons</i>	<i>Watch superiors closely to learn Papers in educational administration Wide experience of school types (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).</i>
Mary	<i>Understand people Have vision</i>	<i>Be a dean. It's the most excellent stepping stone. Strategic planning ability is a must. (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).</i>
Jill	<i>Have a love of learning and love young people</i>	<i>Vitality, enthusiasm and excellence of teaching, high standards (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).</i>

Empathy and Communication

Common leadership values identified included 'empathy' and 'open, timely communication' with staff and the school community. *Staff and parents need to feel included in the loop* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). *Staff feel valued when kept well informed* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). Mary sees a major part of her job as being a people manager and is *constantly looking for clues and signs from staff*:

I spend a lot of time in the staffroom, at intervals and at lunchtimes. I have a theory of educational management quite out of sync with some others. I am the 'ultimate form teacher'. My form is the staff. I can't take responsibility for all of our 590 girls but, if I can look after the staff really well and they walk out of staff briefing with a smile on their face, then the kids will have a good day!

(Mary, first interview, 6/4/98)

Mary will *always support staff to the "nth" degree publicly*. Although behind closed doors, if a staff member has done something reprehensible, Mary has no qualms about telling them *they've been a bloody idiot* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Effective and timely communication is important to all six women and fundamental to being an effective principal. *It's very important to give good feedback....the girls and the staff have to feel valued* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Rose is always direct and says that staff are probably looking for positive feedback *and appreciate a sense of humour* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). If any of her staff are unhappy Rose likes to *face it and deal with it*. Ideally, she wants them *to feel valued and to be loyal members of a team*, to love their jobs and to feel fulfilled. Dealing with concerns *rather than burning up energy muttering about it and grizzling and grumbling to no effect* Rose feels is key to improving staff relationships (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Leadership Lenses

The six women summarised their 'style' of leadership, outlined in Figure 4.5 over the page:

Figure 4.4 Leadership Lenses

Jill

*Regular opportunities
to build community.*

Whole school activities

(Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Bev

*Be the number one practitioner
and excellent grasp of the curriculum*

(Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Mary

Doing a good job.

Going that extra mile

(Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Sue

Holding the "Taonga".

Developing and promoting staff.

Asking "How can I make it better?"

(Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Helen

Focus on "teamwork".

The buck stops here.

Focus on improvement

(Helen, first interview, 26/3/98)

Rose

Taking "full responsibility".

Giving lots of positive feedback.

Staff feel valued

(Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Senior Management Dynamics

Many of the educational changes introduced between 1989 and 1996 increased principals' responsibilities and workloads significantly in many ways. The increased 'autonomy' of the position, the 'new curriculum', 'demands of new agencies', increased 'accountability to school boards' and more 'complex managerial tasks' are just some of the areas where principals' workloads have increased.

Additional support, from deputy principals and assistant principals, within the new hierarchy of 'senior management teams' (SMT's) is vital to school leadership. More often than not, interpersonal dynamics can impact on how successful a senior management team will be. With the exception of Helen, at the time of our interviews all participants were experiencing a high level of support from their senior management teams. They would often use them as *sounding boards* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) for ideas or frustrations.

Sue knows that she can *trust* [her] *people* and believes they respect confidentiality and plans shared. *I couldn't operate and I don't see how any other principal could operate without some sort of support team. We're up to four people now. I don't see how others can do it with only an AP and a DP* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Helen feels that *staff see a hierarchy there. I think it's very important that the top three do work very closely. Once a decision has been made, we support one another and present a 'united front'*. (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). Bev also believes there are benefits of having a 'top three':

I couldn't go flat management. I just couldn't bear it. We've got a mixture of hierarchical levels of control but also a consultative, collaborative style. We trust each other and we like each others company. You work at those relationships too, so that they're right. I can't imagine what it would be like without that. Although I know there are many schools without that level of trust between the top three (Bev, first interview, 14/5/98).

Mary says that *you don't need to be everything yourself*. Her deputy principal is a detail person. *He's a number-cruncher*. Mary's assistant principal is very good at writing *and putting together cases for things* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). They have complimentary strengths. *We are 'of like minds'* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98) working within a very consultative and inclusive decision-making process.

Building Networks

Like Helen, Bev believes a new principal *would be very unwise to immediately trust all of their staff* and to trust all of their community. Instead, she would *take time over building your networks and how you will share information*. You work for a few years, until mutual trust is established (Bev, first interview, 14/5/98). Gradually, Bev has become *more and more open* with her senior management team:

When you start off, you worry about what people might do with information. You perhaps tend to be a little more guarded with information. I don't worry about that now. The level of trust here is high.

Benchmarks And Expectations

As school leaders, principals are the most publicly visible role models for the expected standards in their schools. They are the benchmarks by which their staff, students and parents will inevitably measure their school. If they let their personal standards slip, their schools may also gradually ease towards mediocrity. Not only academically pressured, principals are under increasing pressure socially, fighting media-enhanced images of what is acceptable behaviour for teenagers today.

Jill admits to being *a bit of a perfectionist* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). She is *constantly looking for new ideas and new ways* of doing things. She believes there is always room for improvement and likes *building on earlier ideas and rituals*, rather than starting a new look. Jill steps in *where angels fear to tread*, setting the expectations, knowing [the students] won't follow her expectations one hundred percent, however she knows that *they're glad that there's somebody setting them* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Sue wants to *make a difference*. Sue's vision is:

That for five years I could say that not one of my students ever ran foul of the law, or ended up in jail. I would like to be able to say that all the students in my school looked back, and said "That school gave me something. That school facilitated my entry into the world. That's the bottom line!" (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Rituals and Routines

Century-old traditions characterise five of the schools in this study. While rituals and developing school culture are very important to all six women, Sue's school is comparatively younger. Established in the 1950's, she admits to *finding it difficult to compete with the traditional aspects in the other more established schools*. Her school has *soul* and a strong school culture and *tradition develops, given time* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Consensus rituals play an important role in Bev's educational leadership. She is a strong advocate for single sex education feeling that *many coed schools shed everything that was traditional* [during the 1970's] and *the baby was thrown out with the bath water. They have no soul* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Bev believes that co-education promotes fondness but *not deep attachment*, as in her school:

There are some really lovely rituals.... We celebrate the first principal and the girls get a biro. We remember the years 1884 - 1998 and there's a chocolate bar, or something and a special song. The Old Girls' come to assembly and we cut a 'Founder's Day' cake. There's also the Gift Service at the end of the year; a major prizegiving; school singing; the Old Girls' Association and the beginning and end-of-term hymn, the School Song.

Jill clearly remembers the *imprinting of rituals* in her early education and recalls many celebrations and traditions. *If you had been there eight years, you did it eight times. That's a lot of imprinting* and some students went right through from J1 to Form 7, so they would have been there for 13 years (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

As the principal of her 'old' school, Jill has preserved and guarded all of the old school traditions, except for reinstating the school song *because the music teachers were modern and didn't like the music and the words and wouldn't teach it* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). Jill now has a new music teacher and, almost as part of his contract, told him that *he had to get that school song back for me*. Jill believes that the school song should never have been let go. But there were different personalities who did not place that as a value, or as a priority. *It's an example of the way that I work. The 'mindset'* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Power Shared is Power Gained

As leaders, the women viewed 'formal' power as *a resource to share with others* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/97). Principals have the responsibility *to use their formal power to develop their people for promotion* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). In the relatively short time that she has been at her school, Rose has identified many staff who she knew *would respond to extra responsibility* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). She says that her staff are motivated by her vote of confidence: *"she thinks it's a strength of mine". It's not a chance thing. Formal power should be used well* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98):

Sue believes her formal power *has to be earned*, but that there is *freedom in having that formal power*, which her staff invest in her. Sue's power comes, firstly, from having a global knowledge *of the system, buildings, phones, the curriculum, special education services, gas and what's happening globally and nationally*. Secondly, Sue has power because she has had children *and I can sit down and just talk to them*. (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

As a 'servant-leader', Bev sees formal power as *energy given within a context*. Educational leadership for Bev, therefore, is *devoting that energy to the institution* as the leader. The principal's responsibility is to make the most of their formal power. *Power must be invested into the school*. It is part of her school's culture. The girls are encouraged to achieve and to serve. *They'll leave here and get jobs....they'll raise families, but they'll also serve the community* (Bev, first interview, 14/5/98).

Sue feels staff must be *proactive* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). *I have told my staff "If you don't do it yourself and you don't decide yourself, then power moves upwards"*. Sue is totally supportive of staff who *get on with it*, who use their initiative *to deliver the goods*; those people who have the good ideas, who want to try new things. Giving people power and *empowerment is really important* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). Staff who feel 'powerless' *can be invigorated* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98) when given power:

There was one staff member recently who, the year before he retired, I promoted to Seventh Form Dean. A previous principal said to me "what have you got him on, what have you done to him?". He looked ten years younger and was one of the best deans we'd ever had! He felt completely different about his job because he had some power. He retired on a real high!.

To get the best performance from her staff, Bev uses professional development and performance management (Bev, first interview, 14/5/98):

Most of the time, I feel that most of my staff are happy to be here. If they're unhappy....is it the subject they're teaching?. Do they need a change?. They may need a new challenge...deaning, a PR? If, however, they're still not happy, then they should be on their way. Kids deserve a happy person in the classroom.

Like the other women, as employers, Bev *can only help as best I can, but the school has an increasing role in pastoral care, as other agencies play a decreasing role* (Bev, first interview, 14/5/98).

Creating Ownership Through Community

Central to the women's educational leadership was the metaphor of 'community' to describe their schools. The bonds between members of the six schools were *felt* and not contractual. Characterising the six leadership styles was the underlying expectation of continuous improvement, innovation and finding a new ways of strengthening school culture. Figure 4.5 illustrates why the women develop community in their schools and how.

Figure 4.5 Benefits of Developing Ownership And Community

WHY BUILD COMMUNITY?

Ownership builds responsibility and action.
(Bev, first interview, 27/3/98)

People like being part of a bigger 'whole'.

People achieve when they want to be here

Creates pride in the school

(Bev, first interview, 14/5/98).

Girls who enjoy education, go further

(Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Giving responsibility creates ownership development (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Community builds strong school culture

(Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

HOW?

Involve staff and students

(Mary, first interview, 6/4/98)

Include staff in decisions

(Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Don't put one person on a pedestal

Work as a team

(Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Identify areas for staff

(Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Consensus Rituals

(Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Response To Feminism And Feminist Leadership Theory

When asked how they felt about feminism and feminist leadership theory, the participants' responses were mixed. While there was a general dislike of the label "feminism", it was evident that many feminist principles were already integrated into their daily leadership practice. Bev was the first participant questioned on the topic of feminism. She admits she *can't sit easily with the label* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98):

I can't sit easily with any label of any kind really. In my mid thirties there was a time when I was comfortable with the idea of feminism. It coincided with the 1974 Women's Conference and stirrings in New Zealand affirming women's abilities. I identified with that very much.

It was mainly Bev who, as a teacher, could piece together personal experience in co-educational schools and, as a student too, felt that there were a lot of opportunities denied women. Her experience of applying for a mortgage and being turned down, *as I didn't have a male guarantor* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98), was one time she would have called herself a feminist. *I took quite decisive action and left the area.* Bev became concerned about *the loss of female talent and potential* (Bev, second interview 14/5/98). While she probably did have a 'hot head' period, Bev is more 'pro-women' now. *I'm glad there were feminists who challenged the status quo* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98).

Helen clearly dislikes the 'feminist' label. It makes her *cringe* (Helen, second interview, 27/4/98). *When I talked to them [feminists] about my earlier years and how supportive the men had been to me they would say it was patronising! But it wasn't. Those men were very supportive* (Helen, second interview, 27/4/98).

Sue admits to having *some [feminist] issues to face* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98) when her son was five and she was looking at full-time work. *It was my generation that thought they had to have the career and keep the cake tins full. That's why so many of us were divorced.* It is a *well-dead issue* for Sue and for a lot of the young women at her school. *The ethos of the day allows them to do their thing* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Rose believes that areas, that are more male-defined *like engineering*, still remain. Rose encouraged girls at her school who wanted to learn car maintenance, to be independent *and not dependent on men to do "men's jobs"* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98).

Mary considers feminism out-dated. *I am not a feminist, but it was extremely appropriate at the time.* She describes a personal experience:

I once had an HOD, who said he wouldn't bother speaking to me until term two, because young female teachers "hardly ever lasted past the first term". I could have cried but I thought "Bugger you. I'll prove you wrong!"
(Mary, second interview, 3/6/98).

While she has had a lot of 'male' support, Helen admits that men can be different. *We often used to say to one another at principals' conferences "It's all a power game - it's all one-up-man-ship!"* (Helen, second interview, 27/4/98).

Modelling Attitudes

The six participants feel the responsibility to lead by example; in their behaviour, in their dress and in their professional development. Modelling attitudes is an extension of their personal values and beliefs and they, therefore, approach it differently:

Jill - Promotes 'Holistic And Spiritual Development'

Jill encourages her staff to *step outside the normal pattern for secondary school teachers* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) by taking up secondments and trips which result in their increased holistic personal development. Always leading by example, Jill spent 1994 travelling to Africa to view different Missions, later spending nine months in Sydney *completing a Diploma in Mission Studies*. Jill feels that her staff should embrace every opportunity *to claim their own identity as a person*. She firmly believes that teachers *really need to be alive and have a light in their eyes* so that they capture the imagination of the kids (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Bev - 'Holds The Line' Setting High Standards.

She believes her students need strong leadership *'for security' not remote, authoritarian leadership. You're only as good as your last disciplinary action.* Bev also aims to create a supportive working environment where staff find her and her senior managers *approachable, understanding, able to be trusted and capable of wise decisions.* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Helen - Promotes Herself As A 'Whole' Person Leading a 'Team.'

She believes that extra-curricular involvement with students and staff cements a deeper relationship and understanding with them. *It gives you a chance to get to know the girls, and the hostel staff. We've all got to work as a team* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Mary - Is 'The Ultimate Form Teacher'

She is the number one reliever at her school. *I want to get into classrooms and see what the kids are doing. I want to 'model' attitudes* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Sue - Empowers And Develops Staff

She has flattened the management structure to give more staff the opportunity to see the school from the 'top corridor'. *It opens their eyes. They become more supportive and it does give them a bit of a 'leg up'*(Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Rose - All Teachers Are 'Role Models' And Must Take 'Ownership'

She sees staff as role models for all students. *The parents see it too.* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Brickbats

Drawing participant attention to the most difficult aspects of being a woman principal drew differing responses. Rose's dream was to have staff *that are really happy in what they do all the time* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). Helen had *expectations* [of her inherited deputy principal and assistant principal] *which are more than they're doing. Although, I feel my experience of what a DP and AP should be doing is realistic* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Bev found that *maintaining acceptable standards of behaviour; of dress; of homework; of work ethic* to be the most challenging part of her role. *I have watched the social fabric fray over recent years and many people just want whatever's easiest in terms of standards. I never felt like giving in to that* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). However, teacher unions are *the burr under the saddle* for Jill. *Their style of negotiation is so unsuccessful. They let the profession down, so badly* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Mary's is frustrated by *staff disciplinary issues* and dealing with staff members *who consistently fail to reach expectations of them* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98), while Sue hates inter-school competition. *There's huge competition between schools in this local area. The principal is sometimes a more externally driven person. Because of the width of the job, we're forced into that* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Bouquets

There are many rewards of being a school principal and not one of the six women would want to be doing anything else. Mary's 'bouquets' include *achieving worthwhile change...and the unguarded comments that you get from parents and kids*. At her last school, Mary received letters from the chairs of both Boards, saying "You're doing a terrific job". *There were really nice comments from parents and, at one stage, the two boards got together and sent us overseas as a 'Thank You'". I still get letters from the girls at that school* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Bev also believes there are many more joys, than frustrations, being a principal. *It's wonderful to see the girls coming in as 'babies' in the third form and then you see them heading off to University, or Polytech, and you've been part of that. It's really a privilege* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Jill's rewards also come from watching her students growing up, *seeing the development of personalities and confidence as they become young adults and to see where they take their lives and celebrate what they've achieved* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

One unexpected advantage for Mary, in her second principalship, is that she finds she is not thinking about school all the time. *It seems as though there are more people to share things with. It's not just me!*. She says she feels that she could go away for a week and not much would happen. *If I'd gone away from my last school for a week, the wheels would fall off!* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Public Property

The women experience increasing parental pressures and often feel a lack of any real privacy in their roles. All except Sue held some resentment towards their lack of privacy and lack of perceived personal space. However, they recognised and accepted that the lack of privacy *went with the territory* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Parents think that they own you and that you're sort of public property. However, I think when you're principal of a boarding school you take on a new life style (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). While she loves her job, Helen gets very tired. *I'm basically working a 13 hour day. I certainly have less time to myself now* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Bev really feels the pressure of being a 'public' face. *I don't use local restaurants. I don't go to the cinema locally. I don't actually use this area. Who wants to be fossicking through the bras when the kid behind the counter says "My principal takes a 34B"!* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Bev's secretary is really good at protecting her. *The only place a principal goes, if they want a real holiday, is overseas!* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Jill enjoys the opportunity to go to a conference, or on holiday *where I'm not known, and to have a look around the shops....do a show, or something like that. It's compounded by this town being so small. I can almost never go anywhere 'incognito'* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Jill found that there was no privacy in hospital, either. *Whether that's the hospital system, or because of who I am, I don't know? But, I resent the fact it's not private* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Mary would never go to the supermarket in her old gardening clothes. *You're the public face of the school. We work and live in one area, and we shop and entertain ourselves in another....and that actually works really well. I mean, I do a 'once every 10 days' expedition to Big Fresh.* The idea of buying the weekly groceries near her school, is a "no-go" area (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Mary never drinks alcohol when she is out, either. *All you have to do is laugh too loudly and you're 'off your face'. I'm a control freak. You're very public, and conscious that every kid, who says "Hello" probably goes to your school!*. She says her husband gets a little grumpy with her when she won't say "No, this is the fourth night meeting I've had, this week....let's have it next week". It is going to be her *New Year's resolution!* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

In total contrast to the other women, Sue (in written correspondence to the researcher, 25/8/98) had this to say: *I do my shopping at the local supermarket. I do eat in restaurants in this town. I frequently walk down the main street in shorts and a shirt in summer, on the occasions my husband and I have to do that.* While Sue feels like public property, she believes that talking to kids, who are supermarket check-out operators, or parents who work in banks, shops and the like, is an extremely important part of her role, as a principal.

