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A STUDY OF WOMEN PROFESSORS AND THE MULTIPLE  
FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THEIR CAREER  
ASPIRATIONS TO ADMINISTRATIVE  
POSITIONS  
presented by

JEANNE KARR

has been accepted towards fulfillment  
of the requirements for

Ph. D. degree in Education

Louis Roman  
Major professor

Date June 1983

A STUDY OF WOMEN PROFESSORS AND THE MULTIPLE FACTORS  
THAT INFLUENCE THEIR CAREER ASPIRATIONS  
TO ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

By

Jeanne Karr

A DISSERTATION

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in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Administration and Curriculum

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## ABSTRACT

### A STUDY OF WOMEN PROFESSORS AND THE MULTIPLE FACTORS THAT INFLUENCE THEIR CAREER ASPIRATIONS TO ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

By

Jeanne Karr

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the disparity between women in higher education administration and the career aspirations of women professors. Cultural considerations, educational factors, personal perspectives, psychological aspects, and the world of work were examined to determine their influence on women professors.

#### Methodology

In this descriptive study, a random sample of professors from the ranks of assistant, associate, and full were chosen from the main campuses of the Big Ten Conference institutions. A structured questionnaire developed by Burleigh-Savage was sent to the professors. Data analysis included cross-tabulations, frequency distributions, chi-square test of association, and the t-test of significance based on alpha, testing at the .05 level with various degrees of freedom.

#### Perceived Factors Related to Administrative Aspirations of Men and Women

Findings indicated that significant differences existed between the women and the men professors on the various factors. The following number of outcomes were significant:

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1. Five out of twelve--Cultural Considerations
2. Eight out of ten--Educational Factors
3. Five out of ten--Personal Perspectives
4. Eight out of eleven--Psychological Aspects
5. Seven out of eleven--The World of Work

### Conclusions

1. Approximately 25 percent of the men and women sampled would aspire to administrative positions. The higher the level of the position, the lower the percentage of aspirants.
2. There was a greater percentage of female professors at the assistant-professor level, whereas there was a greater percentage of male professors at the full-professor level.
3. Women's aspiration levels tended to be somewhat higher than men's.
4. Male professors tended to feel that women professors are less effective administrators.
5. Women seemed to lack the skill needed in seeking and obtaining opportunities to become administrators.
6. Women agreed that women administrators have less power to make decisions than men.
7. One-third of the women would rather not compete for an administrative position.
8. Most women agreed that men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men.
9. Most women felt that the "white-male club" promotes men over women for positions in administration.

10. Most women would not be willing to "go for broke" in their quest for an administrative position.

11. Men professors tended to have more seniority than women professors.

To my son, Jeffrey, and my mother and father, who have provided inspiration and have been a continuing source of motivation.

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Dr. Alexa  
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## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I have been very fortunate during my graduate studies to have worked with a select group of highly esteemed professors. My thanks and gratitude to Dr. Van Johnson, Dr. Howard Hickey, and Dr. Alexander Kloster.

Special thanks to Dr. Louis Romano, who greatly encouraged me in all aspects of my doctoral studies.





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## CHAPTER I

### STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

#### Introduction

In December 1975, the United Nations General Assembly declared 1976-1985 to be the Decade for Women. Its purpose was to emphasize the critical importance and economic value of the place of women in a modern society.<sup>1</sup>

This declaration was made because there is no country in the world today where women are presumed to have equal status with men in all of the major areas of life: family, health and reproduction, education, work, government, and cultural expression.<sup>2</sup> In the 1960s and early 1970s, women were less than one-third of the labor force, except in Scandinavia and Eastern Europe. Women also were clustered in low-paying occupations.<sup>3</sup>

Later, in 1977, a National Women's Conference was held in Houston to discuss the need for women to increase their level of participation in political life because achievement of equality in all areas was seen as inseparable from active political participation.

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<sup>1</sup>W. Joyner, "Women, Development, and the Challenge," Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors (Summer 1978): 157.

<sup>2</sup>M. Shaul, "The Status of Women in Local Governments Around the World," New Ways (Charles Kettering Foundation) (Spring 1981): 6.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

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The theme of this conference was to end once and for all unequal treatment of women under the law. Much of the discussion at the conference centered on the enactment of legislation to empower the courts to impose civil and criminal penalties on businessmen and public officials who discriminate against women in personnel placement and promotion.<sup>1</sup>

Some of the popular literature has pointed out women's attitudes on this subject. Molloy wrote, "American women want to get ahead. They want to sit in the boardroom and in the president's chair. And they are heading in that direction."<sup>2</sup> Michael Korda in Success stated, "An increasing number of women today are motivated to success and more and more of them are in fact succeeding."<sup>3</sup>

These writings and women's conferences may present a false hope for women who might center all of their attention in political-action campaigns, but unfortunately, there were no funds to be used to identify and correct feminine attitudes about themselves that impede their progress toward economic and social equality. Political clout is important, but it seems far more important for women to exert their rights by changing attitudes of themselves and others through professional development and demonstrated accomplishment.

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<sup>1</sup>"What Next for U.S. Women," Time, December 5, 1977, p. 19.

<sup>2</sup>John T. Molloy, The Women's Dress for Success Book (Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1977), p. 19.

<sup>3</sup>Michael Korda, Success (New York: Random House, 1977), p. 167.

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Serious writers in this field do not hold the same position as the popular writers such as Molloy and Korda. Prather stated that for centuries discrimination has perpetuated the "woman servant" and "sex object" image and has greatly affected women's desire for professional success.<sup>1</sup> Furthermore, Prather stated that women do not continue their careers because they are convinced in their own minds that they cannot succeed in both marriage and a career.

The involvement of women in management is still substantially less than proportional with the total population. Stinson pointed out that although more than 35 million women in the United States are working, 40 percent are working in traditional women's jobs; only a small percentage is in management.<sup>2</sup>

#### Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the disparity between women in higher education administration and the career aspirations of women professors. Further investigation focused on whether factors such as culture, educational climate, personal perspectives, psychological aspects, and the world of work may have an influence on women professors in their aspirations for a position in administration.

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<sup>1</sup>Jan Prather, "Why Can't Women Be More Like Men: A Summary of the Sociopsychological Factors Hindering Women's Advancement in the Profession," American Behavior Scientist 15 (November 1971): 173.

<sup>2</sup>Marilyn Stinson, "Women in the 70's: Have Opportunities Really Changed?" Journal of Business Education 54 (November 1978): 75.

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Although it may be assumed that discrimination and sex-typing of occupations are two apparent causes of having so few women in administrative positions, results of this study are intended to provide some additional information pertaining to less obvious factors that influence career aspirations of female academics. Information obtained should provide further insights relative to the training and development needs of those women capable of becoming competent administrators.

#### Significance of the Study

Past research has indicated rather strongly that all human beings strive for need satisfaction. Specifically, Maslow described a hierarchy of needs and made no distinction between males and females. Maslow's need-hierarchy theory is a basic, widely accepted model upon which many theories of motivation have been built.

Maslow advanced the idea of a hierarchy of human needs as a predictor and descriptor of human motivation.<sup>1</sup> His theory of motivation was predicated on two assumptions. First, needs depend on what one already has. Needs not satisfied can influence behavior, but satisfied needs will not act as motivators. Second, needs are arranged in a hierarchy of importance. When one need is satisfied, another emerges and demands satisfaction.

The various needs are described in a framework referred to as the hierarchy of needs. According to Maslow, there are five

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<sup>1</sup>Abraham Maslow, Motivation and Personality (New York: Harper and Row, 1954).



general categories or levels of needs prevalent in any organization. These needs are (1) physiological or survival needs, (2) safety or security needs, (3) social or survival needs, (4) esteem or ego needs, and (5) self-actualization or self-fulfillment needs.

Within the work setting, women as well as men must be provided opportunities for satisfaction of higher-level needs--esteem and self-actualization. An unsatisfied physiological need can produce as much tension and disturbance as an unsatisfied self-actualization need. With present-day advancements in our technical and industrial society, the role of women is changing to the degree that conditions will exist that allow women to focus on the satisfaction of their higher-level needs.

Over past centuries, tradition, custom, conventional wisdom, and biological differences have created roles and role models differentiating between males and females, especially in our industrial and technical society. Child bearing and child rearing, being very important in agricultural and early industrial society because of the need and importance of manpower, tended further to circumscribe and narrow the female role. Eventually, what was originally economic, biological, and demographic necessity became norms in society and are still perpetuated and reinforced by individual and collective behavior.

Although the female role has been severely circumscribed and limited, the drive for higher-order need satisfaction was not extinguished. This is evidenced by limited but outstanding examples of performance and achievement on the part of women. This is especially

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apparent in art, literature, and the organization and implementation of social movements. Some examples of outstanding achievement on the part of women might include Harriet Beecher Stowe, a famous, profound writer well known as author of Uncle Tom's Cabin; Marie Mitchell, an astronomer and educator who discovered a comet in 1947, becoming the first woman to accomplish such a feat; Ethel Barrymore, famous actress of more than 50 years who starred in more than 40 Broadway productions; and Susan B. Anthony, a militant lecturer who demanded the right to vote and led the struggle for universal suffrage. The accomplishments of Susan B. Anthony have probably made as profound an impact on modern society as have those of Bismarck, Marx, or Mahatma Gandhi. Even though there have been instances of outstanding achievement and performance throughout history, they are generally considered to be aberrant and dismissed as phenomena.

In developing nations, the importance of physical strength, the need for working long hours away from the home, and the substitution of brain power for manpower have created an entirely different environment in the work place. In view of this and the generally held belief that "man" satisfies most of his needs through his work, the stereotypes distinguishing between male and female roles must be extinguished or at least sublimated.

There is no cultural, social, or economic reason in our present society why females should be denied the opportunity for need satisfaction in the work place. This can only occur through objective recognition and understanding of social change and human needs.

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1973):

This will require change in attitudes, beliefs, and values currently held by both men and women.

Operating on the premise that women can be married, successful, and career oriented, and that society needs a balance of human talent to maintain effective social, economic, and political institutions, it is of considerable significance to examine in detail factors that operate to limit female opportunities. Feminine acceptance of their limited role in society, as described in the following, can and should be reversed by proper education:

The pattern that emerges is that women who strive to achieve are systematically discouraged from reaching for their highest human potential. Growing numbers of women in education, as in other fields, are becoming increasingly aware that the employment options open to females are extremely limited and that if you happen to be born female, you have little control over your professional life.<sup>1</sup>

### Assumptions and Delimitations

The dissertation was based on two assumptions:

1. Women, in general, have the necessary attributes to enable them to assume the necessary responsibilities associated with an academic administrative position.
2. The sex of an individual should not be a qualification in the selection process for an educational administrative position.

Limitations of the study were as follows:

1. The data collected were based only on institutions of higher education in the Big Ten Conference.

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<sup>1</sup>Charlene T. Dale, "Women Are Still Missing Persons in Administrative and Supervisory Jobs," Educational Leadership 13 (November 1973): 123-27.

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2. The data of the study were affected by the degree of sincerity and frankness of response to the instrument administered.

3. The investigation was limited to five categories of women professors' higher educational administrative aspirations: cultural considerations, educational factors, personal perspectives, psychological aspects, and world of work. These factors were treated as opposed to legal or organizational determinants.

4. The descriptive nature of the study represented a limitation inasmuch as it only described what was perceived to be true and not what is true.

5. The findings of the relationship between factors cited in the previous statements were viewed as correlational and not causal.

#### Definition of Terms

The following terms are defined in the context in which they are used in this study.

Academic administrative positions--Positions in higher education of an administrative nature that call for responsibility for organizing, planning, directing, and evaluating the organization as a subdivision. In this study, they would include: presidency, vice-presidency, deanship of a major academic unit, chief academic officer, and department chairperson.

Faculty--The persons responsible for teaching and departmental research activities who hold faculty rank, including academic department heads.

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Higher education--Undergraduate through graduate programs, but limited to institutions in the Big Ten conference.

Multiple factors--Elements that may correctly or incorrectly influence career progression. They include: cultural considerations, educational factors, personal perspectives, psychological aspects, and the influence of the world of work.

Women professors--Those who hold an academic position in the Big Ten Conference in the rank of assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor.

#### Research Questions

To determine any differences that might exist among men and women professors concerning their aspiration levels for a higher educational administrative position, the following research questions were included:

1. Is there a difference between men and women respondents and their aspirations to an administrative position in higher education?
2. Is there a difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents?
3. Is there a difference in the personal perspectives between men and women respondents?
4. Is there a difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents?
5. Is there a difference in the psychological aspects between men and women respondents?

6. Is there a difference in the world-of-work perspectives between men and women respondents?
7. Is there a difference in the major teaching departments between men and women respondents?
8. Is there a difference in the perceived primary academic responsibility between men and women respondents?

### Procedures

A survey instrument was used to obtain the necessary data to resolve the above research questions. The instruments were mailed to a random sample of men and women professors in the Big Ten Conference institutions.

### Overview of the Thesis Organization

In this chapter the introduction provided the background for the study. The need for the study and certain assumptions were discussed in detail. The limitations of the study were explained, and a statement of the problem was presented. Research questions and definitions of terms concluded the chapter. Chapter II contains a review of the literature that is relevant to the study. Chapter III explores the method of investigation. Chapter IV presents the analysis and discussion of the data with respect to the research questions. Chapter V presents a summary of conclusions, implications, and recommendations for future research.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### Introduction

Abraham Maslow, in speaking of human health and personality growth, presented basic assumptions about human nature. "We have, each of us, an essential inner nature, which is to some degree 'natural,' intrinsic, given, and in a certain sense, unchangeable, or at least, unchanging."<sup>1</sup> This inner nature appears to be neutral or positively good. A secondary reaction or frustration to this intrinsic nature may be what we call evil. Individuals grow healthy, fruitful, and happy if the inner nature is permitted to be a guide for life. "If this essential core of the person is denied or suppressed, he gets sick sometimes in obvious ways, sometimes in subtle ways, sometimes immediately, sometimes later."<sup>2</sup> Since this inner nature is not strong and overpowering, but is weak and subtle, it can be easily overcome by cultural pressure, habit, and wrong attitudes toward it. "Even though denied, it persists underground forever pressing for actualization."<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>A. H. Maslow, "Personality Problems and Personality Growth," in The Self: Exploration in Personal Growth, ed. Clark E. Moustakas (New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1956), p. 232.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 233.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Maslow further stated that if these assumptions are proven true, they promise a scientific ethic, a natural value system, a court of ultimate appeal for the determination of good and bad, of right and wrong. The more we learn about man's natural tendencies, the easier it will be to tell him how to be good, how to be happy, how to be fruitful, how to respect himself, how to love, how to fulfill his highest potentialities.

Since Maslow in his writings spoke of the need for being true to one's inner nature, of realizing one's potential, and of self-actualization of all individuals regardless of gender, the struggle of women for legal and social identity and for legal and social equality may well be based upon expression of that need.

Because of the nature of our social organization and the strong emphasis on the work ethic, most human needs--security, survival, affiliation esteem, self-actualization, etc.--are, and can only be, secured in the work place and as a member of a work group. Excluding women from significant involvement and acceptance in work and the work place may preclude them from ever satisfying basic and essential needs.

This chapter is devoted to reviewing literature pertinent to the research undertaken for purposes of this dissertation. Since the amount of literature available relevant to this topic seems unlimited, references were selected that appear best to represent fact and popular sentiment in regard to particular topic areas. Research is cited that relates not only to the female administrator in higher education,

but to the professional woman in general. Barriers to the achievement and success of women in the United States appear universal. The following topic areas are discussed:

1. Women in the Contemporary Work Force
2. The Status of Women Employed in Higher Education
3. Historical Perspectives on Women
4. History of Women in Higher Education
5. Social and Psychological Factors Perceived to Influence Women's Career Aspirations
6. Some Characteristics of Successful Women in Leadership Positions
7. A Similar Study

#### Women in the Contemporary Work Force

The full strength of active and disciplined and enlightened womanhood is only now becoming available for this world's use. It is an exciting time to be alive. It is a good time to be a woman, and a good time to be entrusted with the training and nurturing of women. The course lies clear and open before us. Let us get on with the work!