However, Sue is always very careful about how she is dressed, what she drinks and where. *I don't go to certain bars frequented by the younger set. I enjoy being part of this town both on and off duty - although I don't really regard myself as 'off duty' unless I'm overseas* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Pioneer

Sue has grown to see herself as a pioneer as she has had to accept being *the first female coed, secondary principal in this area; amongst the first extra-mural, M.Ed.Admin graduates in New Zealand and the first woman in my Rotary Club.* For her, that has been *part of the deal* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Achieving A Balance

Being principals and juggling increasingly complex professional responsibilities puts pressure on the women to manage their time well, if they want to achieve a balance between their personal and their professional lives. In reality, it is difficult to do. As a secondary teacher, Jill has *always lived on site* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). She finds it difficult to take adequate time for personal things. *I wouldn't say it's a balance with meetings and school activities, but it's the job I want to do, so it doesn't upset me too much.* Jill tries not to return to school at night, if she does get home *but I'm quite prepared to come back on Saturday and Sunday, to catch up.* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Sue is *quite tired* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). *For nine years I've been in admin and running a house.* People tell her that it is stress. *I don't know. I was pretty worn out after completing the M.Ed.Admin, in 1990* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98):

I was frantically being DP, and then a principal. During that time, the school changed hugely. My health packed up last year. It's been hard work, but I'd like to enjoy the benefits of the changes. To have a real holiday, I have to leave the country. You can't stay in the area, because people ring you all the time! (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Bev doesn't think she ever did learn 'that balance', for the first three years:

I overworked. I didn't take enough time off. I didn't get involved in enough recreation....and so I probably suffered. The school didn't suffer. It quickly went into succeeding, under the Tomorrow's Schools regime, because of our hard work (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Eventually, Bev bought a bach at a [named] beach with an unlisted number. *I went into 'hiding' at weekends. It was wonderful. I read books....walked the beach with the dog. I rowed a boat up and down the lagoon....I blobbed.* The seclusion of the bach was her lifeline. *It became a coping strategy. I'm finding it [the balance] now....but that's enforced on me* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) due to declining ill health. *We'll have to make decisions soon, as to what I'm going to do. I'm completely open about it and I hope to prove everyone wrong* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Having previously been a principal for five years, Mary says her last school was *unceasing and relentless...seven days a week!!* *In mid January, I remembered who I was again.* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). Her wedding anniversary is at Queen's Birthday and every *Queen's Birthday Weekend there's been something on at school. It's very hard to 'switch off'.* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Helen's relatives *can't understand how little they see of me now!*. I take Tuesday nights off, for my choir. And, I have my breakfast at home at the moment, so I can have some quiet time to myself. (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Only Rose appeared to be achieving some semblance of balance between the personal and the professional. While she currently lives on site, she enjoys support domestically from her husband. She also sets aside one week day 'officially' as her day off. However, her school currently has no formal management structure. *I do it all. There are only 25 members of staff...but, it takes time. I find there are a lot of interruptions, between 8.30am and 3.30pm.* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

During both interviews, the participants described the importance of having challenges and goals to work towards. Figure 4.6 illustrates that these challenges are both professional and personal:

Figure 4.6 Personal Challenges

Sue

Wants to learn the double-base
and to get my golf handicap down!
(Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Helen

Wants time for her music *and time*
to work on my family's geneology
(Helen, first interview 26/3/98).

Bev

Wants *to prove them all wrong* about her declining health (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Mary

Wants *to keep doing a good job.*
(Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Rose

Wants *to successfully manage*
'integration' into the state education
system
(Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Jill

Looks forwards *to another professional challenge*
after her retirement as a principal, in June
(Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Summary

Part Three illustrates that the six women, as principals, were totally committed to creating conditions in which members of their organisations would feel individual responsibility for improving educational outcomes. This requires a very considerable cultural shift, away from traditional 'hierarchical' models. In particular, it requires the use of formal power to empower others, so that the power relationship is mediated and ameliorated, if not transformed. While these women did not like the label 'feminism' and for some it was *a well-dead issue* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98), feminist principles were evident in their leadership, in supportive and enabling strategies and in the *ethic of care* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) underlying their actions.

A common theme illustrated by the data is how dependent the women were on their senior managers. Five of the six women had the traditional deputy and assistant principal to make up their 'senior management team' of three. Sue's management team of five people was an exception and a creative solution to management initiatives at her school. While the women all worked as collaboratively and as 'inclusively' as possible, they saw the need for a definite hierarchy.

Trust was identified as being absolutely non-negotiable to achieving a successful senior management team. There was the agreement that whatever was discussed remained *within the walls of the principals office* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98) and, therefore, presented *a united [leadership] front* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Accountability and the personal and professional development of staff represented a high priority for the participants. Again, there was a tendency to *lead by example* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98) and an emphasis on *holistic development* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). As the 'public face' of each of their six schools, the women felt *constantly assessed* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) by parents, staff and students. However, they always maintained consistently high standards of dress and personal behaviour, while playing out their part as the instructional and pastoral leaders of their schools.

PART FOUR : A NEW RIGHT EDUCATIONAL ENVIRONMENT

Introduction

Part Four explores the principals' workloads and leadership values vis a vis "New Right" educational context. Educational administrative literature (Codd *et al*,1990) suggests that a potential conflict may exist as reforms have increased principals' financial and curriculum management responsibilities externally, while calling for more collaborative approaches internally.

As the participants leadership is located within six socio-economic 'school realities', this study explores the principals' relationship with their respective school boards of trustees, inter-school competition, the principals' stance on increasingly complex social issues and how they perceive gender relating to academic achievement.

Carte Blanche Or Constraints

In 1990, New Zealand schools were tasked with self-management, under the governance of a Board of Trustees, elected by their wider school communities. The relationship between the school's board and its principal is vital to school leadership success. However, it is a partnership that both parties are still adjusting to.

For Sue, there is *a clear distinction* (second interview, 29/5/98) between governance and management. *On a day-to-day basis, I run the school. Management. End of conversation. However, I would expect the board to come in on the governance side because that's their job.* She would not let her school board become involved in management. She knows *where the divisions should be* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

With 15 years principal's experience at her previous school, Helen is clearly confident that she can *guide the board to govern* while she 'leads'. Although there are one or two trustees *who still like to meddle* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98), they have not found it as easy with her as with her [Helen's] predecessor.

Boards of trustees elections occur every three years. With each successive board, the women believed that the skill levels of board members were increasing. Sue has had three very good board 'chairs' (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98):

The previous two Boards were nice people, but this one has people on it with financial management skills and there are people who can help with maintenance issues. It's really gone up a notch or two, in terms of expertise. I'm really looking forward to working with them. Up until now, I've really run everything, in terms of deciding what happens when.

Jill is getting people who have *cut their eye teeth* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98) and served on other boards. *They're people who have got some real working knowledge. We're now benefiting from the service that people have put into primary and secondary school boards.* That gives her a lot more confidence, because, in the past, the principal had to train all of the trustees and direct them to more training. *I think everyone has been doing that, so we're benefiting from that at last!* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98).

Financially, the six principals viewed their schools as *complex entities* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98), definitely requiring boards of trustees who had the skills to ensure the safe governance of multi-million dollar turnovers, including salaries.

It all has to be managed properly. We carry quite large reserves and that has to be managed properly. We've got 12 major buildings to look after. It needs more than having the best of intentions. It's nice to have some people with good intentions, but it's crucial to have those experienced people too (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Bev enjoys having a free rein, *as long as I keep them [the Board] informed. That's very important. We've always discussed issues* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98). The women felt that board support was absolutely fundamental when dealing with increasingly tough social issues, for example, decisions relating to drugs and alcohol *where I've always taken a very hard line* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98). Disciplinary decisions were viewed by all to be *extremely pivotal to schools being a safe and secure place* (Jill, second interview, 4/6/98).

Servant Leader Versus Chief Executive Officer

Bev feels very strongly that *the principal is a servant-leader*, not a chief executive:

I don't buy into that business model. I don't belong to S.P.A.N.Z. I don't subscribe to those sorts of things where they talk about having 'clients'....I hate all that! We have to work together. I've always had excellent people to work with. I work hard and they're always working hard (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

The Market Model

While the participants enjoyed the new autonomy associated with the principal's role, since the introduction of the 1990 educational reforms, they viewed their impact differently. Helen, Jill and Bev had been principals during the transition from centralised government control to self-managing schools.

Jill found the transition relatively straight forward, due to her earlier experience with Catholic Integration and believes that the government's experience of implementing the Catholic Integration Act *actually facilitated a lot of Tomorrow's Schools initiatives* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). It reinforced what the government were picking up from overseas about 'style' of management. *Their building, finance and administration personnel had been through training with Catholic integration. There are lots of parallels between the two systems* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

However, as a 'new' principal in 1989, Bev recalls her workload as *incredible*:

I thought I was going to die of exhaustion. Everything, from property to curriculum, was in the hands of the Board of Trustees. Nothing that had happened before, was necessarily going to happen again (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Bev and her Board Chairperson went to 40 meetings about policies and charters. *We worked very closely....down to how we would get the school painted!* The impact of Tomorrow's Schools *has been incredible* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

However, having always worked in a self-managing ethos, Sue, Rose and Mary feel very comfortable with the policies and procedures required of schools. Mary believes that the greater emphasis on policies and procedures gives her the freedom to be *proactive in difficult situations, rather than reactive* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Helen, Rose, Sue and Mary all relished the opportunity to review procedures and paperwork in an effort to ultimately improve the quality of teaching and learning in their respective schools. *I feel there is no other way, in my mind, of operating* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98):

At my last school, I wrote a policy on physical abuse just because I thought I should. It said "Where the alleged perpetrator is in the home then the school will recognise no necessity to inform the home before contacting the appropriate social agency". Within six months of having ratified that policy, a case arrived in my office. Because we had written that policy, we were able to use it without any heat, or emotion. When you have policies in place you're not hiding behind the Board.

Criticism Of The Reform Culture

Of the six participants, Bev is most critical of the Tomorrow's Schools' reforms and how they were ushered in. She was very sad *to see a lot of excellent people thrown out. Lots of very good liaison inspectors and people who had institutional wisdom* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Bev believes that the culture of the reforms was *"If you want to change the system, then you have to change the people too"*. The Department of Education was replaced by the Ministry Of Education....*and they're still trying to find bits and pieces of records that have gone. Serious damage, and serious things have happened* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Increased Managerialism

One of the ramifications of the "New Right" market model of schooling, for principals, is increased managerialism. During the first interviews, several references to increasing management responsibilities were made by the women. However, there was always a higher priority placed on improving educational outcomes and enhancing internal networks.

During the day, the women found that they were *often tied up with a myriad of planned and unplanned meetings with parents, staff and students* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) and feeling 'under siege' with the mounting external requirements issued by the Ministry of Education. However, the participants' consultative and inclusive leadership values were upheld at all times.

Teaching Principals

While the six women were all very dedicated teachers before entering their principalships, only Jill, Mary and Sue continue to make time to teach "on a regular basis". However, Bev *borrowes classes* to get the opportunity to *get back into classrooms* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Jill *really enjoys the classroom* and believes that *it is really important for teachers to know that I know what it's like to teach a noisy fifth form, or a difficult sixth form* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

In Mary's last school, she always had *at least one class* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). This is her first term without a class. *I enjoy teaching and it's important. It's a very good place to be because you get to know the 'sub-plot' that's going on under the surface* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Instructional Focus

Maintaining strong ties with classrooms is an important aspect of school leadership for Helen and Rose. Helen has *a very clear academic vision* for students. *We need them to be better equipped when they leave us* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). Rose also takes an *active instructional interest* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98) in her students, using *performance management* as one opportunity to *get into classrooms*. However, *I don't think that I can be both an A1 teacher and the principal!* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Delegation

Delegating to deputies and assistant principals or, in Sue's case, *other senior managers* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) is always carefully handled, as senior management staff also *faced increasing workloads* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) and are often tied up with students and teaching responsibilities.

The principals' internal responsibilities always take priority over external administrative requirements. However, they feel *very tired, trying to cope with increasing demands* (Bev, first interview 27/3/98). They describe the many *hours of overtime required to complete paperwork* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) during evenings to free themselves up to be more available to their school communities during the day.

Relationships With Staff

Prior to the "New Right" reforms, teachers enjoyed greater professional autonomy in their classrooms. There are now requirements for school-wide assessments of student achievement. Monitoring teacher effectiveness, through appraisal, is ultimately the responsibility of the principal. Each of the participants believed that due to their open, consultative leadership styles their staff felt *more included in important issues* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98) and, therefore, *were more motivated to achieve school goals* (Sue, first interview, 23/3/98).

Bev has worked hard with her staff to develop a culture of caring and achieving at her school, saying that it is *such a place of courtesy...a culture of carrying on tradition, a sense of real being, caring and performing to your best* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Jill is continuously encouraging her staff to advance themselves in education and trusts them *to participate in professional development and other opportunities* and to *be relaxed about change* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Mary views herself as *the ultimate form teacher* believing that if she keeps her staff motivated and focused, then her students *achieve greater successes* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). Helen *will not put anyone on a pedestal* and encourages everyone *to work as a team* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

The participants are all self-confessed 'optimists' and believe there must be enthusiasm in education. *I think if teachers are not enthusiastic, your students are not being given the very best a school can offer* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Emotional Investment As A 'Feminised' Attribute

The six women clearly invested a high level of energy and care into their respective schools. They set and maintained high standards of education; of behaviour; of dress and of their own professional and personal development, acting as role models for their staff and students. Bev suggests that this investment of emotional energy is a feminised attribute. *Women put alot of emotional investment into a school. They're very team-oriented, collaborative. It's really worthwhile working with women* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98):

They're creative and lateral thinkers. They're very supportive. Men view schools differently. While they do a very good job they tend more to leave it there. I don't think they see the school as fulfilling their emotional needs. Women seem to need to be emotionally committed and involved in their teaching. The school reaps the most wonderful rewards as a result
(Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

School Competition

While Bev's school has enjoyed such increased roll growth that she recently had to exercise her enrolment policy, the other five schools in this study faced fewer, if any, increases. While Jill and Mary can expect their rolls to remain relatively steady, Sue says her professional challenge is to turn her roll around. *It's a challenge that I took on and I wouldn't leave before I had done that* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). She is not responsible for the decline. *I was the person who had to arrest it. Otherwise I wouldn't be here, at this school.*

Sue knows that she had a choice. *I could have folded up my tent and crept away into the dark....but I chose to do something about it. It's taken its toll on my health* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). She finds that having to consistently maintain staff morale is extremely difficult. There are staff who are frustrated and want to get out of teaching and a few staff who are not proud of the school. *It's a pity, because what I'm starting to hear now is "Oh, I hear you're doing some really exciting things down at your school" and "I heard it was pretty rough there until that woman took over"* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

School Image

The participants all agreed that a part of riding out school competition and raising staff morale is to *believe in your school* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) and to be *proud of what it offers* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). Maintaining and caring for 'school image' was one of the most important responsibilities of being a principal. However, as a co-educational principal, Sue feels different from the other five participants. She does not have a hostel and having boys in her school raises different sorts of issues, making Sue *lonely being the only coed female principal in this area* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

The slow provincial economy and the downturn in farming and horticulture has directly impacted on the two private school in this study. *State integration has been carefully considered* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98):

We've got to meet the market. We need to provide a choice for families without compromising the integrity of what this school stands for. I'm never into elitism. I would like the focus always to be on the school and where it is at, what it can provide and what is special about being here.