Nannerl Overhouser Keohane  
 Presidential Inaugural Speech  
 Wellesley College  
 September 18, 1981<sup>1</sup>

The large-scale movement of women into the labor force is one of the most dramatic social and economic changes in recent decades. There are more women working now than ever before, more women in politics, more teaching, more learning."<sup>2</sup> The number of women in

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<sup>1</sup>Judy Foreman, "Wellesley's New President: The Right Woman for the Right Job," Change 14 (April 1982): 46.

<sup>2</sup>Jay Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" Time, July 12, 1982, p. 20.

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the labor force has risen from 31.6 million in 1970 to 46.9 million in 1981.<sup>1</sup> "The official projections of the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) show a continued rise to 1990, when the overall labor-force participation of women is expected to be about 51 percent."<sup>2</sup> According to Gordon, these projections understate the probable rise in the percentage of women in the labor force. She reported,

The sharply rising educational levels of women, the erosion of old prejudices against working wives, and the probability that most young women will reenter the labor force quite promptly after bearing children (if they do have any children) suggest more pronounced future increases.<sup>3</sup>

Further, she expressed that experience in some European countries also suggests more precipitate increases--"notably Sweden, where 60 percent of all women aged 16 to 74 were in the labor force in 1976, compared with about 50 percent of American women in this age range."<sup>4</sup> Figure 2-1 depicts more explicitly the rise of specific age groups in the labor force from 1950 to 1976 and projected, 1980 to 1990.

Congresswoman Patricia Schroeder stated, "The primary reason women are entering the labor force in such unprecedented numbers is to maintain their family's standard of living."<sup>5</sup> Cochs noted,

Statistics are the arithmetic of social revolution: from 1960 to 1980, one-earner households have declined from 49.6% to 22.4%, a staggering change. The percentage of married women

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>Margaret S. Gordon, "Women and Work: Priorities for the Future," in Work in America: The Decade Ahead, ed. Clark Kerr and Jerome Rosow (New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1979), p. 116.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" p. 22.



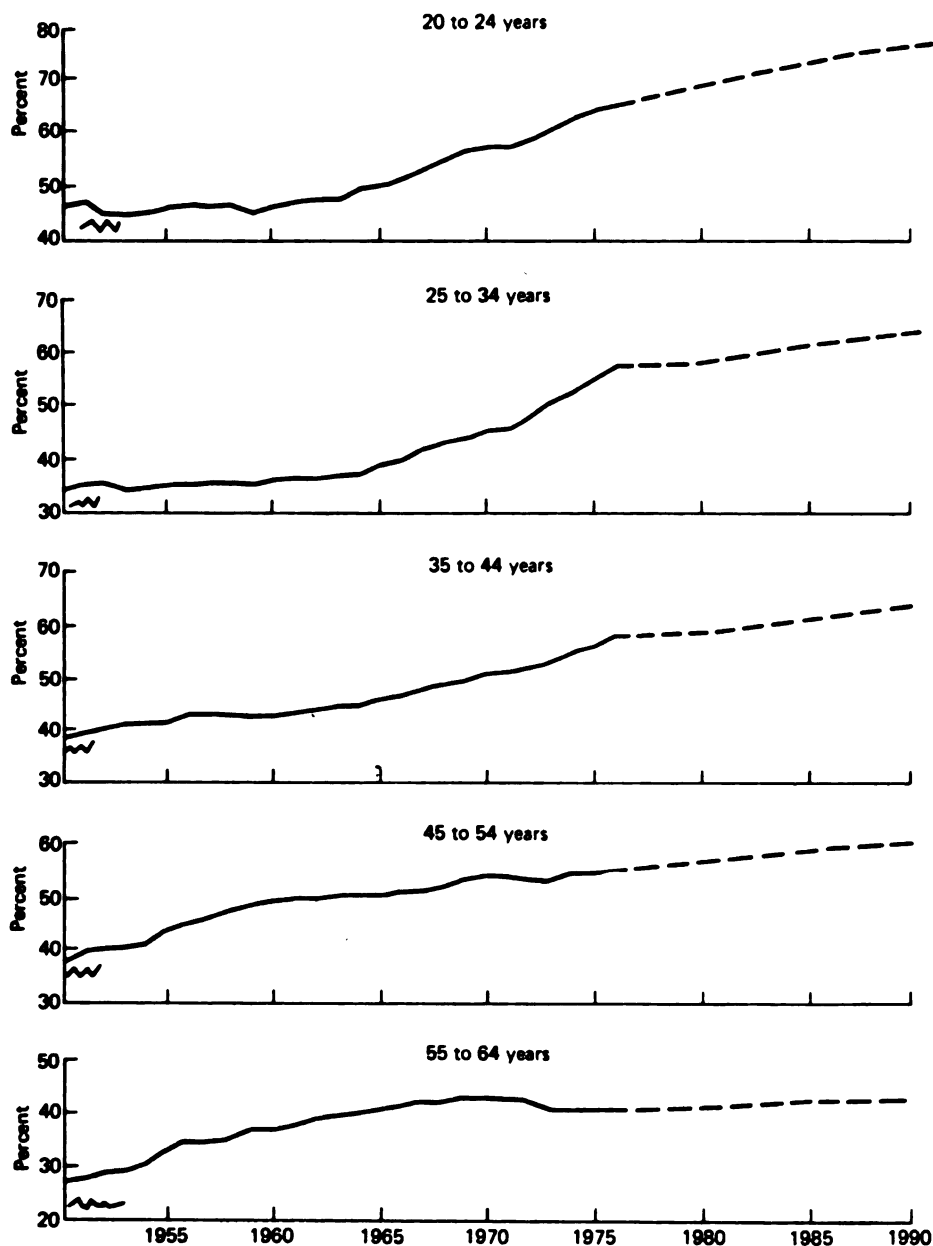


Figure 2-1.--Annual changes in percentage of women in the labor force, by age, actual, 1950 to 1976, and projected, 1980 to 1990. Data for teenagers and women aged 65 and older are not included. (From Margaret S. Gordon, "Women and Work: Priorities for the Future," in *Work in America: The Decade Ahead*, ed. Clark Kerr and Jerome Rosow (New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1979), p. 115.)

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in the work force during the same period has risen from 32% to 51%. The number of children with mothers who work (31.8 million) has become for the first time, larger than the number of children with mothers at home (26.3 million).<sup>1</sup>

Women are moving into occupations that traditionally were held predominantly by men. In some cases, the numbers are striking. Occupations range from nonfarm laborers, bartenders, and bus drivers to accountants, lawyers, and physicians. Gordon stated,

The wide spectrum of occupations involved suggests a complex set of forces--changing attitudes of employers (including perhaps a search for less costly sources of labor supply in a period of rapidly rising wage rates), the influence of the women's liberation movement, and the impact of affirmative action policies. The increased rate of enrollment of women in college and in advanced education is also an important factor, as much as effect and cause, probably, of improved employment opportunities.<sup>2</sup>

As an example of the increase of women in nontraditional occupations, Figure 2-2 shows the increasing percentage of women employed in the occupations of physicians, college and university teachers, lawyers and judges, managers, and accountants.

Women are seeking education in greater numbers than ever before; the majority of college students now are female.

Under Title IX admissions policies have broadened to include more women. Between 1972 and 1980 the number of women in medical school rose from 11% to 26%; in law school, from 10% to 34%; in veterinary school, from 12% to 39%; in awarded doctorates, from 16% to 30%.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 22-23.

<sup>2</sup>Gordon, "Women and Work," p. 118.

<sup>3</sup>"What Is Title IX?" U.S. News and World Report, August 2, 1982, pp. 34a-34b.

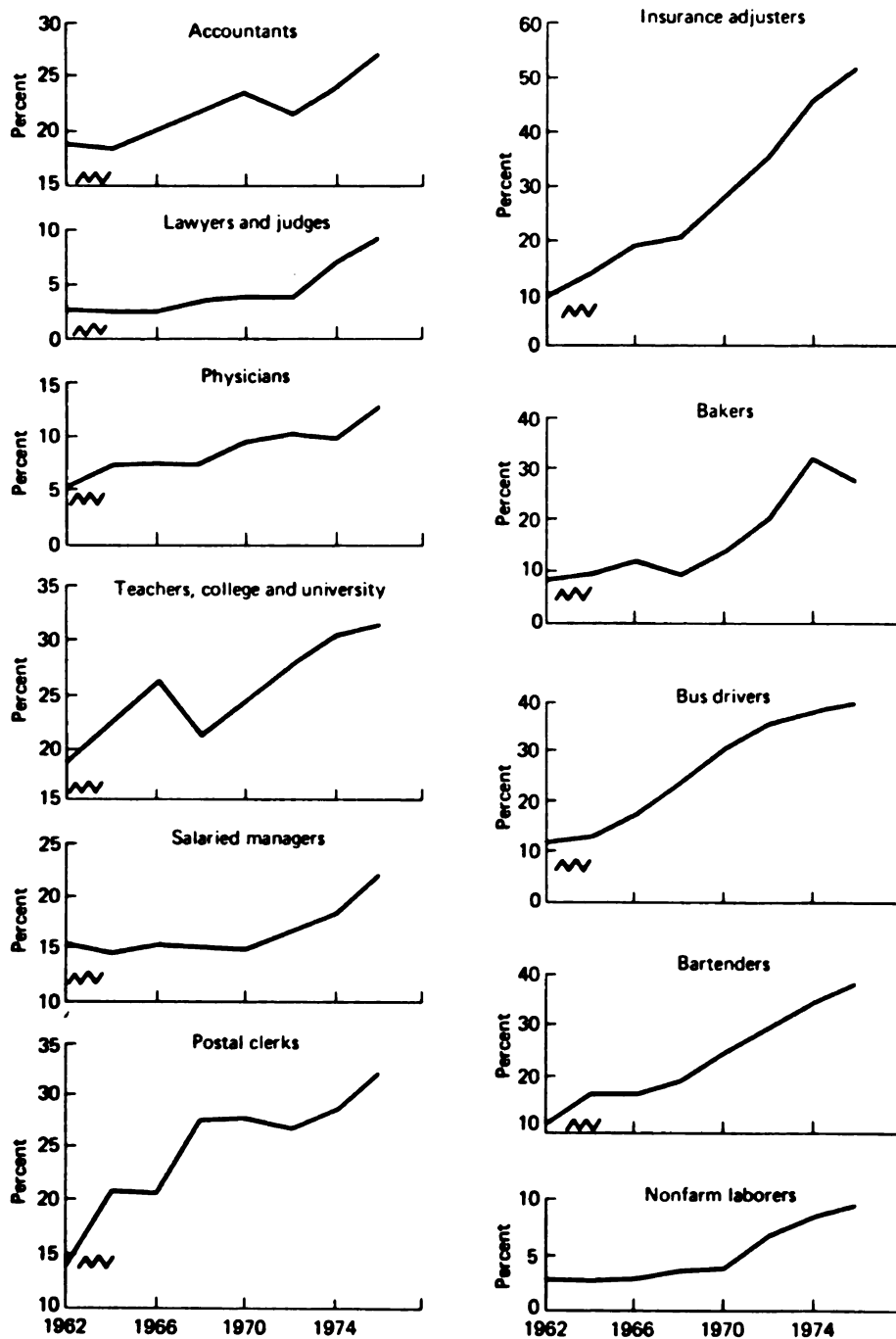


Figure 2-2.--Women as a percentage of employed workers in selected traditionally male occupations, biennial, 1962-1976. (From Margaret S. Gordon, "Women and Work: Priorities for the Future," in *Work in America: The Decade Ahead*, ed. Clark Kerr and Jerome Rosow (New York: D. Van Nostrand Co., 1979), p. 119.)

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Cochs cited the fact that "a third of the graduating class at Harvard Medical is made up of women. . . . Now, if a firm wants the top of the law class, it has to skim women along with men in the cream of the crop; 30.2% of 1981's graduates were women."<sup>1</sup> Steinem pointed out that "Now, the first woman in history is a justice of the U.S. Supreme Court. Ten years ago, the only woman was a blindfolded statue."<sup>2</sup>

"More than a third of all candidates for M.B.A. degrees are women."<sup>3</sup> In ever-increasing numbers, women are entering management positions.

Their numbers in the ranks of management have almost tripled since 1960, to more than 3 million. As more and more women make their mark in the business world, the stereotypes and impediments that once followed female managers have begun to crumble.<sup>4</sup>

See Figure 2-3.

All of this indicates great gains and rapid advances have occurred, but research indicates there is a very long way to go.

Thus, if we paint with a broad brush, we find immense improvements in the occupational status of women over the decades. But when we look more closely, the picture becomes less appealing. Occupational segregation is still a conspicuous feature of the economic status of women, despite progress in certain respects.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" p. 23.

<sup>2</sup>Gloria Steinem, "The Stage Is Set," Ms. (July/August 1982): 78.

<sup>3</sup>Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" p. 20.

<sup>4</sup>Sheler, Hartley, Galligan, Witkin, and Davidson, "When Women Take Over as Bosses," U.S. News and World Report, March 22, 1982, p. 77.

<sup>5</sup>Gordon, "Women and Work," p. 116.

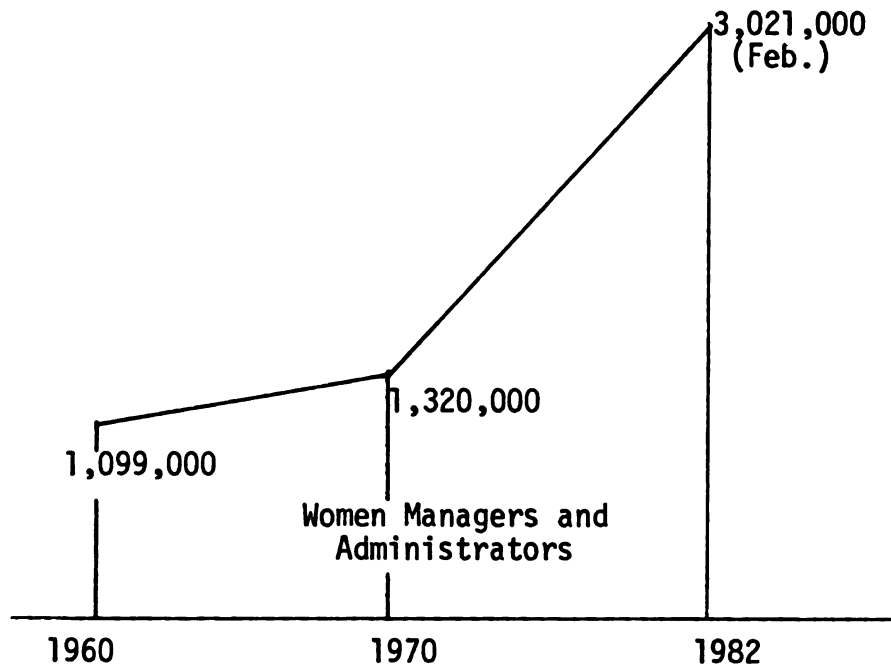


Figure 2-3.--Increase in number of female administrators and managers: 1960-1982. (From Sheler, Hartley, Galligan, Witkin, and Davidson, "When Women Take Over as Bosses," U.S. News and World Report, March 22, 1982, p. 77. Note that the number of women managers grew 175% during this period, vs. 37% for men.)

Cochs pointed out that 80 percent of all women who work hold down "pink-collar jobs" and get paid about "66¢ of a man's dollar." She also stressed that although there are large numbers of female M.B.A. graduates, "only 5% of the executives in the top 50 American companies are women."<sup>1</sup>

Kandel wrote,

. . . The hard truth is: women still earn less than men. Despite great strides made by working women over the past

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<sup>1</sup>Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" p. 20.