Helen's school has also applied to integrate in 1999: *We're in the process of negotiation with the government. The Ministry has to accept our special character statement and our enrolment policy* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Of all the participants, it is Sue who feels the most pressure about school image: *I sometimes get really stewed up about it. I don't know whether that's the difference between me and a man. Maybe it's because I'm a woman. I've talked to male coed principals about it, but they don't seem nearly as concerned about it as I am* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Decisions And Dilemmas

Being a secondary principal today can be very challenging. Not only has the workload increased but there seems to be less time in which to do it all. The women in this study have all experienced feeling tired and worn down by 'the job' at times. Sue's family background has prepared her for coping with difficult decisions and issues. *There is a 'toughness' that comes out.... that serves me well with what I'm doing. I can stand back from the most tragic things I hear in this office and I deal with it* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Sue feels that she can stand apart from crises and deals with them in a coherent and sensible fashion. *The family and relationships that have created me, have in fact enabled me to hold the sort of job that I'm doing now* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98).

Bev's dilemma has been her recently diagnosed serious illness. Word got out that she had caused it by overworking. *But, there is no known data. I've talked to a lot of oncologists about that.* Given her time again, Bev would not work quite so hard. *That's not to say that there wasn't enjoyment too. The school has benefited from my hard work. It was profitable, that's a plus. You do need some stress to get you going* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Helen's dilemma has resided in the relationship she has had with her assistant principal and deputy principal. As a second-time principal, to date she has not received the support she had expected of them. She feels she has had to do too many aspects of their work for them. *It has been challenging. However I'm working it through.* Helen says that not having the support she would expect *is lonely* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).. However, she does not worry about it.

Rose occasionally feels isolated when making difficult decisions. *It would be nice to have had someone else to share that with.* Her previous school was bigger. *There were others I would have talked to* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98).

Gender And Academic Achievement

Five of the six participants lead girls' schools. While they firmly believe in single sex education for girls, Bev's decision to lead a girls' school resulted from a frustrating experience as an assistant principal in a co-education secondary school. Bev has also worked in co-educational schools where *the men completely took over the staffroom, with dartboards, and macho noise....and there was nowhere for women to sit and talk. And, I suddenly thought "I've actually had enough of this!"* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Two good friends of Bev's had transferred to girls' schools and loved it. *They felt the girls had higher self esteem and achieved more* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98). While Bev has obviously very strong 'anti co-education' views, these are not shared by the other 'girls' school principals - Mary, Rose, Helen and Jill.

Jill believes *role modelling and opportunities at a girls' school are more widely spread and available to girls. They have to be prefects, committee leaders....they get involved in Science, Physics....all of those things* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Helen, Bev, Rose and Jill also believe there are educational advantages for girls, having no competition from boys in classrooms, or for space at computers. Bev claims that *a higher percentage of girls get those opportunities. Therefore, more of them are better prepared to take their place in the wider community, when they go out to study, or to work, or whatever they're going to do* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

The principals were very keen to develop a holistic approach to education in their schools; providing students with a well-rounded learning experience, through informal and formal activities. Jill likes *to see youngsters not only participating in the classroom activities, striving for excellence, but also being involved in Sport, in Speech, or Drama or Music. A youngster, who is only involved in classroom activities is missing out on so much* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Disciplinary Issues Related To Drugs And Alcohol

Schools are faced with increasingly complex social issues when students become involved in drug and alcohol related offences. Figure 4.7, on the following page, outlines the disciplinary positions adopted by the six participant's and their years of experience, as principals:

Figure 4.7 Disciplinary Issues Related To Drugs And Alcohol

Helen

- * 14 years experience. Continues to take a hard line on *drugs, alcohol, truancy, incest, abuseit is just frightening* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). Helen suspends drug offenders. Alcohol abuse is a also a serious offence.

Bev

- * Eight years experience. *You've got to keep saying "No, we're not doing that. That's not acceptable. I am going to take issue with that".* Bev has suspended drug offenders. Board members often find in hard to make tough decisions *and some staff do too. You need to be very strong, and have a fighting spirit* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Rose

- * Four years experience. Rose will *usually send students home for a few days to separate them from their peers* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98), until she has reviewed the facts and decided on what course of action is required.

Jill

- * 18 years experience. Jill turns 'the other cheek' on student drug offences and asks *"What family escapes without its share of whatever mistakes people can make?" A school which endeavours to live the Christian ethic and then says to those kids "Out!" ..it's incongruous really* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Sue

- * Five years experience. Has established *a very supportive pastoral care network* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) for students at risk. Offenders are removed or suspended for a few days. Serious offenders are found alternative education to promote a drugs-free, safe, secure school campus, which promotes teaching and learning.

Mary

- * Five years experience. Mary is a firm believer in making your school policies work for you. She quotes the Alcohol Policy at her new school. It had said *"Staff are expected to be responsible with their consumption of alcohol, when looking after kids."* *But your idea of what's responsible and mine could be very different.* Mary wrote amendments. *Nobody objected. It was later ratified by the Board of Trustees* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Eroding Social Standards

While the difficult social issues of drugs, alcohol, sexual abuse are on the increase, there are also relaxing codes of socially acceptable behaviour impacting on extra-curricular school activities. Parents are often confused about what they should do. As a principal, Jill fights to keep her students safe during and after school balls. *It's harder and harder for you to demonstrate that. They still think that they need the drink and probably some sex somewhere for the event to 'come off'* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

While Jill has staff who really support her expectations, occasionally she has had parents who do not. *The parents of one fifth former invited girls back to their place after a school function and there was drink at home for the girls. I was furious, of course. I let them know in no uncertain terms* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Bev sees the media playing a powerful role. For some families, it is not a family 'expectation'. *They say "Well, what can we do?. That's society today"* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Jill also sees disadvantages regarding technology, which could interfere with learning: *I think television is the biggest problem working against education really. Computer games are more interactive....they're quite a focusing thing. But T.V has done some pretty "disastrous things" to study skills* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

Sue believes that, in her school, the students and the background of the students, provides a legitimate reason for what happens to the students. *I would expect my staff to temper their interactions with any student, due to their knowledge of that person* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Mary expects her school procedures to be followed *to the letter*. She uses set procedures or processes for any student who does not behave in the expected way. This allows her *to be proactive and not reactive* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

Summary

Part Four describes Jill, Bev and Helen as principals during the transitional reform period of 1989/1990, post Tomorrow's Schools. Mary, Rose and Sue have only worked within a "New Right" context and are coping well. Jill's previous experience of Catholic Integration, in which she played a pivotal role, prepared her for Tomorrow's Schools. She made the transition smoothly.

However, Bev found the workload *incredible* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) and is very critical of how many new initiatives were 'ushered in'. One year ago, she found out she had a serious illness. A few days ago, Bev retired from her position as principal. She remains extremely positive and hopes to *prove the experts wrong* (Bev, second interview, 27/3/98) and live to a ripe old age.

Increasing competition between the six schools in this study is evident. While Bev's school continues to grow, the other school rolls remain fragile but steady. Sue *feels the pressure from competition daily* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). While she has arrested the declining roll, she also has to maintain staff morale while dealing with some very *tragic* social issues.

Rose and Helen are preparing to integrate into the state system, in 1999. It is an *economic necessity* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98) which has been *carefully considered* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). The women were very aware of presenting a positive school image and realised that the key to their success, as school leaders, rested in their relationships with staff and students.

The participants described *increasing administrivia* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) associated with their roles. However, during the school day they continued to focus on their internal networking. This remained a definite priority over other, external management requirements, which were put off until after school or during evenings when the women would often *catch up on paperwork* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98).

The principals wanted to create a safe, stimulating and secure learning environment for staff and students. Bev's experience as an assistant co-educational principal had put her *off coed schools for life* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Helen, Rose, Jill and Mary favoured the increased opportunities they believed were available to female students within girls' secondary schools. While Sue was a very articulate advocate for co-education, she often *felt loneliness* and different, due to the perceived difference in her situation - *having boys and not having a hostel* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

School principals are increasingly facing difficult social issues that many feel is a constant challenge. The relaxed parameters set by an increasing number of parents, who *give in to their children* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98), with a “*What else can we do?*” attitude (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) does nothing to help school leaders maintain high expectations. The collective experience, which Helen 1 and Bev have had as longer-term principals, has given them the confidence to continue to take a hard line on difficult social issues, many of which have resulted in student suspensions.

Jill has adopted an alternative view to difficulties faced by students and mistakes made. Her Catholicity has meant she favours *turning the other cheek* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) on student drug offences. However, on all occasions the women sought and received ‘total’ back-up by their respective Boards and viewed high level support for their day to day management as *fundamental to successful school leadership* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

CHAPTER FIVE: ANALYSIS AND CONCLUSIONS

Introduction

The purpose of this research was to explore and describe the early socialisation and leadership practice of six women, provincial, secondary principals and their application of leadership values in a “New Right” educational environment. Data evolved through qualitative, case study research incorporating a life-history, chronological approach to data collection and presentation. The researcher aimed to increase understanding about the ways in which these women principals were leading their schools.

While this study focused on six individuals working in differing educational contexts, many similarities emerged in the ways in which they interpreted and enacted school leadership. In Part One of this chapter; “Origins, Identity and Preparing For Leadership”, the researcher analyses data presented in Chapter Four and draws conclusions about significant personal and professional circumstances leading the women to their respective principalships. In Part Two; “The Principalship In A New Right Context”, the researcher analyses data presented in Chapter Four and draws conclusions about the principals as women and about the ways in which they utilise formal power and influence in a “New Right” era. In Part Three; “Implications For Future Research, Theory and Practice”, the researcher makes recommendations for future action and considers ways in which issues highlighted in this study could be expanded and tested in a more rigorous context.

To present an evolving theory about women, culture and power the researcher has adopted, as a theoretical framework, Valerie Hall’s (1996) study of six women school heads in Britain. There are many parallels between Hall’s data and data discussed in this chapter, especially data gathered from the five women principals of girls’ schools.

Like Hall’s study, this thesis traces the career journeys of six women principals, exploring various facets of their identities as women and as school leaders. Hall concludes that “in order to understand women as principals, you need to understand them as women” (ibid:183). She favours employing the lenses of gender, culture and power to uncover “the female world of school administration” (ibid).

While it may be considered a methodological weakness of this study, the researcher adopted a single lens perspective, to “walk in the participants’ shoes” and to uncover their tacit, “felt realities”, thereby exploring the women’s own perceptions about the nature of their work.

Despite an absence of the views of significant others in this study, patterns emerged between those parental expectations of the participants as children and their developing leadership values and priorities, as adults and as principals. This is important, as Hall also advocates “the heads’ behaviour can not and should not be understood separately from experiences that influence the foundation of values/beliefs on which that behaviour is based”(1996:184).

While the six women felt the “New Right” educational context was characterised by mounting pressure from managerial tasks and external reporting and compliance with various government agencies, they primarily shared a commitment to being leading professionals and educationalists. Many aspects of data collected in this study closely mirror Hall’s (1996) findings, where her sample of six women preferred a “practical action” model of school leadership (ibid:186).

PART ONE : ORIGINS, IDENTITY AND PREPARING FOR LEADERSHIP

Origins And Ethics

All participants enjoyed reviewing their early childhoods. None had been asked to reflect on conditions that may have been influential in ‘shaping’ them (Limerick and Lingard, 1995) as women and as educational leaders. This exercise they said they found *fascinating* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98). Despite differing personal situations in 1998, data illustrate a number of similarities existed in the way these women, as children and as teenagers, were raised.

Common values of *respecting the welfare of others, honouring thy father and mother* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98), respecting authority and *sharing and caring* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98) were apparent in the participants’ formative years.

Data illustrate strong links between early childhood expectations of concern, caring and sharing with others and school leadership values of care, concern and the desire to make a positive difference to the lives of students and staff.

Albeit very different, their six schools are viewed as “learning communities” with *felt* and not contractual ties between members. All six women subconsciously employ Sergiovanni’s (1992) notion of leadership by “bonding” with a pivotal emphasis on empowering and developing staff and creating a safe and supportive learning environment. As Jane Strachan found in her study (1997:212), “this helped not only to establish ownership of change but also to share the workload”. Never did external pressures dominate close-knit community values underpinning internal decision-making.

Early Role Models and Behaviours

Four of the six women were raised in rural farming communities, where parents developed in them strong Christian values and a community responsibility and awareness. The researcher theorises that it was this early example set by both parents, of being *hard-working, law abiding* and *community minded* (ibid), which later impacted on the way in which these women viewed their roles in the world; within their respective families; within relationships generally and within education.

As Hall (1996) also concluded, the participants’ fathers generally represented the patriarchal, authority figures and responsibilities were often divided “along gendered lines” (ibid:184). While mothers were mainly involved in domestic activities, they were described as being *highly capable* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98) and *active in wider community activities* (Rose, second interview, 11/6/98). There were many recollections of highly capable mothers who had either indirectly or more overtly influenced the women as future school leaders.

Maternal relationships varied from being *very close* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98) to *lacking in real intimacy* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98). However, all mothers demonstrated quiet capability and dependability and a generation later, would *almost certainly have become professionals, or have been tertiary educated* (Bev, second interview, 14/5/98).

Marshall (1985) suggests that women who positively value their mothers’ role within their private world of home (which the women in this study did do) develop an appreciation of their own feminine strengths and abilities which does not depend on male approval. Like the six women in Hall’s study, none of the participants ever felt a need, “to be more like a man”, in order to progress and/or to win approval. Maternal influences, therefore, were significant in these women developing independence, self-sufficiency and the desire to succeed.

While the six women were undoubtedly exposed to a variety of role models and behaviours as children, like the participants in Hall's (ibid) study, they were encouraged to achieve to their *personal best* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98) and were not aware of being limited because of their gender. As in Hall's study "in each case, the father's strong influence also encouraged them towards achievement and self-sufficiency" (1996:184).

Regardless of whether they were involved in cultural, sporting or community activities, once undertaken, the women were expected *to persevere with it, until its completion* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). The researcher suggests that there may be links between an earlier parental expectation of "sticking with things" and the later underlying determination and resilience described by the principals as being necessary for leadership effectiveness.

Data in this study are supported by earlier literature describing parental influences on career choice and adult lifestyles, which White *et al* (1992:42) used to analyse the parent-child relationships on successful women in their study. For example:

- * Parental behaviour promoting achievement, striving and independence in female children includes warmth, moderate permissiveness, encouragement for and reinforcement of achievement-related efforts.
- Senior women managers recall happy childhoods and closeness and warmth in relations with parents.

Socialisation, Gender And Self Image

Maddy McMaster and Shirley Randell (in Limerick and Lingard, 1995:57) believe "women's job horizons are limited by early social conditioning at home, at school, in the media and through educational opportunities and available training". Other research suggests that early socialisation in the family and parental/care-giver expectations and schooling have a significant impact on self-image in later life. Just as young girls may be more reticent than their brothers in claiming territorial advantage, "many women tend to underestimate their worth and their suitability for senior administrative positions"(ibid).

Possible links between gender, self-image and achievement were discussed with the participants in this study. However, they all recall feeling very capable as young girls and as young women and not inferior to boys of the same or a similar age.

Attitudes To Education

Growing up, education was viewed both formally and informally in the participants' families. There was an emphasis on involvement in individual, group and family activities. Participants were *encouraged to achieve*, regardless of the activity and to believe that *perseverance would get you somewhere* (Mary, second interview, 3/6/98).

Three of the women were daughters of farmers. Other fathers included a policeman, a fireman and an engineer. With the exception of Mary's mother (at 73 years), no parent had attended university. However, a high value had been placed on the women *having a good education and entering a profession*.

Three of the participants were educated at co-educational, secondary schools. The remaining three attended girls' schools, two of which were private schools. However, school "type" was not considered to be the reason for them ending up in particular "types" of secondary schools later in life, as principals. The five principals of girls' schools had become articulate advocates of single sex education.

Being the only co-educational principal, Sue was equally fervent in her support of co-education. While data do not confirm that girls achieve better, academically, at girls' schools, Bev, Jill, Rose and Helen outlined the considerable benefits they felt existed for their students, in not having to openly compete with boys in classrooms and on sports fields.

Recalling their own education, Mary, Jill, Helen and Bev always expected to attend university before leaving secondary school. However, Rose considered university as an option *only after my headmistress suggested it* (Rose, first interview, 26/3/98), towards the end of her seventh form year.

Education was primarily the "ticket" to leaving their rural communities for Rose, Sue, Bev and Mary. Later, they would become the first women from those communities to go to teachers' college and university. Again, data in this study mirrors closely data in Hall's (1996) study, where participants were the first from their districts to achieve tertiary qualifications.

As teenagers, the women in this study felt academically *capable but not super intelligent* (Sue, second interview, 29/5/98). None had been awarded dux or acknowledged academically in any formal way, either at primary or secondary school. However, their personal expectation had been that they would work to the best of their ability, an attitude they had developed in their formative years.

Tertiary Qualifications

Except for Sue, all participants gained bachelor's degrees before entering teaching. Both Jill and Bev were very keen to start teaching and believed, at that stage, that a bachelor's degree was sufficient to embark on their chosen careers.