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decade, only 0.8 percent of full-time working women in this country earn \$25,000 and over, compared with 12 percent of men. One out of ten female workers earns as much as males in similar jobs. The median annual salary is \$19,433 for male college graduates and \$12,028 for female college graduates, according to the Census Bureau's current population survey.<sup>1</sup>

Kandel also cited the fact that even female physicians earn less than men:

Doctors are among the highest paid professionals in the country, but women physicians, on the whole, earn less than men. The average income for all doctors in private practice in 1978, according to an AMA survey, was almost \$70,000, whereas women doctors averaged about \$45,000.<sup>2</sup>

Cochs told us that "the situation is not a lot brighter on the management level. In 1980 the median salary for women managers and administrators was \$12,936, vs. \$23,558 for their male counterparts."<sup>3</sup> According to Mellor and Stamos, "For men working full-time, median weekly earnings in 1981 were \$347. For women, the median was \$224, or 65 percent of that for men."<sup>4</sup> Figure 2-4 provides a weekly earnings comparison for women and men of various age groups.

Even when women and men are clustered in the same occupation, salary levels differ. In her article, "Earnings of Men and Women, A Look at Specific Occupations," Rytina presented charted information

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<sup>1</sup>Thelma Kandel, "What Women Earn," Detroit Free Press, Parade Magazine, September 6, 1981, p. 10.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" p. 23.

<sup>4</sup>Earl F. Mellor and George D. Stamos, "Usual Weekly Earnings: Another Look at Intergroup Differences and Basic Trends," Monthly Labor Review 105 (April 1982): 16.

## Usual weekly earnings

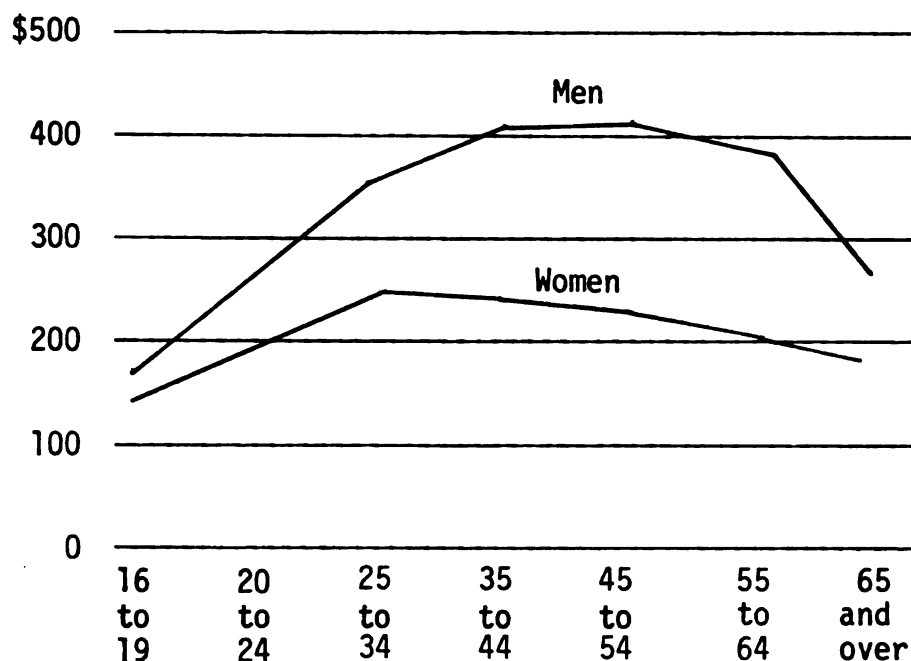


Figure 2-4.--Earnings profile of full-time wage and salary workers, by sex and age, 1981. (From Earl F. Mellor and George D. Stamos, "Usual Weekly Earnings: Another Look at Intergroup Differences and Basic Trends," Monthly Labor Review 105 (April 1982): 17.)

on the earning differentials of men and women in specific occupations.<sup>1</sup> Particular occupations are cited in Table 2-1.

There appear to be two overriding problems that influence the overall salary levels of women, keeping them at levels less than men's salaries. Gordon wrote,

Women's earnings, like those of men, are positively related to educational attainment, but highly educated women do not

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<sup>1</sup>Nancy Rytina, "Earnings of Men and Women: A Look at Specific Occupations," Monthly Labor Review 105 (April 1982): 25-31.

Table 2-1.--Median weekly earnings of wage and salary workers employed full time in occupations with total employment of 50,000 or more, by sex, 1961 annual averages (numbers in thousands).

Table 2-1.--Median weekly earnings of wage and salary workers employed full time in occupations with total employment of 50,000 or more, by sex, 1981 annual averages (numbers in thousands).

Occupation	Total, Both Sexes		Men		Women		Ratio Female/ Male Earnings Times 100	Percent Female Workers
	Total Employed	Weekly Earnings	Total Employed	Weekly Earnings	Total Employed	Weekly Earnings		
Professional, technical & kindred workers	12,870	377	7,358	439	5,512	316	71.8	42.8
Engineers	1,459	540	1,392	547	68	371	67.8	4.7
Foresters & conservationists	60	331	53	341	7	...	...	11.7
Lawyers & judges	299	550	237	579	62	410	70.7	20.7
Librarians, archivists & curators	146	323	25	...	121	319	...	82.9
Life & physical scientists	277	474	219	512	58	363	70.9	20.9
Operations & systems researchers & analysts	212	485	160	515	52	422	82.0	24.5
Personnel & labor relations workers	419	402	215	514	204	330	64.3	48.7
Physicians, dentists & related practitioners	314	468	242	495	73	401	80.9	23.2
Nurses, dieticians & therapists	1,168	327	106	344	1,062	326	94.7	90.9
Health technologists & technicians	511	287	161	324	350	273	84.2	68.5
Religious workers	268	284	244	286	25	...	...	9.3
Social scientists	238	461	158	522	81	391	74.9	34.0
Social & recreation workers	454	295	185	339	269	273	80.4	59.3
Teachers, college & university	438	444	310	485	128	389	80.3	29.2
Teachers, except college & university	2,624	333	864	384	1,760	311	80.9	67.1
Engineering & science technicians	1,056	348	868	371	188	279	75.3	17.8
Technicians, except health, engineering, science	172	375	128	437	43	...	...	25.0
Vocational & educational counselors	156	388	77	451	79	336	74.5	50.6
Writers, artists & entertainers	791	350	525	387	266	302	78.2	33.6
Research workers, not specified	157	362	96	437	61	307	70.3	38.9
Managers & administrators, except farm	7,864	407	5,630	466	2,235	283	60.8	28.4

Source: Based on Nancy Rytina, "Earnings of Men and Women: A Look at Specific Occupations," Monthly Labor Review 105 (April 1982): 26.

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benefit nearly as much from rising earnings with advancing age as do highly educated men. . . . The explanations are (1) that there is a concentration of educated women in such professions as teaching and nursing, in which earnings do not rise as much with advancing age as for physicians, lawyers, business executives, and (2) that there is a lack of continuity in the employment of married women.<sup>1</sup>

Rytina agreed: "Occupations in which women workers dominate tend to rank lower in terms of earnings; men dominate higher paid occupations."<sup>2</sup> Mellor and Stamos also stressed that

Among some of the personal characteristics which are difficult to quantify but which may have a significant effect on the male-female earnings ratio is the discontinuous work experience of many women. Although this practice has changed considerably in recent years, it used to be customary for women to leave the job market for many years in order to bear and rear children. This affected not only their accumulation of seniority, but also their advancement of skills.<sup>3</sup>

The nature of the job and the size of the woman's paycheck can be just as important to the woman and her family for economic and psychological reasons as it is for the man. "Even though a woman's paycheck is less than a man's, it keeps many an American family alive," said Betty Friedan. "Given the realities of humor, family and national survival there can't be any serious consideration that women will go home again."<sup>4</sup>

Jobs to provide for economic needs are essential. Jobs to satisfy needs of esteem and self-actualization can also be perceived to be essential. "Traditionally, jobs are the tools of success. In

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<sup>1</sup>Gordon, "Women and Work," p. 126.

<sup>2</sup>Rytina, "Earnings of Men and Women," p. 25.

<sup>3</sup>Mellor and Stamos, "Usual Weekly Earnings," p. 17.

<sup>4</sup>Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" p. 23.

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America they have become something more. We have learned that jobs do not simply earn money, they also create people," said Betty Stein, president of Goodmeasure, a Cambridge, Massachusetts, business consultancy. She continued,

Jobs, we have on good authority from the forefathers, confer respect, status and community well-being. The foremothers were apparently not consulted on the subject. It is difficult for a woman to find status in a pay envelope that is substantially thinner than a male co-worker's.<sup>1</sup>

Rosalind Barnett, a psychologist at Wellesley College's Center for Research on Women, talked about work as crucial to both men's and women's sense of who they are. Cochs wrote, "Barnett and a colleague, Grace Baruch, completed a study demonstrating that, for women between the ages of 35 and 55, a paying job is the overriding factor that enhances a sense of worth."<sup>2</sup>

This section was provided to give the current status of women in the work force in general. The following section is included to focus specifically on the current status of female professionals in higher education.

#### The Status of Women Employed in Higher Education

Higher education systems must change to include women administrators because huge pools of creative and effective talent should not be ignored. The increasing complexity of higher education requires the talents of women and men working together.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Judith Touchton and Donna Shavlich, "Challenging the Assumptions of Leadership: Women and Men of the Academy," New Directions for Higher Education 6,2 (1978): 95.



Women today are seeking undergraduate, graduate, and professional education in unprecedented numbers, but the administrators of educational institutions and the instructing faculty are still predominantly male. In a recent Time article, Cochs noted, "The majority of American college students now are women, and yet the faculties instructing them are still mostly male."<sup>1</sup> An example of this phenomenon can be found in our medical schools. "Approximately 25% of first year medical students in the U.S. are women. But only 15% of our medical school faculty members of all ranks are women. And no medical school in this country has a full dean who's a female."<sup>2</sup> In 1960-61, the percentages of women receiving bachelor's degrees was 38.2, masters 32.3, doctorates 10.5, and "first professional" 2.7. By the year 1978-79, percentages for women had increased, especially in higher educational levels: bachelor's degree 48.2, master's 49.1, doctorate 28.1, and "first professional" 23.5.<sup>3</sup> Table 2-2 shows the number of degrees granted to men and women during the years 1960-61 through 1978-79.

Numbers of female faculty members have not approached an increase in proportion to the increase in female students. A recent Associated Press article on sex-equity gains cited a report to Congress of the National Advisory Council on Women's Educational Programs. The

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<sup>1</sup>Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" p. 20.

<sup>2</sup>Kandel, "What Women Earn," p. 12.

<sup>3</sup>Mary L. Randour, Georgia L. Strasburg, and Jean Lipmen-Blumen, "Women in Higher Education: Trends in Enrollments and Degrees Earned," Harvard Educational Review 52 (May 1982): 195.

Table 2-2.--Earned degrees by level and sex of student: United States, 1960-61 to 1978-79.

Year	Bachelors			Masters			Doctorates			First Professional		
	Men	Women	Per- centage Women	Men	Women	Per- centage Women	Men	Women	Per- centage Women	Men	Women	Per- centage Women
1960-61	228,500	141,495	38.2	55,267	26,423	32.3	9,463	1,112	10.5	24,577	676	2.7
1961-62	234,671	154,009	39.6	59,710	28,704	32.5	10,377	1,245	10.7	24,836	771	3.0
1962-63	246,129	170,799	41.0	64,198	31,272	32.8	11,448	1,374	10.7	25,753	837	3.1
1963-64	270,319	196,625	42.1	70,339	35,212	33.3	12,955	1,535	10.6	26,357	852	3.1
1964-65	289,003	212,710	42.4	77,544	39,608	33.8	14,692	1,775	10.8	27,283	1,007	3.5
1965-66	299,871	221,052	42.4	93,063	47,485	33.8	16,121	2,116	11.6	28,982	1,142	3.9
1966-67	322,948	235,904	42.2	103,092	54,615	34.7	18,163	2,454	11.9	30,401	1,294	4.2
1967-68	358,105	274,653	43.4	113,519	63,230	35.8	20,183	2,906	12.6	32,402	1,537	4.6
1968-69	410,785	318,286	43.8	121,531	72,225	37.3	22,752	3,436	13.1	33,595	1,519	4.5
1969-70	451,380	341,276	43.2	125,624	82,667	39.8	25,890	3,976	13.3	32,794	1,784	5.4
1970-71	475,594	364,136	43.5	138,146	92,363	40.1	27,530	4,577	14.3	35,544	2,402	6.5
1971-72	500,590	386,683	43.7	149,550	102,083	40.6	28,090	5,273	15.8	40,723	2,688	6.3
1972-73	518,191	404,171	43.9	154,468	108,903	41.4	28,571	6,206	17.9	46,489	3,529	7.2
1973-74	527,313	418,463	44.4	157,842	119,191	43.1	27,365	6,451	19.1	48,580	5,286	9.9
1974-75	504,841	418,092	45.4	161,570	130,880	44.8	26,817	7,266	21.3	48,956	6,900	12.5
1975-76	504,925	420,821	45.5	167,248	144,523	46.4	26,267	7,797	22.9	52,892	9,757	15.6
1976-77	495,637	423,912	46.1	167,780	149,384	47.1	25,157	8,075	24.3	52,398	10,961	17.3
1977-78	487,317	433,877	47.1	161,108	150,512	48.3	23,648	8,483	26.4	52,266	14,315	21.5
1978-79	477,344	444,046	48.2	153,370	147,709	49.1	23,41	9,189	28.1	52,652	16,196	23.5

Source: Mary L. Randour, Georgia L. Strasburg, and Jean Lipnen-Blumen, "Women in Higher Education: Trends in Enrollments and Degrees Earned," Harvard Educational Review 52 (May 1982): 195.



report noted clear improvements in areas such as enrollment levels and degree awards but

. . . concluded that there are still marked pockets of resistance to the law in such areas as employment and wages. . . . The percent of women who are full professors at colleges and universities remained static between 1975 and 1981.<sup>1</sup>

In a survey conducted by the American Association of University Professors, it was found that only 9.7 percent of all professors are women who earn a salary figure that is approximately 11 percent less than their male counterparts.<sup>2</sup> Table 2-3 gives a clear indication of the average pay and distribution of women among the professorial and instructor ranks.

The relatively fewer number of women professors not only exposes females to a male-dominated faculty but may also give the female student a subtle message about her own future potential in such nontraditional career areas. Hammond, in writing about the lack of female faculty, commented:

A woman is all right as a coed, but when she comes back after college with all the same training and preparation male students have been given, she is suspect and welcomed only as a stop gap or a permanent instructor on the lower levels. . . . You cannot open all the doors through college and then with no warning close them all at graduation. At least you cannot do so morally and in good faith.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>"Sex Equity Gain Hailed," Lansing State Journal, October 18, 1981, p. 2-A.

<sup>2</sup>The Chronicle of Higher Education, July 7, 1982, p. 10.

<sup>3</sup>Geraldine Hammond, "And What of the Young Women?" in Design for Equity: Women and Leadership in Higher Education, ed. Carol Konek and others. Wichita, Kansas: Wichita State University, 1980 (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 200 124, 1980).

Table 2-3.--Average pay and distribution of men and women.