However, both women were also committed to on-going personal and professional development and have made sure that they *led by example* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). Jill completed a Master of Arts in her twenties and a Diploma of Mission Studies in her forties, while Bev completed a Diploma of Education in her thirties and a Post-graduate Diploma in Educational Administration in her forties. These qualifications, were directly linked to work in classrooms and educational leadership as Palmer (1997) found with respondents in her Master's thesis.

In direct contrast, Sue's motivation to add to her Trained Teacher's Certificate, in later life, was *purely financial* (Sue first interview, 24/3/98). While her children were still primary school age, Sue completed a Bachelor of Arts to *catch up to others with the same qualification*. When she received A's in her final year and realised her academic potential, Sue for the first time felt *academically motivated* to continue with her extramural studies. Further encouragement from a university professor led Sue to *completing a Master of Educational Administration degree* in 1990 (Sue first interview, 24/3/98).

Choosing Teaching

Five of the participants chose teaching for intrinsic reasons, thereby supporting research by Lowther (1982) and Young (1995). While Helen, Jill and Bev always wanted to become teachers, only Helen entered the profession with the specific aim of becoming a principal in later years.

Initially planning to undertake scientific research as a career, Rose went supply teaching in London and *loved working with young people* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98). Teaching was *viewed as a safe and solid profession* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) by Sue's parents. Sue pursued a career in education as it was *a step up* from what her peers were aiming for and she felt that she would make a valuable contribution to others, as a teacher.

However, Mary did not enter teaching for intrinsic reasons. She viewed teaching as convenient, *good for picking up and putting down* and it was *what girls did*. Mary didn't really explore other options outside the conventional directions taken by many women. She recalls that she lacked the confidence and the motivation to do law at university, which had once appealed to her.

Therefore, with the exception of Mary, a driving force in the women's choice of career "was their commitment to the central purpose of their work: Young people's education as a valuable enterprise" (Hall, 1996:185), again supporting Hall's findings.

Varying Personal Circumstances

Breaks From Teaching

Rose and Sue were the only mothers in this study. They left teaching, for 12 and 9 years respectively, to raise families.

Earlier in her career, Helen spent 20 months overseas travelling *but also taught in London for a year and half a term*. Later she spent three months on a Woolf Fisher Award *looking at schools in the United States, Canada and Britain*. Helen believes that travel broadens the mind and that anyone seeking a principalship should gain *as much experience of the world as possible*. Helen's wide-ranging experiences have proved beneficial when dealing with unexpected crises and other situations when she has been forced to act on the *spur of the moment*.

Jill is also an advocate of experiencing as many dimensions of life as is humanly possible. Her lifelong commitment to her religious Order has meant that Jill has had several breaks from teaching, of varying time periods. Her longest break was for six years, during which time she was *in a senior management role within the Order*. Jill also spent various periods travelling and studying around the world. Like Helen, Jill's focus has been on *the holistic, personal development benefits of travel* and she acts as a role model for both staff and students.

Until her illness, Bev was totally devoted to teaching and had never felt the need to have a break. However, she recently has had to accept early retirement. This situation has been very difficult for Bev. Her whole life was her school. She suddenly found herself at home with hours in the day to reflect on her contribution and on the direction she had carefully and lovingly cut for her school. Bev has no regrets. Her final task is *to write the job description for my successor*.

At the time of this study, only Mary had had no formal breaks from teaching. She has enjoyed every challenge of the journey to this principalship, her second one in five years. She is *always looking for new challenges* and has never felt the need for a break from her full-time commitment to education. While she initially entered teaching *because it was what girls did*, Mary has grown up as an educator, developing a very professional, dynamic and hard-edged 'persona' which helps her to deal with many of the social aspects of her school leadership. Yet Mary has a softer side which lets her obvious contentment within. Daily opportunities to make a positive difference for 'her' girls far outweighs any earlier regrets she had of not tackling a law degree. While it can be very hard work, Mary is clearly satisfied with her role and the potential she has to empower both staff and students.

Motherhood

Sue recalls feeling *totally immobilised* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98), constrained by her first marriage to a fourth generation farmer. Her feelings reflect data in studies by Woo (1985), Neville (1988) and Hall (1996). However, Sue continued *part-time relief teaching* for a number of years while raising her family.

Eventually returning to teaching, full-time, Sue was shocked to discover that people *with the same qualification [and service] were being paid more* than she was. She immediately enrolled in a Bachelor of Arts degree, and, during her final year, was the recipient of a Secondary Teachers' Study Award to complete it.

Rose focused on being a *supermum* and did not return to teaching, in any capacity, for 12 years. Marriage and family were put ahead of her career, thereby supporting earlier studies by Gallos, (1989) and MacLean, (1992). Rose did not regret taking time out for motherhood and still sees herself as a positive role model for her daughters, as a university graduate *and as a mother* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98).

Personal Relationships

Data illustrate the importance of personal relationships to all of the women studied, thereby supporting the findings of Neville (1988), Gallos (1989) and Hill (1994). In these studies, participants recalled developing confidence to seek promotion being dependent upon support from family and friends.

Informal support networks *were invaluable* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Bev's illness has forced her to become increasingly dependent on her tight-knit group of friends. For years she has given herself totally to her school. Now she is the recipient of much needed support and care. She finds this role reversal difficult to adjust to. However, some days she is too ill to muster the strength for protest on any level.

Both Sue (with husband number two) and Rose describe having husbands who have been crucial to their career and personal development. Neither woman has found it easy to juggle the personal and the public dimensions of her life. However, unlike Sue, Rose has support in many domestic duties and responsibilities. As mothers, both women have another role to play, not experienced by the remaining four participants. Children are extremely important to Rose and Sue who gladly admit to being frequently used as *benchmarks* by their children. They find this both flattering and rewarding.

As a single woman, Jill's close relationship with Sisters in her religious Order provided an important support network throughout her second principalship. The Sister's became Jill's surrogate family and are now *interdependent spiritually, socially and philosophically*.

Knowing that they had the constant support of friends and family has also been important to Mary and Helen. However, neither woman was as open as other participants about personal relationships and/or friendships, even when probed by the researcher. Citing a strong professional bias, their involvement in professional organisations, or professional networks, was especially appreciated after their appointment as principals. Such organisations provided *a neutral context* [in which] *to reflect on broader issues* and to *let off steam*. Helen, in particular, found professional networks provided her with opportunities for expression that, too often, were missing in personal relationships. Some of her closest friendships developed from her involvement in professional associations and with school leadership.

Byrne-Whyte (1987) describes women's attitudes to promotion as being strongly influenced by two sources of support: first, the organisational and work cultures in which they work; and second, the relationship which individual women may have with their husband or partner. As in Hall's (1996) study, the possibility of a partner not being male was not an issue for this research sample and has not been addressed in management literature to date (ibid).

Uncontrollable Variables

Age

Jill was detailed off to become a principal (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) [at age 29]. Although this proved to be a huge challenge for Jill, she quickly adapted to her new responsibilities and had a successful five years in that position, watching her school roll flourish and grow by 200 pupils.

Gender

Of the six participants, Bev was the only woman who described being a victim to gender prejudice and who had been the most emotionally affected by earlier experiences, both personally and professionally. As a teacher, Bev recalls staff rooms where there was *hardly anywhere for women to sit*. She recalls *men hovering around dartboards and macho noise*. Another incident where gender was an issue for Bev was when she was declined a bank mortgage *as I didn't have a male guarantor!* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

This study sample of six women, who have spent most of their lives in girls' schools, has a marginalising effect on gender prejudice as an issue. That is not to say that gender identity can not be explored here in terms of the socialised behaviours of inclusion, nurturing and caring for others. These behaviours are fundamental to the participants' leadership practice as principals and as women. Gender identity and socialised behaviours and expectations in early childhood are inextricably linked, again supporting Hall's (1996) conclusions.

Health and Stress

Serious ill health has recently become Bev's greatest personal challenge. When first diagnosed with her condition, Bev felt she may *have caused it through overworking*. However, *there is no known data linking my condition to stress* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

During the past eight years, stress has also increasingly become an issue for Mary and Sue. In her previous principalship, Mary worked seven days a week, 24 hours a day and *it was only after Christmas each year that I remembered who I was!* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). Mary's 1999 resolution is not to spend every evening at school meetings.

Sue's number one anxiety is school competition [and the perceived public image of her school], *which is something about working in 'this town'* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). While she knows that her school has 'soul', she is always disappointed *when staff do not feel proud of the school.*

While *stress is not a word I use* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98), Helen has found that doing many of the tasks that she *would have expected of a DP and a AP* has taken its toll on her health.

The School Context

The 'business model' of education may fail to consider that principals are appointed to schools with distinct cultures, or socio-political contexts, of their own (Kelsey, 1995, Cranston, 1994). Helen found this to be true, in both her first principalship *where the AP and DP were both trying to undermine me* and, in her second principalship, *where my AP and DP are not doing what I would have expected of them* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

The frustration of Bev's earlier experience (as an assistant principal) at a co-educational school put her off working in co-educational schools again. *It felt like a war-zone.* She did everything she could for the girls there, but it wore her down. *I waited for a DP's job in a girls' school with a proud school tradition. I came here and felt that I had found my niche school* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

While Mary is enjoying her second principalship in a decile two school, she feels that *the democracy* [under her predecessor] *has completely stifled everything.* She is adamant...saying *if we don't raise the students' expectations for them, then who will?* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98).

When Sue returned (after a years' study award) to find that her school wanted to keep the man who was acting as her replacement, she *applied for two assistant principal's positions and was offered both* (Sue, first interview, 29/3/98).

The women recall approaching any contextual barriers as challenges and tried to remain positive in their relationships with colleagues and staff. With the exception of Helen, the principals in this study generally felt supported in their professional development by their organisational and work contexts. Usually there was someone with faith in their potential that *provided opportunities* and *indirect support*. “There were also development experiences and initiatives contributing to their growing sense of self-efficacy and determination to seek further challenges” (Hall, 1996:58).

Culture

Opportunities to develop cultural bonds were frequently assessed and formally achieved through assemblies and century-old rituals and celebrations. Staff and students had a sense of belonging to a “bigger whole” and usually felt increased motivation to achieve both school and personal goals. This ethic of inclusion underlying leadership action, supports earlier analyses of women in educational administration (Neville, 1988, Shakeshaft, 1989, Strachan, 1993, Barnes, 1994, Jones, 1997, Hall, 1996).

Other Environmental Influences

Jill’s life-long commitment to her religious Order means that she has had extended periods away from teaching and educational administration. However, Jill’s experience outside the classroom has reinforced her belief *in developing the ‘all round’ student or staff member* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). Through her spiritual beliefs and religious values, Jill maintains her focus on holistic development.

Sue’s frustration over her immobility, married to a fourth generation farmer, was one situation where she felt powerless to change. However, that earlier frustration became her personal motivation to complete a bachelor’s degree, *to catch up with others* [with the same service] *who were getting quite a lot more than me* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

After three years as an assistant teacher, Helen wanted to travel to broaden her horizons. On her return, she was appointed to a head of department’s position in a private school. However, she later found (due to Education Department criteria) that she was *having to work out time as an assistant while doing the SM’s job* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

Self-knowledge

All participants gained broad experience, in as many aspects of educational leadership as possible, before entering any senior management position. Valerie Hall (1996:88) acknowledges that, “any absence of self-knowledge creates organisational cultures characterised by suspicion and fear, in which people feel relatively impotent”. These women became principals only when they had developed the necessary expertise and had their own agenda for school leadership.

Leaders who have sought to realise their own potential create organisational settings in which everyone assumes responsibility for their own development and growth. Asplund (1988:96) concludes “respect for others has to be based on self-respect and a clear-sighted sense of one’s own integrity”. In her experience, people who doubt their own competencies are generally those who “cling to a formal position and the superficial symbols of power as a basis for authority and prestige”.

Assuming Leadership Responsibility

The women’s primary responsibility was to be an educational leader. This was achieved largely by ensuring efficient and effective management systems and by professionally developing, challenging and empowering staff. The principals entered teaching mainly for intrinsic reasons and continued to attain principalships, motivated by their increased autonomy and the opportunity to implement their educational visions. They consistently worked on fostering and nurturing high quality professional and personal relationships within their school communities.

All participants viewed their “leadership influence” as a fluid phenomenon, or an abstract dynamic expanding only as a direct result of illustrated competencies and not from their formal status. As leaders, they do not ask anything of their staff that they have not done themselves, supporting similar findings by Fauth, (1984). They, therefore, led by example.

Participants believed in the “wholeness” of human experience, thereby supporting work by Pitner (1981) and Josefowitz (1980). Data clearly illustrate a firm commitment to collaborative, self-improvement strategies to improve educational outcomes. The women continue to expect the best of their staff, treating them as competent professionals and “resourceful humans” (Hall, 1996:117) when dealing with issues of human resource management.

Mentors

Three women spoke of times in their careers when they had been influenced or directly assisted by a colleague or another professional (Hill, 1994). Helen, Rose, Bev and Jill received professional guidance during their careers, supporting studies concluding that successful managers are generally assisted, in advancing their careers, by another person (for example see Jackson, 1993, McKeen and Burke, 1989, Reich, 1986, Walker and Stott, 1993).

Helen received professional guidance from former principals, colleagues and, occasionally from Board members. Later, another principal took her *under his wing* when she was applying for a deputy principal's position. Helen believed she was viewed as a young teacher *worthy of encouragement and support* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98).

As an assistant teacher, Bev received encouragement from her English Head of Department, whom she succeeded, following his sudden death. Later, Bev *worked very closely and learned an enormous amount* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) from her predecessor.

Rose *received support and encouragement* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98) from a former principal, while she was a head of department and, later, as a deputy principal. In direct contrast, however, Sue and Mary recall receiving very little professional support within their school contexts, supporting the findings of Woo (1985), Betz and Fitzgerald (1987) and Barnes (1994), who found that women are less likely to have mentors or career sponsors.

Career Development

The traditional concept of career is being challenged "by socio-cultural changes directly expressed through the lives of individual principals and teachers" (Limerick, 1995:68). Historically, the typical career path was understood to be linear in nature, characterised by a series of progressive stages towards seniority and higher status.

Earlier analyses of educational administration literature illustrate linear career progression. However those researched have been mainly men (Barnes, 1994). Some writers say that their temporal and statistical gains have usually been at the expense and the exclusion of women (Shakeshaft, 1989, Court, 1989, Jones, 1996).

Data in this study illustrate the ways in which a variety of professional and personal factors impacted on the participants' career decisions. While Herriot (1992) recommends using metaphors besides career "ladders", Huberman (1989:23) argues that teacher career development is:

....a process. For some this process may be linear but for others there will be plateaus, regressions, dead ends, spurts, discontinuities. So the identification of phases and sequences must be handled gingerly as an analytical heuristic, as a descriptive rather than a normative concept.

Like Hall's participants, the six women in this study "made choices that enabled them to combine work and personal/family commitments, whether or not they had children" (1996:185). Sue relieved *part-time* while her children were small, which was often a struggle. Rose was forced to withdraw from some of her interests, to focus on being *super-mum*. While she has never married, Helen admitted that she would have left teaching to raise a family, had it become an option for her. Like Rose, Helen believes that *children really need their mothers* [at home] *during those early years* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). Other studies describe women leaders constructing 'accommodated' careers, in which they juggle family and work commitments (Evetts, 1987) in ever changing patterns.

Limerick (1995) also suggests that the career development of women leaders fluctuates and changes. From the data there were times in the participants' lives when they were more or less "career ambitious" (ibid). The researcher would theorise that the earlier parental expectation of *always doing your best* was embedded into the participants' psyches, both as mothers (for Sue and Rose) and as school leaders. It, therefore, was "natural" for each of the six women to continue to explore further challenges, when they felt both ready and able to do so.

While the only participant who has had uninterrupted, linear career progression in this study is Mary, the women all aimed to achieve a sense of balance and control in their lives, thereby supporting the findings of Mercer (1993) and Palmer (1997). They found that an inner 'locus of control' was important to the women leaders they studied.

When asked to sum up either their general attitude upon entering senior management, Rose recalls that she *must have turned into an opportunist*, while Helen had always *aimed to attain the top*. Mary, too, realised that, after a few years in one position, she needed to *seek greater challenges* while Jill had usually been *tasked with responsibility* by her religious order. Only Bev and Sue experienced *an untenable situation*. Bev had been *declined a mortgage application* in the district where she was teaching and had taken affirmative action *by moving out of the area to another school and another position*. Sue returned from a year's study award to find that a young man had replaced her in her deaning role and felt the need to apply for an assistant principal's position in another school.

Attitudes To Feminism and Feminist Leadership Theory

Reading feminist leadership literature challenged the researcher's preconceptions about feminism and its underlying principles of emancipation, empowerment and social justice:

Feminist discourse is devoted to revealing how apparently technical and practical meanings construct women's dis-empowerment and drive women into serving, rather than challenging, masculine domination either by behaving like men or like women as constituted by men. Feminist management requires explicit commitment to forms of organisation that reflect and value women's strengths. While acknowledging the limits set by political and economic structures, opportunities offered for such activity exist within educational organisations, particularly if principles of reflection and critical pedagogy are translated into organisational processes (Ozga and Walker, in Limerick and Lingard, 1995:39).

While there was *empathy for earlier feminist issues* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) and a belief that early feminists had *achieved a lot* for women, the participants viewed feminism *outdated* as a concept and, as a label, *difficult to apply in the 1990s* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). While Bev would have described herself as a feminist during the seventies, she is now *pro-women* and very much for young women entering any occupation of their choice. Sue felt *the ethos of the day allows them* [young women] *to be who they want to be* and that she herself has *moved on* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Excluding Bev's earlier experiences, when she was refused a bank mortgage, the other principals generally acknowledged few gender barriers in their personal and professional lives. This is probably due to the limitations of this study's sample of five to one: women leading five girls' schools with mainly female staff, leaving only Sue principal of a co-educational school with a male deputy and a greater number of men on her staff.

Despite the participants' views and attitudes towards feminism, many aspects of their leadership could easily have been integrated into a feminist reconstruction of educational leadership, thereby supporting Hall's (1996) findings. The women in both this, and Hall's study "sought to act with others, rather than exert power over them" (ibid:193).

Values of inclusion, care, empowerment, affiliation and collaboration were evident. "Critical pedagogy", "continuous improvement" and "reflection" were also common themes in the leadership of the women, supporting earlier analyses of women leaders by Al Khalifa (1989), Helgesen (1990), Barnes (1994) and Adler *et al* (1993).

PART TWO: THE PRINCIPALSHIP IN A NEW RIGHT CONTEXT

Introduction

Autonomy and owning processes in order to "make things happen" was a major reason for the six women entering their first principalships. They recognised that they had learned a lot from observing others and wanted to remain in positions where others would learn positively from them.

Data suggest that these women were constantly balancing professional distance with closeness and that professionalism was part of their role as a leader and standing apart from their staff as required. However, their preference for open, collaborative leadership almost required a certain intimacy, since it was based on what Hall terms "the primacy of good relationships" (1996:107). The participants placed a high priority on being available to people, feeling that they could often diffuse potentially difficult issues, while providing support when most needed.

Data illustrate that the six principals employed a range of “participative” and “consultative” (Powney and Weiner, 1992) leadership approaches, thereby supporting Hall’s (1996) conclusions. However, all of the women emphasised that they would and could make executive decisions, *exercising formal power when appropriate* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). The researcher is mindful here of the limitations of the single perspective data collection making it impossible to cross-reference leadership styles, by interviewing the participants’ staff.

While earlier analyses of women in educational administration have highlighted androcentric school leadership environments (as experienced by Bev in an earlier school) as an everyday occurrence for many women in education (Court, 1994), five of six principals studied did not experience gender as a barrier. Once again, the limiting research sample of five girls’ schools, where women are in the majority, is probably why issues of gender are marginalised in this study.

Instead of being suppressed or eclipsed by men, data illustrate that five of the six women felt free to be themselves, always open-minded; always looking for better or improved ways of doing things, supporting the findings of Ramsey *et al*, (1991) as well as Hall’s (1996) study. They describe high levels of work satisfaction (Caldwell, 1994) and appear to be dealing with “New Right” educational reforms well. Internal educational initiatives always take precedence over external administrative requirements. This study does not, therefore, support Sullivan’s (1994:16) assertion that “it [the market model of school management] reduces the ability of the principal to work collaboratively with teachers and pupils”.

A “New Right” emphasis on efficiency and accountability was a daily reality. The principals had to be skilled time managers in order to achieve their goals and objectives. There was a shared priority on instructional tasks while administrivia was often completed after hours. All participants felt pressured to be consistently available to staff and parents. Working with an open door had taken its toll on stress levels and health generally, with the women all describing periods when they constantly felt tired, worn out and “under siege”.

Concerning to all participants, however, is their lack of direct involvement in students’ learning (Huberman, 1993,) and the perennial issue of dealing with incompetent staff (Wylie, 1994, Park *et al*, 1995).

Power

Investigating early family experiences for clues about the awareness of power and influence suggests that the participants both interpret and use power in specific ways. Although family origins are not exclusively influential on future values and beliefs, early socialisation “shapes perceptions of which resources achieve which results” (ibid:44). Like the women in Hall’s (1996) study, the participants’ fathers represented formal authority, albeit in a quiet way.

Sue, Bev, Helen, Jill and Rose were all raised with brothers. Therefore, these women may have been exposed to a wider range of strategies for using power and influence (ibid) within different situations. The participants’ mothers also exhibited strategies for using “influence”, in mainly domestic contexts. These strategies have become part of the repertoire of skills used in the participants later developing important relationships and networking as school leaders.

Data illustrate that sustaining an effective and consistent performance as principals was dependent on developing and using “personal power”. Cantor and Bernay’s (1992) study of women in power in the United States shows personal power and a belief in empowering others as a pivotal feature of what they call “Women Power”, defined in the light of women’s experiences. All six principals fully understood the influence that their formal power could effect. They saw the legitimacy of their claim to be in charge of the school as valid, only in so far as they demonstrated self-control, again supporting Hall’s (1996) study.

Data illustrate that formal power had to be earned and shared; thereby supporting analyses by Wheatley, (1981) and Marshall, (1984) who claim that relationships benefit from on-going nurturing and belief in subordinates. Data in Chapter Four show that the women viewed “power to” and not “over” others, thereby, supporting many earlier studies about women and power by Neville, (1988), Court, (1989), Blackmore, (1989), Adler *et al* (1993) and Strachan (1997).

Although this study sample is small, data illustrate that the participants viewed power as a positive, effective medium to “role model attitudes” and sensitivities. They also demonstrated a need to “establish the legitimacy of their authority as leaders, without damaging their acceptability as women” (Hall, 1996:188).

Data illustrate perceived links between power being shared by school leaders and improved educational outcomes. All participants challenged, developed and empowered staff and students to think “outside the square” and to seek innovative and “better ways” of doing things, thereby supporting Jones’(1997) study. They *shared power* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). They claimed the best results happened because *power expands when it is shared* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

People and people issues always came before routine and administrivia.

Participants in this study took great satisfaction in *empowering others* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) to achieve educational aims. It was clearly the intrinsic rewards, associated with their respective positions, which were the most valued; therefore, supporting claims by Lowther (1982), Huberman (1993), Wylie (1997) and Hall (1996).

Power in this study was visible and non-routine. It was never viewed as strictly hierarchical or linear. Rather, it was used to build cross-curricular and collaborative allegiances in the six schools studied, again supporting Neville’s (1988) and Hall’s (1996) findings.

Leadership Values

All participants had very clear leadership goals. They shared a deep commitment to teaching and learning, with similar results to Palmer’s (1997) study, highlighting a desire among principals and deputies to improve the quality of teaching and learning.

The participants’ leadership was founded on *modelling attitudes* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98), raising standards and *leading by example* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). They walked the talk. The women all felt that their success depended on their own efforts and “on not displaying any weaknesses” (Hall, 1996:185).

Underpinning their leadership action were values of care, inclusion, responsibility, consistency and empowerment (Evetts, 1987), thereby, supporting earlier analyses of women in educational administration by Neville, (1988), Blackmore, (1989), Packer, (1993) and Hall, (1996). Also evident was a shared *determination to succeed* (Jill, first interview 27/3/98), which has not, to the researcher’s knowledge, been so widely documented in earlier analyses of women in educational leadership literature.

The participants worked against formal hierarchy, collaboratively focusing on students, staff and curriculum. While confident with financial management issues, the women considered these simply to be a means to their educational objectives end, thereby, supporting claims by Adler *et al*, (1993), Ozga, (1993) and Shakeshaft, (1987).

Metaphors For Leadership

As leaders, the women saw themselves as *exemplars* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98), *opportunists* (Rose, first interview, 23/3/98) and *facilitators* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). Three principals also used the metaphor of “community” to describe what they were aiming to achieve with their school cultures. They described *felt* ties between people. They believed that an underlying human need was the need to *belong to a larger whole* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Their leadership was literally “embedded” (Grundy, 1989:173) in their respective organisational communities. They shared commitment to educational ends and “a faith in human capacity and potential”(ibid).

It is worthwhile reviewing the origins of the word “community” at this point. “Gemeinschaft”, translating to community, was first used in the social sciences by Ferdinand Tonnies in the late nineteenth century. Tonnies believed that industrialisation initiated a social transformation from “gemeinschaft” to “gesellschaft”, meaning society. Organisational relationships became prescribed, competitive and formally bound with the most value placed on those individuals who produced the most. Therefore, organisational life increasingly encouraged individualism and self-interest.

Historically, schools have been organised hierarchically, rather than as communities. The formal structure of schools encourages individual departments, senior schools and junior schools and individual form classes. In the curriculum, there has also historically been a separation between so-called soft and hard subjects, with some subjects valued over others. Large schools, in particular, are less likely to be organised as communities. Yet, many of the problems faced by schools today may be due to their lack of community (Sergiovanni, 1990).

Communities are places where people share experiences, ideas and values and *want* to be a part. If we acknowledge that people need to belong to a group with similar values and desires then a challenge exists for school leaders. There has been considerable literature on schools as “learning communities” (Ratzki 1988, Sergiovanni , 1992, Aburdene *et al* 1993, McRae, 1995, Shachar *et al* 1995). Michael Hough (1997) in Creating Quality Learning Communities describes how having a core of shared beliefs is fundamental to achieving a sense of community in schools:

Schools as learning communities are dynamic, creative organisations bonded by a core of shared beliefs which are a continual point of reference for the school as it continues to adapt and change, responding to the needs of the community to provide quality learning experiences (ibid:111).

It is the experience of shared learning and shared achieving which Hough (ibid) believes is essential to creating a shared vision for the future. Decision-making in communities is usually oriented around consultative and collegial models. Hough (ibid) compares this approach to more traditional, autocratic and bureaucratic models:

Consultative and collegial decision-making models are much more open than autocratic and bureaucratic models and can allow the flow of knowledge from the school community to the key players in the decision-making system. These flows usually take place through committees or formal staff meetings, parents’ meetings or student representative meetings.

All participants placed a high priority on *including staff* in as many important issues and decisions as possible. They felt it was *empowering* and *motivating* for staff to feel valued and *hooked in* to the communication loop. Collaborative activities enriched a cultural sense of belonging, thereby, supporting findings by Palmer (1997). The women believed that the best work was achieved by staff *wanting to be there* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). A school culture integrating all-round achievement, service to the wider community and care and concern for others was fundamental to the school as a learning community.

Leadership Fronts

Like the women in Hall's study, the participants considered very carefully any messages they wanted to communicate as leaders; how they spoke; how they looked and moved as well as their actions, with whom and when. This sensitivity to others guided their actions. There are links here to the participants' accounts of their childhood and the importance of them winning parental approval.

Hall (1996) maintains that "the sensitivity to others' responses that traps some women into subordination can be used" by women seeking leadership positions "to assess expectations and situations that shape them through assertive behaviour"(ibid). She considered leadership "image" as a necessary façade created by leaders in their enactment of practical leadership. However, Hall concluded that it was very important to have "integrity" (ibid:185) and to show consistency in interactions.

A sensitivity to others' perceptions, combined with an awareness of consistent personal values assists the women in this study in developing *innate intuition* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) which serves them well as school leaders. They aimed to be and been seen to be *thoroughly prepared*.

Data illustrate that self-control has to be a reality and not a charade, thereby supporting Lipham and Franke's (1966) assumption about the integrity of leadership behaviour. There is an expectation that you have to present well, both as a woman and as a principal. Bev felt she was being *quietly assessed daily* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Intuition and confidence are the result of years of experience. Nine years into her principalship, Bev describes developing *a sixth sense* about others and describes it as *liberating*.

Senior Management Support

Tomorrow's Schools' reforms ushered in new responsibilities within the senior management structure in schools. Fundamentally, principals assumed the role of "change agents", with increasingly important support from deputy and assistant principals. However, a gradual separation between senior management functions and the rest of the teaching staff "who see increasing workloads, no change in remuneration and the effects of increasing competition between schools", (Pringle, 1992:165) has occurred.

The autonomy and the authority of the principals' role (Jones, 1987, Wylie, 1994) enables the women in this study to put their individual stamp on their respective schools, as Palmer noted in her (1997) study of principals and deputy principals. To do this, with the exception of Helen, the participants found that they depended heavily on their senior management teams.

Mary, Helen and Rose inherited teams with their positions, whereas Jill, Bev and Sue had the opportunity to *re-structure and appoint support teams* who would *compliment their personal leadership strengths* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). They recognised that the success of their school leadership was dependent on inter-personal human dynamics and the level of trust between senior managers; thereby, supporting earlier findings by Neville (1988), Jones (1996) and Hall (1996).

While working inclusively and collaboratively on many levels, the women also believed that there was a need for *a top three* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98), as *staff see a hierarchy there* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). All six women were acutely aware of the many professional development opportunities existing for their senior managers in this context, where deputies and assistants would exercise ideas and learn to view the school through a leader's lens.

Sue opted to extend her senior management team to include five people in order *to give additional staff the opportunity to work in administration*. This strategy proved to be very successful and Sue said *was viewed as such by other co-educational principals* in her area (Sue, first interview, 29/3/98). As with one participant in Hall's (1996) study, the collaborative approach Sue encouraged involved, "not only being consulted and involved in decision making but also taking on tasks and responsibilities, often high-profile ones" (ibid:175).

Trust was essential for ensuring a smooth, *seamless and successful public front* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) for any senior management team. The success of a senior management team, or 'SMT', also depends very much on the human dynamics of the personalities involved. Creating a tight-knit SMT provides greater opportunities to implement vision and *positively enhance student learning* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98); thereby, supporting Park *et al's* (1995) conclusions.

Helen is still working through a number of senior management issues, in addition to preparing for her school's pending integration. She feels the additional strain of coping with additional senior management tasks that she *would have expected of them* [the assistant principal and the deputy principal] *but which aren't being done* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). However, Helen remains positive and believes that she will soon effect *a collaborative and satisfying result* (first interview, 26/3/98) for all concerned.

Self-Managing Schools

Within a "New Right" context, principals are now accountable as 'change agents' at the macro-external environmental level, while pursuing democratic and consultative ways of working at the micro-internal organisational level (Strachan, 1997). However, power can be redistributed in a self-managing context (Blackmore, 1993) when staff are empowered to assist with school aims and objectives. The principals were determined to lead by example, *maintaining a strong instructional focus* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98), with four of them *actively involved* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) in teaching programmes, thereby, supporting findings by Grace, (1995).

Earlier literature suggests that the pressure to conform to male bureaucratic norms of leadership would be great (Cooper, 1995). However, these women "actively sought ways to give others voice" (Strachan, 1997:212) and were prepared to use their formal power to encourage others *to reach outside the square* and develop in a *holistic* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98) way. As Neville (1988) affirms in her earlier analysis of women principals, the women are able to practice alternative models of leadership because they are principals.

However, the women described feeling *under siege* due to the *incessant paperwork* and the mounting managerial responsibilities of their broad roles. They also felt *very tired* and often in need of an *overseas holiday* where they could relax and get away from people and telephones. They reported stress, increased workloads, the burden of additional management tasks and uncontrollable variables like health; supporting earlier research by Holland (1991), Cooper and Kelly (1993), Wylie (1994 and 1997) and Riehl and Byrd (1997).

Jill Blackmore (in Limerick and Lingard, 1995:51) believes:

While principal's practice demands closer attention to the personal and social relationships so important to educational contexts and to emotional management.....the dominant managerialist discourse.....positions principals as being task-orientated, not relationship or educationally orientated.

Blackmore (1989) believes "there are now sets of power relations which undercut professional collegiality between staff and the principals, as principals are given increased responsibility for staff appraisal, job allocation and performance payments".

As school leaders, who have actively implemented all policy changes brought about by Tomorrow's Schools, the women have experienced dramatic changes for staff at all levels. They are faced with increased administration in their roles, increased class sizes and increased contact time. Despite increased supervision, performance management and accountability, the participants said that they were coping.

The women continued to see themselves as educational leaders as opposed to managers, confirming findings by Trembath (1994), Wylie (1997) and Sullivan (1994). To achieve educational aims, they relied heavily on their senior managers for *additional support* and *shared responsibility* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) where they could. As role models, they set and maintained *high standards of professionalism* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98) and behaviour. Appraisal and professional development were conducted in a supportive and formative context. However, there was always an *emphasis on continuous improvement* (Mary, first interview, 6/4.98) and on-going self-development.

The New Right And Ethical Leadership

The women spoke of the importance of integrity and honesty in their interactions with others. They believed that, in today's society and in a "New Right" environment, values and high standards were *more important than ever before* (Bev, first interview 27/3/98). To be effective and to develop leadership influence, the women felt the need to empower others and to *raise expectations of desired behaviours* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98). In seeking a definitive view of ethical leadership, Mike Bottery (1989:186) believes it must be critical; transformative; visionary; educative; empowering; liberating; personally ethical; organisationally ethical and responsible.