Category	Average Salary		1-Year Change		Women's Share of Faculty Jobs	Distribution	
	Men	Women	Men	Women		Men	Women
<u>All Categories</u>							
Professor	\$33,920	\$30,290	+9.1%	+8.5%	9.7%	38.8%	13.0%
Associate professor	25,570	23,960	+8.9%	+8.6%	20.6%	30.7%	24.7%
Assistant professor	21,070	19,620	+9.1%	+9.1%	35.1%	24.1%	40.6%
Instructor	16,890	15,870	+8.8%	+6.8%	53.3%	5.2%	18.5%
Lecturer	19,730	17,110	...	...	46.4%	1.2%	3.2%
All ranks	27,200	21,300	+9.0%	+8.6%	24.3%	100.0%	100.0%

Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education, July 7, 1982, p. 10.

Male dominance is not only evidenced in the faculty, but also in top administration. Astin described the consequence of a male-dominated administration:

One practical consequence of sex discrimination in hiring top administrators is that both men and women students who enter college for the first time are exposed to a male dominated and male oriented administration. The absence of women in top administration can create an environment that lacks not only role models for women who might ultimately become administrators, but also the unique perspective that women might bring to the varied tasks of administering a college.<sup>1</sup>

There are writers who attribute the scarcity of college and university female administrators to the relative scarcity of female professors. Cummings commented:

An obvious reason for the lack of top female academic administrators is the fact the top administrators traditionally have come to their positions from top ranking faculty jobs, and women are almost as scarce here as they are in administrative positions.<sup>2</sup>

Astin also agreed that

Traditionally, presidents and top academic officers are chosen from among the faculty, not only [from] among directors of student services, registrars, librarians, personnel directors, assistants to academic administrators, directors of public information, affirmative action officers, and similar positions. . . .<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Alexander W. Astin, "Academic Administration: The Hard Core of Sexism in Academe," in Design for Equity: Women and Leadership in Higher Education, ed. Carol Konek and others. Wichita, Kansas: Wichita State University, 1980 (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 200 124, 1980), p. 29.

<sup>2</sup>Nancy P. Cummings, "Women in Higher Education Administration," in Women in Educational Administration: A Book of Readings, ed. Margaret C. Berry (Washington, D.C.: National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, n.d.), p. 63.

<sup>3</sup>Astin, "Academic Administration," p. 80.

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The scarcity of female administrators is an obvious reality. Women are underrepresented in major policy-making positions in colleges and universities and are found to be clustered in low- and middle-level stereotyped administrative positions. Finlay and Crosson, in reviewing available statistics, reported that in 1979 women constituted 6.8 percent of all college presidents in the United States, 15 percent of over 47,000 members of governing boards of colleges and universities, and 16 percent of all administrative posts. Women tended to be concentrated in lower-level positions.<sup>1</sup>

In a study presented by Frances and Mensel, the lesser percentages of female administrators were made obvious in a survey of 1,222 institutions covering 26,104 administrators.<sup>2</sup> An example of survey results can be quoted in regard to public white coeducational institutions: the number of male chief executive officers was 339; the number of females, 3. Similar differences can be found in other top administrative positions. Table 2-4 gives the percentages of individuals holding administrative positions by race and sex at public white coeducational institutions in 1978-79.

As is the case with faculty, not only are there fewer females among administrators, but salaries of those who do hold positions are

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<sup>1</sup>Cheryl Finlay and Patricia Crosson, "Women in Higher Education Administration: Status and Strategies," Administrator's Update 2 (Winter 1981) (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 200 120, 1981).

<sup>2</sup>Carol Frances and Frank Mensel, "Women and Minorities in Administration of Higher Education Institutions: Employment Patterns and Salary Comparisons 1978-79 and an Analysis of Progress Toward Affirmative Action Goals 1975-76 to 1978-79," Journal of the College and University Personnel Association 32 (Fall 1981): 28.



Table 2-4.--Percentage distributions by race and sex at public white coeducational institutions in 1978-79.

Position	White Men	White Women	Minority Men	Minority Women
Chief Executive Officer	96.9%	0.9%	2.3%	0.0%
Chief Planning Officer	87.8	5.4	4.1	2.7
Chief Business Officer	96.6	1.5	1.9	0.0
Chief Budget Officer	90.8	6.1	3.1	0.0
Director, Food Service	78.4	16.7	3.9	1.0
Purchasing Agent	83.7	13.2	2.6	0.5
Manager, Bookstore	66.1	30.1	3.8	0.0
Director, Legal Services	88.1	9.5	2.4	0.0
Director, Personnel/Human Resources	70.6	22.5	6.9	0.0
Director, Affirmative Action/Equal Employment	16.7	35.7	27.0	20.6
Director, Computer Center	94.5	2.0	3.5	0.0
Director, Information Systems	87.7	8.8	3.5	0.0
Comptroller	89.2	6.3	3.2	1.3
Chief Academic Officer	91.8	4.7	3.1	0.4
Director, Library Services	76.7	20.1	2.4	0.8
Director, Institutional Research	80.1	15.6	2.8	1.4
Director, Athletics	96.4	1.0	2.6	0.0
All Deans	83.2	12.6	3.4	0.8
Chief Student Affairs Officer	83.7	9.7	5.8	0.8
Admissions/Registrar/Student Aid	78.1	14.6	5.1	2.2
Director, Student Placement	77.1	5.0	15.1	2.8
Director, Student Counseling	72.6	21.2	4.8	1.4
Director, Student Union	81.6	11.0	6.7	0.6
Director, Student Housing	81.1	14.4	4.5	0.0
Development and Public Relations	84.6	11.7	2.8	0.8
Director, Information Office	67.9	30.7	1.5	0.0
Director, Community Services	78.0	14.3	6.6	1.1
Total of Above Positions	82.0%	12.6%	4.2%	1.2%

Source: Carol Frances and Frank Mensel, "Women and Minorities in Administration of Higher Education Institutions: Employment Patterns and Salary Comparisons 1978-79 and an Analysis of Progress Toward Affirmative Action Goals 1975-76 to 1978-79," Journal of the College and University Personnel Association 32 (Fall 1981): 29.

less than those of their male counterparts. In its annual study of administrative salaries published in March 1981, the College and University Personnel Association found that "in every administrative job but one, the median salary for men is higher than the median for women. The one in which the median is higher for women than for men is that of Dean of Nursing."<sup>1</sup> Table 2-5 gives the differences in administrators' pay for male and female group members. The facts and figures presented give indication of the current status of female professionals in higher education.

The increase of female percentages among faculty and administration for tomorrow could be affected by the social conditions of declining enrollments and deteriorating economic conditions.<sup>2</sup>

According to Kilson,

Despite raised consciousnesses, affirmative-action guidelines, day-care centers, and women's studies programs, the status of women in higher education promises to decline. Even were positions within institutional hierarchies allocated sex blind or preferentially to women, the impact of demographic changes and economic constraints would limit opportunities available to them. With a declining population and a restrictive economy, fewer positions will exist in academe. Consequently, even if women fill a larger proportion of academic positions than they do now, the number so employed is unlikely to be significantly increased. As it is, such societal forces threaten to undermine recent gains made by women at lower levels of academe as students and junior faculty. Men and women in higher education will have to be

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<sup>1</sup> Jack Magarell, "Administrators' Salaries Rise 8.7 Percent. Women's Pay Is Lower in Most Fields," The Chronicle of Higher Education 22 (March 1981): 8.

<sup>2</sup> Randour, Strasburg, and Lipmen-Blumen, "Women in Higher Education."

Table 2-5.--Differences in administrators' pay for men and women.