Data in this study illustrate an awareness of the responsibility and accountability of school leadership. All very committed teachers and educationalists, the principals described having a personal vision for their schools, focused on improving teaching and learning. They also expressed a desire to empower students and staff whenever possible. While collaborative on some levels, when deemed appropriate, the women showed responsibility by making *the tough decisions* because *the buck definitely stops here* (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98). Bev confirmed, *I am the leader and manager of this school and, at times, I do manage rather than lead* (first interview, 27/3/98).

1990s management discourses emerged in a context striving for economy, efficiency and accountability, whatever the rhetoric of quality and choice claims (Strachan, 1997). However, despite critics of the reforms warning of a potential conflict between “New Right” values of efficiency and accountability and values underpinning instructional leadership, these women claim to be working successfully and collaboratively within their respective contexts. While Bev was critical about many aspects of the ways in which the reforms were ushered in, she emphasised *improved processes and procedures* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98), thereby supporting Ramsay’s (1993) findings.

A Balancing Act

Shakeshaft (1989:197) claims, “the line separating the public and private worlds [of women leaders] blurs for them”. This was also the case with Bev, Jill and Helen, all of whom have never married. Between them, they have totalled an impressive 40 years as principals. Yet they describe the on-going challenge to achieve any amount of quality personal time.

Achieving a balance was recently imposed on Bev, when she was diagnosed with a serious illness. Rest and relaxation have now become an enforced way of life. Bev very recently had to reluctantly accept taking early retirement. Jill and Helen are “on call” 24 hours a day during term time, which is typical of the many leadership responsibilities attached to school hostels. Both women have significant and challenging workloads. However, they are passionate about what they do and juggling priorities (including time for self) “goes with the territory”. However, not one of the women would choose to be anywhere else.

Mary, Sue and Rose, as married women, enjoy the support of their respective partners. Rose’s husband takes care of most domestic aspects, including the gardening. However, Rose previously provided the *expected, domestic support* for 12 years while raising their three children. Her husband’s support was vital to her successfully achieving *a comfortable balance between home and school*; thereby supporting the findings of Neville (1988) and Woo (1985).

Sue’s husband was an ex-teacher while Mary’s husband was still teaching and very supportive of her. Sue tried to achieve a reasonable amount of leisure time, which was difficult when school responsibilities totalled many weekday hours and some weekends. However, Mary had more leisure time than she ever managed during her first principalship, believing that there are more pressures existing in a small school where there were fewer levels of leadership support.

Regardless of time restrictions, the women tend to resist hierarchical and bureaucratic models of decision-making, unless when absolutely necessary (Neville, 1988). Within a collegial framework, participants see a special place reserved for senior management teams, representing a mini-hierarchy with a three-pronged focus: offering vital support to the principal; providing a very important link with staff and assisting in implementing and maintaining the school vision. However, in spite of teamwork, the women often felt isolation as the principal; thereby, supporting findings by Hall (1996). They found it difficult to share their inner most thoughts with anyone else at school.

School Competition

“Since the abolishment of school zoning in 1991, schools are no longer assured of a market based on their surrounding population” (Pringle and Timperley, 1995:164). Furthermore, any schools who are full can adopt an enrolment policy stating on what basis they would open their doors to students.

“Competition between schools for students is supposed to act as a powerful incentive for schools to respond to parental wishes” (ibid). Zoning, therefore, was initially considered a protectionist device keeping students within the schools grasp irrespective of parental wishes and favouring the schools, not the clients (ibid).

The real impact of zoning on New Zealand schooling has been widespread. In the provincial area studied, schools ‘bus’ students from surrounding areas; many from rural districts up to an hour away. The five girls’ schools studied, therefore, could be considered, to a certain extent, to be in competition with each other. Both private schools were facing the economic necessity of pending integration. As Sue’s co-educational school was located in the middle of several other co-educational schools, it, therefore, was in direct competition with both girls’ schools and co-education schools. She felt the competition *daily*.

Helen and Rose expect their (currently declining) rolls to increase after integration as enrolments, for 1999, from girls attending other local, state secondary schools have been steady. However, the two state girls’ schools were enjoying steady roll growth, with one recently exercising an enrolment policy. While co-education principal Sue acknowledges a pull towards single sex education, she does not feel that the trend is based on any perceived lack of co-educational merit. Rather, she believes that, in tough economic times, *there is always a tendency to fall back on traditional values generally associated with single sex education*. Sue continues to advocate the special co-educational qualities of her school, with wider subject options and the rich cultural diversity of her students.

School Image

The socio-economic rating, or class constituency, of a school often reflects the skills and abilities of community members and parents availability to provide guidance (Gordon, 1993, Kelsey, 1995, Wylie, 1994, 1997 cited in Palmer, 1997).

Sue's co-educational (decile three) high school and Mary's (decile two) girls' high school were most directly affected by the region's economic downturn. School image was becoming, for these two principals, a perennial issue. Staff required more encouragement and externally driven motivation to pull together and to take pride in their schools.

Sue and Mary saw their roles, as principals, as that of "cultural high priest" (Schein, 1992), whereby they were responsible for creating and manifesting a cultural direction building on and enhancing the cultural richness of the majority of people in their school community. Neither principal enjoyed dealing with staff who lacked pride in their school, or who lacked the initiative or emotional investment required to increase the quality of educational experiences offered. They spoke emotionally and passionately about their staff and students, with holistic and emotional expectations of them.

School leadership for these women was a multi-faceted discipline. Mary's cultural and professional challenge was to reshape her school's culture to be more academically focused. She felt it was her responsibility and her staff's responsibility to raise student self-expectations. Many of Mary's students were from poor backgrounds and she believed her school represented, for many of them, a "make or break" situation - a last attempt to break the cycle.

Sue also had a wider social justice agenda for "at risk" students. She wanted them to be able to look back on the school and feel that it really set them up for life and she constantly received positive feedback from parents and guardians. Culturally, Sue saw herself holding the "taonga" which is the school.

In spite of several reservations about school competition, Sue and Mary saw the potential leverage existing for facilitating necessary changes. They were realistically driven by a desire to make their schools successful, more marketable and "special". When staff did leave for promotion, they saw this as complimentary to their school leadership and to their professional development and guidance generally.

As principals of decile six and seven schools respectively, Bev and Jill could be regarded as being in direct competition with each other. They are less than one kilometre apart and, therefore, they cater to the same geographical area. However, Jill's school is an integrated Catholic school, reserving only a handful of places, each year, for non-Catholic students. Bev's school roll has always been healthy. However, there is so much demand for spaces in her school that Bev recently had to exercise an enrolment policy. Both principals felt less of the inter-school competition which concerned the other four schools in this study.

Both private schools were integrating from economic necessity. However, Helen and Rose felt there would be more advantages than disadvantages. They were looking forward to increased roll growth while retaining their school's special characters. Helen felt that her school needed a more rigorous academic focus, especially for the senior students. She had articulated this to parents and staff and felt that, if everyone worked as a team toward this aim, they would soon effect improved educational outcomes. Both principals originally worked in the state system and, therefore, looked positively towards introducing more stringent performance management measures following integration.

Both Mary and Sue worked in lower socio-economic districts. Mary was 'reshaping' her school's culture after the democracy of her long-serving predecessor. She was *raising academic expectations* for her students because she believes *if we don't, then who will?* (Mary, first interview, 6/4/98). However, Sue maintains that the background of her students is very relevant to their achievement and feels *all staff should temper their relationships* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98) with individual students.

School Governance

The women described very close relationships with their respective school boards. They felt they were generally *very supportive* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) and only occasionally reactive, as identified by Wylie (1997). The women viewed their schools as complex social, cultural and economic entities and, as such, required boards' skills encompassing *more than good intentions* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98). In recent terms, the women remarked on *the increased skill levels of successive boards* (Jill, first interview, 27/3/98), especially Helen, Jill and Bev as second-time principals, due to an increasing awareness of educational issues and the *transformational* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98) nature of schooling.

“Executive reporting” was identified by Ballard and Duncan (1989) as one of the three major functions for principals. In terms of day to day management, the women were given *carte blanche*, provided they kept board of trustees *informed about important developments* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). Potential conflicts only arose when governance and management functions became blurred. *The board’s role is to govern*, (Helen, first interview, 26/3/98) which Helen has had to diplomatically illustrate on at least one occasion during her second principalship. Since her arrival as a second-time principal, there have been *fewer members trying to ‘meddle’ in day to day school management*.

Board-principal “partnerships” in this study, therefore, were founded upon open, timely and accurate communication and trust. This contrasts with Bolam *et al’s* (1993) conclusion that boards tend to be more reactive than proactive. Data fail to support Codd’s (1990) claim that principals are placed in a difficult position, as full board members and as instructional leaders. The principal’s collective experience, before entering a principalship, brought added confidence and insight into the best way to approach difficult governance issues, should they have arisen. The women were coping well with their dual responsibilities.

Summary

Data collected in this study closely mirrors Valerie Hall’s (1996) study of six women heads of schools in Britain. The researcher has adopted Hall’s study as an overarching, theoretical framework on which to base her analysis and conclusions. While this study did not focus on gender differences between men and women school leaders, it exposed many similarities in the ways in which the participants enacted practical educational leadership.

Despite being raised in six differing family contexts, these women shared strong community values and an expectation that determination was required to complete any endeavour, regardless of how insignificant it may be. While personal development and self-knowledge, a prerequisite for being an effective principal, was something which developed within the women in a variety of ways, a strong, focused “sense-of-self” was evident in all six women, thereby supporting Hall’s (ibid) conclusions. Given a few “challenging situations” and uncontrollable variables, these women were gradually shaped into the school leaders they are today.

As with Hall's study, the principals were sensitive to developments in their personal lives when making any decisions about their professional development. They viewed their lives holistically, weighing up any ramifications from their decisions for others who depended on them in some way. This holistic view of their personal relationships was often transposed into their view of school leadership. Seeking out "best practices", while utilising personal networks and community relationships, was fundamentally important to the leadership of all six women. They saw every interaction as being important to fulfilling their educational goals.

It is not surprising, then, that developing "leadership insight", holistically and globally was, for Bev, Jill and Sue, the primary motivator in pursuing extramural qualifications in educational administration, rather than any real desire for academic kudos. Career development did not feature ambition, in terms of seeking status, but rather the desire to reach a position where there was enough "scope" to use their abilities to effect improved teaching and learning. The women modelled the high standards of behaviour they expected from staff and were strong advocates for on-going professional development.

Increasing responsibility was tagged to increasing formal power and influence. As in Hall's study, formal power was utilised in ways directly linked to the core leadership values shared by all six women, oriented around a deep personal commitment to teaching and learning. The leadership metaphor of "learning community" was an important ethical concept for the women and fundamental to them in effecting their leadership initiatives. However, they would make any executive decisions, as and when the need arose. The community ethic was considered even more important within a 1998 "New Right" educational context, characterised by increasing managerialism, increasing compliance with externally-driven, government mandates as well as dealing with the ramifications of eroding social standards.

The "New Right" has had a dramatic impact on the respective workloads of the six principals. While they have all felt the stresses and strains of increased managerialism and inter-school competition, each woman believes that she is working well within "New Right" parameters of self-management, efficiency and accountability. However, internal, collaborative initiatives remain a priority over externally-driven, managerial requirements and reporting to outside agencies, again mirroring Hall's (1996) study.

The six schools differed in culture, religion and in socio-economic ratings. However, common to all was a close fit in educational philosophy between the principal, the staff and the board of each school. Reciprocity (Hurty, 1995) and keeping the needs of all stakeholders in mind characterised the principals' leadership.

Since de-zoning, competition had increased between these schools. The women's preference for collaboration may have been interpreted as lacking a competitive edge - a trait usually attributed to men and their early socialisation in childhood games (Hall, 1996). However, data show that the participants were aware of the competitive ethos surrounding recruitment and retention at their schools and spent a considerable amount of time on strategies to reinforce their school culture.

Taking a hard line on social issues is fundamental to ethical (Bottery, 1989) school leadership. The women felt that their school's role in social and pastoral issues and in shaping values and expectations, was steadily increasing. Parental expectations of what schools should be doing extended well beyond the classroom. While many parents seemed to be lost when setting realistic parameters for their children, data illustrate that the traditional values of respect, honesty, loyalty, care and concern for others are as relevant today as they were 100 years ago, when five schools in this study were founded.

This research has as its primary focus the "female world" (Hall, 1996) of secondary school administration, taking into account the personal and professional development experiences of the six principals in the study. School leadership values were derived from experiences ranging from early childhood into adult years and, as Hall argues, "their educational and career experiences can not be divorced from their gender identity as women"(ibid:183). While this study does not focus on the differing ways in which men and women may lead secondary schools, there are implications which may be of interest to men as school leaders and which are discussed here.

PART THREE: IMPLICATIONS / FUTURE RESEARCH, THEORY, PRACTICE

Methodological Weaknesses

As with many earlier studies, there are several methodological weaknesses of this research that may provide a platform from which others may embark on more rigorous and extensive research. Firstly, this study portrays single perspective studies and presents, exclusively, the personal views of the participants. The perceptions of critical others (Ribbins, 1993), therefore, are not sought. Further investigation into the leadership of women principals, which integrates the views of staff and colleagues, therefore, may add a further richness to the data that is not sought here.

The sample size of this study is small and accessible. However, a balance between single-sex and co-educational schools is not achieved. Gender barriers, so often described as problematic to other women, working in masculinist school management hierarchies, are not illustrated by data in this study. A greater number of co-educational women principals, from a variety of geographical areas, would create a greater opportunity to explore the challenges and issues that Sue described but which were not experienced by the other five participants.

The experiences of a Maori woman secondary principal, or one of another ethnic origin, are not included in this study. The participants are pakeha and, therefore, their experiences can not be used to draw theoretical assumptions about the experiences, or socialisation, of women from differing ethnicities. Future research might investigate the leadership styles of women who have been socialised in differing ethnic contexts from the six pakeha women in this research.

Fourth, the sample is comprised of six provincial secondary principals. A similar study of six urban women principals may draw differing conclusions, particularly if the sample focused on women raised by university-educated parents and educated in large cities, or women raised by solo parents.

Implications For Future Research, Theory, Practice

Determination And An “Inner Locus of Control”

The six participants are characterised by a common determination and an inner “locus of control” in response to earlier experiences in their family, their schooling and their teaching. Their “sense of self” is shaped by these situations with obvious implications for the formation of leader and manager identities. Any future research into the gendered nature of organisations should be based on a clearer understanding of how men and women, as individuals, arrive at their conceptions of work-based leadership behaviour (Hall, 1996).

Parent Role Models

A review of early socialisation and childhood shows the varying degrees to which the six women have, directly and indirectly, been influenced by their parents, through various role options and behaviours. Tasks and responsibilities in the family unit were usually structured along traditionally gendered lines. While mothers exhibited strategies for using indirect influence, the participants’ fathers’ affirmation of support assisted them in developing a sense of achievement and self-sufficiency. Therefore, further research is required that investigates the ways in which Maori and ethnic women and men are socialised and whether, or not, they develop alternative gender and cultural lenses which later guide their leadership values. Hall (1996:185) believes that “questions asked of women (about family influences, educational experiences, lifestyle choices, values underpinning career moves) need to also be asked of men as well as other women, for a full understanding of educational leadership”.

Socialisation, Sensitivity And Leadership Purpose

The women are developing greater sensitivity to others and a growing awareness of how they, themselves, are being assessed. This sensitivity is associated with their earlier experiences as girls and young women. Employing leadership strategies for keeping in touch with others requires balancing intimacy with professional distance. When lifestyle commitments occasionally impact on their leadership decisions, as the participants struggle to balance their personal and family responsibilities, one guiding principle is their commitment to young people’s education (ibid) and their commitment to their staffs. Further research into women from other ethnic groups, therefore, would add to our knowledge of the impact of socialisation and inclusion on their leadership purpose.

Women And Power

Throughout Chapter Four, power was defined as “the sharing of resources to achieve desired outcomes”. The six women viewed their formal power in terms of the relationships and “networks of influence” developed with staff, senior colleagues and with school governors. They expressed a need to demonstrate their competencies, as leaders, without compromising their special qualities, or credibility, as women. This gender dimension is not addressed in discussions about how men use power “yet it has considerable implications for the relationships between leaders and followers” (Hall, 1996:188).

Further research into women secondary principals might build on this study and explore the concepts, analogies and stereotypes of leadership which shape our understanding about leaders and about leadership action. The historical, hierarchical, linear model of administration is less relevant to working in a “New Right” educational milieu. New, more flexible models of leadership based on leadership skills, currently labelled as both masculine and feminine, are required. The women in this study are successful school leaders. Their success is founded on their ability to capture the commitment and capacity of their colleagues in working creatively towards agreed school goals.

Gender Barriers

With the exception of Bev being declined a bank mortgage (as a Head of Department) and working in masculinist school environments, this study does not show that gender barriers existed for the other participants on their journeys to principalships. However, 1997 Ministry of Education statistics, outside this study, tell quite a different story. Because the percentage of women secondary principals remains dis-proportionate to men, future research needs to consider why women face barriers to principalships, especially in coeducational schools, and how these barriers can be addressed and resolved.

Sue firmly believes that the only reason she was appointed to her principal's position in a state, coeducational school was because she *had been the AP and the DP and the Board knew I could do the job* (Sue, first interview, 24/3/98).

Leonie Still (1995:112) believes barriers existing for women administrative aspirants are divided into four groups: cultural, organisational, individual and governmental. While there have been attempts to remove some of these barriers (for example, government EEO legislation) the situation is, as Newby, (1992) describes, less like the analogy of a "glass ceiling" and more like a "sticky web" with constraints occurring on many levels simultaneously.

A study of women principals in co-educational secondary schools in both provincial and large urban areas is needed to effectively explore the concept of the sticky web effect described here.

Promoting Women To Principalships In Co-educational Secondary Schools

Regardless of equal employment opportunities' legislation, Ministry of Education statistics (1997) continue to illustrate a slow percentage increase in the number of women appointed to principalships of co-educational, secondary schools. Could it be that co-educational, boards of trustees continue to value rationality and administration over the transformational leadership and collaborative, enabling strategies usually associated with women? Statistics show less than a one percent increase, per year, over the last ten years (Ministry of Education, 1997). However, the effective schools' research points clearly to the importance of an interpersonal, consultative, empowering and transformative leadership style (Beare *et al*, 1989, Shakeshaft, 1995, Hall, 1996).

If we continue to do nothing, the status-quo of nominal increases will probably continue for the next few decades. We, therefore, require far-reaching strategies to ensure greater, gender equity in educational leadership in future. Most researchers recognise that the greatest need lies in changing organisational culture and awareness (Marshall, 1993, Still, 1994, Burton, 1992, Edwards and Meyer, 1994).

In organisations, Still (1994:115) advocates enlisting the support of the Chief Executive Officer as a “public change agent”. However, the dilemma for schools is that the CEO *is* the principal. To have formal power to effect change, you need to *be* a principal. If more women are to be appointed to principal’s positions, especially in co-educational schools, then our future focus must be on developing a culture which values women’s collaborative and empowering ways of working.

Changing attitudes and consciousness-raising must occur at all levels of schooling, from “grass roots” in departments, through levels of middle management into senior management. However, fundamental to an attitudinal shift is raising a critical awareness of EEO issues, with boards and people involved selecting senior management and principal’s positions.

Reshape Cultural Attitudes

Firstly, boards need to be “unfrozen from their cultural attitudes of what makes the best manager”(ibid) and their subconscious prejudices. Boards may, historically, have felt security in appointing a male before a woman, especially in co-educational schools. Boards usually work as a team to evaluate merit and “select” behind a “collective facade”. Greater effort in board training of EEO awareness, therefore, is required, if we are to achieve greater EEO outcomes.

It should become the professional responsibility of trustees to develop greater awareness of their individual life experiences through critical examination and how these experiences impacted on their beliefs, prejudices and values. Secondly, a “consciousness raising” of the awareness of EEO issues is required and why these issues are vital to the future equity of women, in all schools and organisations. The ramifications for greater EEO extend well beyond women entering principalships. Greater EEO would effect a greater integration of Maori and minority groups into leadership positions, as well as into the vital and historically polarised area of knowledge creation, in Universities and areas of higher learning.

Finally, women need to develop new attitudes. Historically, they have been taken for granted and undervalued. They may have had reason, in the past, to feel like victims. However, a new, empowered attitude is required to effect an increase in the statistics. While individual boards' EEO awareness may gradually increase, through more thorough training, women administrative aspirants must also lead by example, illustrating the advantages of "women's ways of working". They should utilise their intuition and initiative. Still believes that "women need to make up their minds whether or not they want to assume power, or share it"(ibid).

Gender Equity In Knowledge Creation

More inquiry and a clear acknowledgement of the issue of gender and organisational effectiveness (Shakeshaft, 1989) is required within education at the highest levels, too. Historically, literature in the field has suffered from 'gender blindness', with debilitating consequences not only for women but also for all minority groups. Jenny Ozga and Lynne Walker (in Limerick and Lingard, 1995:36) explain:

Gender blindness (and lazy borrowing) produce theory about organisations, which uses bureaucracy as a (comfort) blanket term to conceal the messiness, emotion and personal relationships which characterise real life in organisations. The vast, repetitive and intellectually arid literature on leadership recycles idealised masculine virtues of decisiveness, incisiveness and strength. These areas together account for a substantial amount of what passes for theory in education management and they combine to privilege public sphere activity.

Summary

Focusing on gender and school leadership and giving a voice to women's perspectives provides a model for future studies of both men and women, as educational leaders. Questions have been raised about the inter-relationships between home and work, family and career and early childhood experiences and adult values which should be asked of a larger sample of both men and women, representing a wider and more representative sample of socio-economic and cultural origins.

Despite increasing literature about women in educational leadership, by women, the majority of political, professional and bureaucratic power structures continue to be male dominated, particularly in co-educational principalships. One challenge for educational leaders is the acknowledgement of the impact of gender in educational administration effectiveness (Shakeshaft, 1989) and in working towards more equitable outcomes for women generally.

To bring about meaningful change, we need to understand and value “feminised”, collaborative and consultative strategies and develop these in all aspects of educational administration. To break the historical male-defined strangle-hold over educational management discourses and positions of power, we need to scrutinise male values and beliefs. We need to ensure that school boards and selection panels receive comprehensive EEO and equity awareness training, particularly individuals who are actively appointing principals in primary and secondary schools.

The ethic of care and respect for others, which many women are socialised from an early age to perform, is a fundamental, non-negotiable principle of transformative leadership for structural change. There are some very real benefits for the whole of New Zealand society, if we more widely develop the ethic of caring for others. We must also break the historic dualisms of “hard versus soft”; “rational versus emotional” and “administration versus teaching” (Blackmore, in Limerick and Lingard, 1995:51) on which the education system has been constructed. Until then, we will not see a dramatic increase in the number of women as secondary co-educational principals, or an increase in women as senior management “exemplars”. Maddy McMaster and Shirley Randall (1995:64) have the final word in this thesis:

We cannot legislate to change people’s minds. Those of us who have been working in this field for most of our lives know how slow value and attitude change is and how much inner work needs to be done on the attitudes, feelings and patterns of belief of both men and women before deep behavioural change will occur. Transformation of the heart and mind is needed to ensure that equality within difference becomes the instinctual norm for both sexes in the home, workplace and society.

POSTSCRIPT

Reflecting on the above conclusions drawn from this study, the researcher felt that several “loose threads” warranted further discussion and clarification, before submitting this thesis.

During two years of preparation, research, analysis and writing, the researcher has learnt a considerable amount about women and school leadership, not only from her preliminary reading and the research itself, but from re-reading and reflecting on important issues and concerns. On reflection, Sue’s experiences differed significantly from those of the other women and her experiences have had a significant impact on the researcher. However, there is no doubt that the real strength of this thesis lies in data collected from the five principals of girls’ schools.

Reflecting On Sue

Why were Sue’s experiences so different? Does the clue lie in her early childhood? Sue’s data mirrored similarities with early experiences recalled by the other five participants. Like Rose, Jill, Mary, Helen and Bev, Sue was raised in a close-knit family. Her parents lived by Christian ethics and were also heavily involved in community activities. Sue clearly remembers her parents saying *always do good unto others* (second interview, 29/5/98). This early principle was faithfully followed and later extended when Sue’s philosophy shifted to one of *empowering others* rather than merely helping them.

More than the others, Sue was a forceful and articulate advocate for the rights of students from the poorer socio-economic backgrounds. While some students from upper, socio-economic families attend Sue’s school out of choice, she has a high percentage of Maori and Polynesian students (in addition to a number of other ethnicities) from adjacent state housing areas.

Sue’s philosophical approach to school leadership embraced a stringent social agenda, especially for ‘at risk’ students, of *cultural empowerment* and *raising expectations of self*. Sue had high expectations of every student achieving specific goals and she expected her staff to assist in developing strategies and creating innovative opportunities.

Sue described feeling exhausted by fighting the public perception that her school was not as good as some of the other local coeducational schools. Staff morale was something that Sue felt she was always addressing. She worked to empower staff and was happy when they earned promotions both within and beyond the school. However, Sue described the frustration and disappointment she felt when some staff did not defend the school against critics and others failed to share her obvious pride in the school.

Sue attributed the decline in her roll to *a drift towards single sex schools*. This view was supported when considering both Jill's and Bev's school rolls were full, with Bev recently exercising an enrolment policy. Sue believed that *in tougher economic times people generally look to traditional values. The statistics say that girls do better in single sex schools. I don't agree. It's absolute nonsense*. Sue is clearly 'anti' single sex schools. She firmly believes in the benefits of coeducational schooling for both young women and young men.

Sue had never seriously considered a principalship in a single sex girls school, except *as a means to an end*. When she was the deputy principal, (of her current school) a principal's position became available at a local school. Sue applied, feeling that she would gain experience in a girls' school principalship to prove that she was ready to take on a coeducational principalship.

Early in the 1990s, Sue had completed a Master of Educational Administration degree and knew that the statistics of women being appointed to coeducational principalships were stacked against her. However, shortly afterwards, Sue's principal moved on and she successfully filled his position a few months later. Her professional challenge is to turn her roll around and she says *I won't leave before I've done that*.

Sue's coeducational principalship produced data that were significantly different to the experiences recalled by the other five women. There are many questions that remain unanswered. Does Sue face different challenges as a woman principal in a school with a staff ratio of 50/50 men and women? Does Sue's obvious determination stem from feeling the (inter-school) competition *daily* (second interview, 29/5/98)? Or is it because, as a woman and mother, she is worried about the future of *her* students, more than her 'male' counterparts?

Perhaps Sue's coeducational conviction stems from an anti-traditionalist stance, shaped through experiences of *immobility* and *lack of support* from her first husband, a traditional farmer? Or it may be because of the predominance of coeducational environments within which she chose to work before becoming a principal? This thesis can not answer these questions but raises them in the hope that future research will target, as its specific focus, the female world of coeducational principalships.

Valerie Hall (1996:201) says that, "the problem with making comparisons is in knowing whether any differences are attributable to *gender* (in this case six women), the *context* (five single sex schools and one coeducational secondary school) or *personalities*". While collaborative and caring strategies, identified in earlier analyses (Al-Khalifa, 1989, Adler et al, 1993, Strachan, 1993), were employed by all six women, they may have viewed their gender differently.

Leading Girls' Secondary Schools

The five principals of girls' schools chose single sex education because they believed in an environment that allowed young women to really grow and experience a greater number of leadership opportunities considered not available in a coeducational context. With boys out of the equation, Bev, Mary, Helen, Rose and Jill believed that they had seen girls develop confidently, exploring their potential and achieving academically *without competing with boys in the classroom, at computers and in school leadership roles* (Jill, first interview 27/3/98). In conclusion, the five girls' school principals shared the following traits:

1. **They felt confident and at ease nurturing "inclusive" school contexts** while actively seeking ways in which to draw parents and staff into collaborative decision-making (Neville, 1988) and problem-solving. Their administration was not based on traditional, hierarchical structures but rather orientated around networks and 'web-like' processes (Helgesen, 1990).
2. **In rising to become principals, these women were "determined opportunists", rather than being openly competitive.** They did not have to fight with, or *prove* anything to, men. They simply had faith in their ability and in their personal "vision" for the education of young women and believed that they were adequately prepared for the top job.

3. **They shared a deep sense of personal responsibility and accountability as principals.** They did not see themselves in a status position and neither did they assume any personal privileges or kudos. However, they did see themselves as being responsible for role modelling a wide range of behaviours, attitudes and values.
4. **The women called on intangible leadership skills based on intuition and spiritual awareness.** Not all of their administrative and leadership abilities could they attribute to management textbooks or to formal training.
5. **Personal and professional responsibilities often merged.** Bev, Jill, Rose, Helen and Mary always considered any major decisions in the light of any ramifications or repercussions for themselves and their families, or significant others. They were unable to “compartmentalise” the various dimensions of their lives.

Female-driven contexts within which to work and collaborate.

Data in this study would indicate that the predominantly female staff in the five girls’ schools usually “pulled together”; thereby supporting earlier analyses by O’Neill (1992) and Strachan (1997). Staff turnover was virtually non-existent in the schools led by Helen and Rose (private schools) and Bev and Jill (traditional schools with few behaviour problems and full rolls). Mary’s school was a small distance from the others and, like Sue, she hosted a number of students with difficult social histories. However, Mary’s staff was settled, relatively stable and generally supportive.

Unlike Sue, the five girls’ school principals did not seek out ‘at risk’ students. When they did enrol them, they relied on their school culture, traditional expectations and the behavioural norms of their schools to mould and shape these students into work ethics oriented towards achieving their personal best. Data indicates that there was a focus on maintaining tradition, developing cultures of inclusion and collaboration and promoting collective academic and co-curricular achievement; thereby supporting Adler et al’s (1993) study. The women focused on developing holistic, “learning communities” in which young women would thrive and eventually transcend.

Many students enrolling in the five girls’ schools were already self-motivated and had set personal goals. Many had had sisters, mothers, grandmothers and sometimes great-grandmothers pass through these schools and they felt a sense of belonging to a family of learners. For these students, the school represented more than just a place of learning. *It is part of their family history* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98).

Determined Opportunists

The five girls' school principals saw themselves as opportunists, looking for challenges each time they mastered a new position. They did not see themselves as having been competitive or having "pushed" their own barrow during those years prior to their principalships. Only relationships *with* people were encouraged. Not one of these women advocated favouritism or exclusivity of any kind. They worked most successfully *with* others and not against them. Upon entering senior management, they could sense the freedom that comes with a "global school perspective". When they felt the time was right, they eventually sought an opportunity to create and implement their personal vision in their own schools.

Not one of these five women was in any hurry to become a principal. Only Helen admitted to having the top job in her sights as a young teacher. However, through careful observation she knew that to do the job well would require careful preparation. The determination described in this study has not, to the researcher's knowledge, been widely documented and provides an interesting dimension for further exploration.

A Deep Sense Of Personal Responsibility and Accountability

Being a girls' school principal brought with it a never-ending responsibility. It was a huge commitment and not entered into lightly. These women knew that they were role models for both staff and students. They encouraged all students to explore a wide range of career and vocational options and *not to be limited by earlier beliefs about what girls should or should not do* (Bev, first interview, 27/3/98). While setting the benchmarks for desired behaviours and attitudes, values and ethics, the five girls' school principals all tried to diplomatically encourage parents to work *with* their school's expectations in social contexts.

Mary, Jill, Bev, Helen and Mary chose to be girls' school principals to make a difference and to inspire greater achievement in their young women. Not one of these women described the need to obtain status and/or personal kudos. Their greatest satisfaction came from seeing students and staff developing and growing socially, academically, culturally and spiritually. This meant more to them than their salary or the label "principal".

Intuition and Spirituality

Rose, Mary, Helen, Jill and Bev were Christians. They believed in the power of caring for others and empowering and uplifting their staff and students to new levels of achievement and spiritual awareness. They were keen observers and listeners and often depended on their intuition to “read” what others were feeling and thinking. Each of these women believed in the power of sending silent and loving thoughts out to their school communities. They actively sought new and more effective ways to build greater school “community” and increased caring and trust between members.

Overlapping of The Professional And The Personal

The five girls’ school principals felt emotionally and spiritually connected to their schools. They were seen as the public face of their respective schools and, therefore, an extension of them in the community. They describe feeling watched constantly. They could not afford to let down their guard. Words always had to be followed up with actions. Therefore, it was extremely difficult to “switch off” from the job and the daily responsibility when returning home. Data in this study mirrors Jane Strachan’s (1993) study of women in educational leadership, whose participants “talked about their lives and the interweaving of their work and family lives”.

Home life was often juggled to fit around weekly school fixtures and evening meetings or commitments. However, this professional-personal overlap was considered part of the territory and a small price to pay for being able to implement one’s vision. These women were passionate about having the freedom to influence many lives in a positive and empowering way. Valerie Hall (1996) also noted women’s flexibility in juggling various responsibilities and their appreciation of the wholeness of human experience.

Final Thoughts

On the basis of data in this study, the researcher would argue that all six principals emerged in their roles as “cultural directors”. They directed the action and were consistently working behind the scenes. Everything undertaken by these women contributed in some small, or significant, way to effecting increased learning opportunities for and *felt* ties between members of their schools. As Valerie Hall (1996:202) noted, “means were important and so were ends and conduct was continuously subject to scrutiny”. The women had to think on their feet and develop their spiritual connections to others through their intuition. They were much more than good “textbook administrators”.

In 1998, increasing, external New Right demands on principals called for efficiency and. accountability. However, these women refused to compromise their leadership values in any way. They were creative and energetic facilitators and problem solvers with a capable team of recruits around them. Perhaps their socialisation as children and as young women had prepared them for their roles of juggling, including, motivating and empowering?

The school leadership of the six principals in this study is analogous to a “live performance”. As directors, they swept the stage, gave out the scripts, followed the action and encouraged the applause. Only when they were out of the country could the curtains finally close.

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APPENDIX ONE

INTRODUCTORY LETTER

Researcher's Address

Date

Participant
Address

Dear

Thank you for agreeing to participate in my 1998 research on the leadership of six women secondary principals. Please find enclosed the participant information sheet and consent form that Massey University requires me to give to you.

Also enclosed is a biographical questionnaire that is anonymous. When you have completed the consent form and returned it to me I will telephone you to arrange the first of our two interviews. You may send the questionnaire back at any time after that.

Again, thank you for your assistance. I look forward to meeting you soon.

Yours sincerely

Roz Mexted

APPENDIX TWO

Six Women Secondary Principals

INFORMATION SHEET

1. The researcher Roz Mexted is employed by (school name) as HOD Art and Art History and Dean of Form Three. During 1998, she has a Secondary Teachers' Study Award for full-time study to complete a thesis for a Master of Education Administration degree. Her supervisors at Massey University are Dr. Wayne Edwards and Ms Marion Court - Department of Educational Studies, Hokowhitu Campus.

2. The researcher lives at (address). Her phone and fax number is (xxxxxxx). Dr Edwards and Ms Court's contact numbers are telephone 06 350 4564, fax 06 350 5635.

3. The researcher will explore the leadership styles of six women secondary principals and how they cope with the educational reforms of the past ten years.

4. Each participant will be interviewed twice, in March and again approximately two months later. The interviews will be approximately one hour in duration and, with participant permission, will be audio-taped to ensure greater validity and reliability of data collected. Some additional time will be required for participants to read their interview data and to verify that they are a correct record of what was said. A research journal will be kept during the research for a third tier of information. All data collected are subject to participant scrutiny before the draft 'Results Chapter' is prepared.

5. All research associated with this study will be strictly conducted according to the Massey University Code Of Ethical Conduct. The participants' anonymity will be preserved at all times and all raw data and other research materials will be kept highly confidential to only the researcher and the above supervisors. Participants may ask any questions about any aspect of the study at any time during the research. The final thesis will be held at the Massey University Library for use by students in future educational administration research. Raw data will remain highly confidential until after the thesis has been examined. It will then be burned or shredded.

6. Participants may refuse to answer any question. Participants are free to withdraw from the study at any time.

APPENDIX THREE

Six Women Secondary Principals

CONSENT FORM

I have read the information sheet and have had the details of the study explained to me. My questions have been answered to my satisfaction, and I understand that I may ask further questions at any time.

I understand I have the right to withdraw from the study at any time and to decline to answer any particular questions.

I agree to provide information to the researcher on the understanding that my name will not be used without my permission. (The information will be used only for this research and publications arising from this research project.)

I agree/do not agree to the interview being audio-taped.

I also understand that I have the right to ask for the tape recording device to be turned off at any time during the interview.

I agree to participate in this study under the conditions set out in the Information Sheet.

SIGNED.....

NAME.....

DATE.....

APPENDIX FOUR

Research Question 1

Early Socialisation And Early Career

1. How would you describe your upbringing and family background?
2. What do you remember about yourself, as a child and as a teenager?
3. Who influenced you most as a young woman?
4. When were you first interested in becoming a teacher?
5. Was your career planned? Please explain.
6. Why/when did you apply for a management position in education?
7. Were you influenced/encouraged/supported in any way?
8. Did you ever feel that you were unable to pursue any jobs you wanted (e.g. mobility/gender/family issues)?
9. Why did you enter senior management?
10. What makes you a successful principal today?
11. What other experiences shaped your thinking about leadership?
12. What advice would you give to women principal aspirants?

Research Question 2

Being A Woman Secondary Principal

1. Do you miss teaching?
2. Do you have any personal input into instructional programmes? Explain.
3. What are your priorities as the leader of this school?
4. How do you make important decisions about school policy or philosophy?
5. How do you get the best from your staff?
6. What other leadership strategies have you found to be effective?
7. How would you define power?
8. Are you a feminist? How do you feel about feminism?
9. What is your approach to EEO?
10. What is the most difficult aspect of your role?
11. What is the most rewarding aspect of your role?
12. Do you achieve a balance between your personal / professional lives?
13. How do you feel being the principal of a school?
14. What new challenges are out there for you, professionally or personally?

Research Question 3

The Impact Of The New Right

1. How do you feel about the Tomorrow's Schools reforms?
2. What impact have educational reforms had on your workload?
3. What impact have those reforms had on your leadership priorities?
4. What educational improvements have emerged since the reforms?
5. How do you feel about increasing competition between the schools locally?
6. What are the most pressing issues facing your school leadership today?
7. Describe the relationship you have with your school Board of Trustees.
8. Are there any constraints or advantages related to working at *this* school?
9. Would you do anything differently if you had the opportunity again?

APPENDIX FIVE

Six Women Secondary Principals

Questionnaire

This questionnaire has been carefully designed to protect your anonymity, while conveying the *broad* backgrounds/career patterns of the participants of this study. You may refuse to answer any question. Brief answers only are required. Thank you for your participation.

1. How many children were there in your family?
2. Were you the eldest, in the middle, or the youngest child/only child?
3. Did you attend a co-education or girls' high school, or both?
4. Was your secondary school in an urban /provincial/ rural area?
5. Why did you enter teaching?

6. What qualifications did you gain *before* entering teaching?

7. Did you leave teaching at any stage or have any breaks in service?
If YES, what for and for how long?

8. Please list the positions you have had; the number of years in each and *school type* (co-ed/boys/girls' school/primary/intermediate), before becoming a principal.

For example: Assistant Teacher, *co-ed high school*- 4 years; HOD *co-ed high school*- 8.5 years, Assistant Principal, *girls' high school* - 7 years, Principal, *girls' high school* - 3 years.

9. As a principal, who offers you the most support now, both personally and professionally?

10. Have you spent any time overseas on fellowships, scholarships, exchange programmes, conferences, etc. If YES, please give a *general* description and length of time:

11 Are you active (or have you ever been) in any professional organisations?. If YES, please list these: (Regional/National/International)

APPENDIX SIX - SAMPLE LETTER

Researcher's address

Date

Name

Position

Street Address

Town

Preliminary Draft

CHAPTERS FOUR AND FIVE

Dear Name/ **pseudonym** "Name"

Enclosed are **Chapters Four and Five** for your verification and/or feedback. When I have you returned, amended copies, I can prepare a DRAFT.

These chapters utilise your interview responses. Although you have already verified your data, these chapters have been sent to you to ensure that you are happy with the *context* and the academic theorising in which your responses are portrayed. Only return the amendments, if you have any, **by September 30**.

If you are happy with your portrayal, there is no need to respond.

Thanks again for your assistance in this study. I trust that the reading will be of interest and worthwhile.

Yours sincerely,

Roz Mexted

now he feels he's got power.

er's friend was
ere that "women
ouragement for
nd of our
to go to university
ducation?" And I
ere wasn't that

Power & Empowerment
I think it's important that it's used well. That other people can take advantage from being able to give, or provide, opportunities is good. (Empowerment) I'd love for every single member of staff to be still wanting to move on...not necessarily out of here. It's a responsibility that all schools have. I think that schools who have their staff move on to promotion, or to new challenges, is a compliment to the school.

ny always expected
because I have
been away. I've
caring also. They
to be the
r-mother-than-I

Power and Empowerment
You only have the power that people are willing to give you. You have to devote that energy to the institution that you're part of, if you're given the opportunity of being a leader. Any power that you have, has to be in that light. Your job is to make the most of that power. Power must be put back into the school. It's part of the culture. We're trying to encourage the girls to achieve and to do service. They'll leave here and get jobs...they'll raise families, but they'll also serve the community.

deal of the time,
keep really high
remote.

~~The staff do a lot of good will work too. They don't do it for money. They do it for the kids. They don't get prestige, or overseas trips out of it.~~

ssures. It is
gers
pable of wise

Leadership style (M)
In this school, we haven't made any really big decisions yet. This school has a Mission Statement, but it hasn't been looked at since 1989. I've identified some areas which we really need to pay attention to. The biggest thing about this school is that we're too accommodating. Kids can achieve extraordinary things if we raise their expectations. We're a decile 2 school. So, unless we make sure that our kids are really doing their best, we won't break the cycle.

n for secondary
hey like the
e necessity to
y, and the style.
Trustees and I
ging to another
professionally, it

Raising Standards
I had heard a lot of good things about this school. It's always been a very consultative and democratic sort of place. My feeling had always been that my predecessor had got on extremely well with the staff, but I hadn't realised the extent to which the democracy had stifled everything. Even little things, like the Alcohol Policy. Four or five years ago, there had been a vote on it, but it had never been resolved. I didn't know anything about that. But, when I came in here and we had overnight trips going out, I looked at the Alcohol Policy, and I didn't feel comfortable with it.

with her daughter
at experience it
But, what an

LEADERSHIP
We work very hard for our students. I've had many letters from parents saying how grateful they are for what their kids have got out of the school. One of the things I've been able to achieve is to stop the roll declining. We'd really like to get it up over 600 again. Our school is really good, and we do all sorts of wonderful things for our students. I've tried to make sure that those staff, who have been at my school for a long time, have different jobs. I see an important part of my job as setting people up for promotion. It's good for them, and it's good for the school. Staff management is looking at everyone and asking "How can I make it better?". There are days, however, when I do make decisions because I am the boss.

ways, I've
ent three months
I reflected on

nt to do things
n-holistic
cause, if you
sonal growth,
?

Leadership
I am holding the Taonga of the School. It ran for 40 years before I came here. Hopefully, it will run for 140 years after I leave. I would expect, like anything, to leave it in as good a condition as I found it. That's really important. Nobody wants to go out sliding down the hill, from any job!

their eyes when
the imagination of

so's daughter".
w. And she said
n England, that
ildren see me as

M
~~Getting the best out of people is slightly easier here, in a sense that a great many people on the staff were already uncomfortable with the way things were going. There are lots of people who are worried about the same things that worry me about this school.~~

be grabbed. I
decide yourself,
ot to have
it' all the

Leadership
The major part of my job is to be a people manager. I am constantly looking for clues and signs from staff. I spend a lot of time in the staffroom, at

son'. There are very appropriate members taking decisions alone, but if it can be

R

ever, it's also very

R

Having the strength to be wrong, is very

or explain, the decision-making back... the girls and the decision-making process,

grumbles. If my door is important to give staff what they know, that

R

ing upset and that it's not the time feel valued and to be filled. If a member with the concern of grumbling

M

end and the finished - whether I at new challenges one, as long as I every year or every was something even me crazy!

M

ke a whole new in.

R

in style. She was tion to herself. was very well liked.

B

style. I make Curriculum s no way that working in a take executive t. In fact, I believe sion-making lead, then lead.

B

ve got a mixture llaborative style. ers company. can't imagine many schools

R

Public Property ~~Private/public lives(H)~~

P12

You have some tremendous pressures from parents. They think they own you, and that you're sort of public property. I do tend to expect that that's part of my job though. I think when you're principal of a boarding school, you take on a new life style. My relatives can't understand how little they see of me now! I take Tuesday nights off for my choir, over in ~~London~~. And I have my breakfast at home, at the moment, so I can have some quiet time to myself.

H

Public Property

P12

If I had to go to the supermarket, I'd go to ~~Faraday~~. I've always made it really clear that I wasn't going to be 'public property'. I don't use local restaurants. I don't go to the cinema locally. I don't actually use Napier. Who wants to be fossicking through the bras at Farmers, and the kid behind the counter says "My Principal takes a 34B"! You don't want the contents of your supermarket trolley scrutinised, or commented on. Or served at dinner by another student.

Public Property

R

My secretary is really good at protecting me.

P12

Everybody knows who I am in the School community, and in the Church community. I enjoy the opportunity to go to a conference or on holiday, where I'm not known, and to have a look around the shops... do a show, or

Public Property

J

really angry about it... a couple of times, I've been in hospital for two to three days... for something minor. There's no privacy there. Whether that's the hospital system, or because of who I am, I don't know? But I resent the fact it's not private, being in hospital in ~~London~~.

Public Property

J

Public Property

I don't ever drink alcohol out, ever. Because, all you have to do is laugh too loudly and you're 'off your face'. I'm a control freak, as much as anything. You're very very public, and you're conscious that every kid in every shop who says "Hello" probably goes to your school.

M

M

I would never go to the supermarket in my old gardening clothes. You're the face of the school. We work and live in ~~London~~, and we shop and entertain ourselves in ~~London~~... and that actually works really well. I mean, I do a 'once every 10 days' expedition to ~~London~~. The idea of buying the weekly groceries here is a no-go area.

P12

Under the section "Public Property" ~~you are~~ ~~mentioned as~~ ~~it is~~ ~~completely~~ ~~different~~ ~~from~~ ~~all~~ ~~the~~ ~~others~~. I do my shopping in ~~Big Fish~~ ~~and~~ ~~Countdown~~. I do eat in restaurants in ~~London~~. I frequently walk down the main street in shorts + a shirt in summer on the occasions ~~that~~ + I have time to do that. I do view myself as public property. Talking to kids who are super-marketed checkout operators, or parents who work in banks, shops + the like is an extremely important part of the public face of the principal. I am always careful about how I'm dressed (~~decaorous~~ ^{spelling?} shorts!), what I drink and where, and I don't go to certain bars frequented by the 'younger set' but by and large I enjoy being part of this town both on + off duty - although I don't ever really regard myself as "off duty" unless I'm overseas. I've even taken my turn waitressing at the Little Theatre (~~London~~). I feel sorry for the Principals who feel differently.

S

... is me to the main point of this.

(6) My career wasn't really planned up until, I suppose, the time I applied for an HOD's position. I hadn't run out of enthusiasm, or new things to do. I guess I was probably looking, but still happy with where I was.

Opportunities presented themselves over the years... that happened frequently. I must have turned into an opportunist!! I'm very fatalistic. If something doesn't work out... then it wasn't meant to be. Another door will open. I've been very fortunate. I almost always had an opportunity presented to me before I even thought of it.

R

I went to Teachers College and gained a Trained Teachers Certificate, but not a degree. After teaching for a little while, I left and had a family. When I returned, I was horrified to find that people with the same service, and same qualification, as me were getting quite a lot more than me. I got bitter about that. I knew I'd have to increase my qualifications, so I thought I'd do a B.A.

S
C(6)

My career was both planned, and unplanned. It's been very planned, to the extent that I was always working to the next stage.

I started off as a classroom teacher, in a coed school, with five classes a day and no free periods. Then you say to yourself, "There's got to be an easier way than this!". I then became a careers advisor, as it gave me the opportunity to lose a class... an attractive proposition, but probably not the motivation people were looking for!. Anyway, it was an interesting area, which got you out of school to look around at things. I developed careers schemes, and was involved with work exploration and careers seminars. I also ran a senior extension programme of elective subjects, for several years. I took it very seriously. You'd go to lots of courses on things like adolescent development. (As a result of that, the school offered me a deans position. It gave me the opportunity to look at the wider context of what I was doing.

C(6)
looking for new challenges

R

It was the 1970s.... and there was the Ross Report.... and the Coombes Report.... and developing education, beyond traditional subject areas into health, personal development, guidance programmes, sex education et cetera. It was a time of shaking up the education system, with a more liberal approach. Looking back now, there were silly things done that I doubt had any educational validity. But there were positive advances too.

I learned a great deal. I enjoyed working in the classroom, but also outside the classroom, within the school. At that time, I also wanted to buy a property, and the bank where I was refused to lend to me, as I was a single female without a male guarantor!! A bank in ~~Edinburgh~~ ~~North~~ said they would lend me the money, so I moved there, and to another coed school.

C(6)

At that stage, I had thought if I had to take another Geography lesson, I think I would have gone through the roof!! Geography used to be facts, facts and more facts. I had been marking the mock School Certificate Geography paper, and I had given half a mark to a kid who had written,

R

I then offered myself as an English teacher, and loved it. I developed that... got into Drama and Production... and that coincided with the N.E.S.C changes to the English syllabus. It was such good fun. I really got stuck into English teaching.... I liked the people at the English meetings.

along new challenges

R

~~correctly, that in Fresno, California, they grow lettuces and ship them over to the East Coast. Now, was their life really any better for knowing that? I decided it was time to leave that school... time for a change. Geography was my main subject, but I taught some English and Social Studies... although I really thought Social Studies was the pits. It bored the socks off me!! My apologies to Social Studies departments, but feel pleased you never had me in your department!~~

C(6)

Having been a Dean, my HOD left and I stepped straight in. After a number of years being a Dean, and HOD, I made a sideways move into a Head of

(6)

By the time I g independent. very dependen school. Pretty some moments

My husband w could underst supportive. M farm during ex longer than ou

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C(4) Support

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C(4) Support

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C(2) Early Experiences

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Early Experiences

(H) My parents wer century when educ perhaps than some encouraged us to d on something, we f

C(2) Early Experiences

I've always got had books I al as it were. I ne girls were a bit I was always in me. I remembe a bit older, and school being th way that I felt c

S