Position	Male	Female	Male Differential
Chief executive of a single institution	\$48,257	\$40,000	+ 20.6%
Executive vice-president	40,300	29,970	+ 34.5%
Chief academic officer	38,000	31,000	+ 22.6%
Chief business officer	35,588	23,175	+ 53.6%
Chief student-affairs officer	31,950	25,127	+ 27.2%
Chief development officer	32,500	26,219	+ 24.0%
Chief public-relations officer	28,320	18,575	+ 52.5%
Director, personnel & human resources	29,705	20,807	+ 42.8%
Chief health-professions officer	57,000	26,800	+112.7%
Chief budgeting officer	31,365	23,700	+ 32.3%
Director, legal services	36,000	32,800	+ 9.8%
Registrar	26,000	17,859	+ 45.6%
Director, library services	28,909	21,753	+ 32.9%
Director, computer services	27,600	19,980	+ 38.1%
Director, affirmative action, equal employment	27,500	25,000	+ 10.0%
Comptroller	28,500	19,900	+ 43.2%
Director, information systems	32,130	24,000	+ 33.9%
Director, auxiliary services	28,943	19,000	+ 52.3%
Director, admissions	25,850	19,824	+ 30.4%
Director, international-studies education	31,277	18,600	+ 68.2%
Director, student financial aid	22,700	17,100	+ 32.7%
Director, student health services	43,000	16,257	+164.5%
Director, student housing	20,849	15,200	+ 37.2%
Director, campus recreation & intramurals	20,640	17,292	+ 19.4%
Director, alumni affairs	23,000	15,930	+ 44.4%
Director, information office	23,731	20,000	+ 18.7%
Chief development & public-relations officer	35,000	28,000	+ 25.0%
Director, personnel & affirmative action	27,000	18,000	+ 50.0%
Director, admissions & financial aid	28,000	19,000	+ 47.4%
Dean, development & alumni affairs	28,166	20,800	+ 35.4%
Dean, arts & letters	36,221	31,300	+ 15.7%
Dean, arts & sciences	40,000	33,790	+ 18.4%
Dean, business	38,116	28,035	+ 36.0%
Dean, communications	34,150	25,672	+ 33.0%
Dean, continuing education	32,850	23,370	+ 40.6%
Dean, education	39,429	33,278	+ 18.5%
Dean, engineering	n/a	n/a	n/a
Dean, fine arts	36,350	29,640	+ 22.6%
Dean, graduate programs	40,000	34,910	+ 14.6%
Dean, health-related professions	38,376	30,743	+ 24.8%
Dean, home economics	44,000	36,000	+ 22.2%
Dean, humanities	31,000	28,984	+ 7.0%
Dean, instruction	n/a	n/a	n/a
Dean, law	n/a	n/a	n/a
Dean, library & information sciences	41,000	27,660	+ 48.2%
Dean, mathematics	32,012	29,400	+ 8.9%
Dean, nursing	32,815	34,000	- 3.6%
Dean, sciences	33,000	27,067	+ 21.9%
Dean, social sciences	30,600	28,600	+ 7.0%
Dean, social work	40,000	27,950	+ 43.1%

Source: The Chronicle of Higher Education, July 7, 1982, p. 10.

vigilant if institutional gains for women are to be consolidated and not eroded.<sup>1</sup>

Further, efforts to increase the number of women in administrative positions will be dependent upon a pool of qualified applicants. Cummings stated,

Efforts to expand the pool, however, must take into consideration the factors which account for the smallness of the pool in the first place. That is, before asking how we can get more women into academic positions, we must have some understanding of why there are not more women in academic positions right now.<sup>2</sup>

Discrimination as a factor has been amply documented. The sections following, pertaining to historical perspectives on women and the history of women in higher education, are included to give perspective to the psychological and sociological factors perceived to influence the career aspirations of women in our present day.

### Historical Perspectives on Women

We who like the children of Israel have been wandering in the wilderness of prejudice and ridicule for forty years feel a peculiar tenderness for the young woman on whose shoulders we are about to leave our burdens. . . . The younger women are starting with great advantages over us. They have the results of our experience; they have superior opportunities for education; they will find a more enlightened public sentiment for discussion; they will have more courage to take the rights which belong to them. . . . Thus far women have been mere echoes

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<sup>1</sup>Marion Kilson, "The Status of Women in Higher Education: Review Essay," in Design for Equity: Women and Leadership in Higher Education, ed. Carol Konek and others. Wichita, Kansas: Wichita State University, 1980 (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 200 124, 1980), p. 19.

<sup>2</sup>Cummings, "Women in Higher Education Administration," p. 63.

of men. Our laws and constitutions, our creeds and codes, and the customs of social life are all masculine in origin.

The true woman is yet as a dream of the future.

Elizabeth Cady Stanton  
at the age of 72, speaking  
to the International Council  
of Women, 1888<sup>1</sup>

Although writers and researchers acknowledge women as a force in history, several writers have strongly stated that historical writings do not accurately depict the strength and influence of that force. Henry Adams was convinced of women's force in history but felt the subject had been neglected among professional historians.<sup>2</sup> Beard, in writing about Adams' view of historical writings, noted:

Of woman's force Adams had no doubt: "The idea that she was weak revolted all history; it was a palaeontological falsehood that even an Eocene female monkey would have laughed at. . . . One's studies in the twelfth century, like one's studies in the fourth, as in Homeric and archaic time, showed her always busy in the illusions of heaven or of hell--ambition, intrigue, jealousy, magic."

. . . Convinced that she was a, if not the, determining force in the rise and decline of civilization, Adams fumed against the kind of history-writing which prevailed in his time. "American history," as he knew it, "mentioned hardly the name of a woman, while English history handled them as timidly as though they were a new and undescribed species." Since written history, in the prevailing American and English style, scarcely mentioned women, Adams pronounced a critical judgement on this literature: "The study of history is useful to the historian by teaching him his ignorance of women; and the mass of this ignorance crushes one who is familiar enough with what are called historical sources to realize how few women have ever been known. The woman who is only known through a man is known wrong. . . . The American woman of the nineteenth century will live only as

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<sup>1</sup>E. Flexner, Century of Struggle: The Woman's Rights Movement in the United States (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1959), p. v.

<sup>2</sup>Mary Beard, Woman as a Force in History (New York: Octagon Books, 1946; reprint ed., 1976), p. 218.

the man saw her; probably she will be less known than the woman of the eighteenth; none of the female descendants of Abigail Adams can ever be nearly so familiar as her, letters have made her; and all this is pure loss to history."<sup>1</sup>

Further, Flexner stated that historians have paid little attention to woman's changing role.<sup>2</sup> Schlesinger referred to this neglect in New Viewpoints in American History, published in 1928:

An examination of the standard histories of the United States and of the history textbooks in use in our schools raises the pertinent question whether women have ever made any contributions to American national progress that are worthy of record. If the silence of the historians is to mean anything, it would appear that one-half of our population have been negligible factors in our country's history. . . . [And] any consideration of woman's part in American history must include the protracted struggle of the sex for larger rights and opportunities, a story that is in itself one of the noblest chapters in American democracy.<sup>3</sup>

In writing about her study of women as a force in history, Beard told of her individual effort in attempting to write a history more accurately depicting women:

I have roughly outlined, in my analytical chapters and in my last chapter dealing with long history, the kind of studying, writing, and teaching which I believe to be mandatory if a genuine interest in understanding human life is to be cultivated. For getting closer to the truth about it, the personalities, interests, ideas, and activities of women must receive an attention commensurate with their energy in history. Women have done far more than exist and bear and rear children. They have played a great role in directing human events as thought and action. Women have been a force in making all the history that has been made.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid., pp. 218-19.

<sup>2</sup> Flexner, Century of Struggle, p. viii.

<sup>3</sup> Cited in Flexner, Century of Struggle, p. viii.

<sup>4</sup> Beard, Women as a Force in History, p. ix.

There have been some individuals who have been generally recognized for their force in history and who have emerged as eventful women. Among those mentioned by Hook in his book, The Hero in History, are Cleopatra, Theodora, and Catherine II.<sup>1</sup> In speaking of Cleopatra and Theodora, Hook acknowledged that, like most women who played a role in history, influence was achieved by influencing men. He also pointed out, however, that success was achieved through the "intelligence" of these women. "And like most women who have influenced eventful men, Cleopatra owed her success not so much to her beauty as to qualities of intelligence, will, personality and an obscure appeal that does not depend on face or figure."<sup>2</sup> Beard, in describing Cleopatra, noted her intelligence as a source of power as opposed to mere beauty, as popular sentiment might portray:

Writers have made much of her "sex appeal," but historians familiar with the documents of her history go beyond this superficial judgement of her whole personality to her role as administrator and protector of her people. They tell us that she was not "especially beautiful" but attracted masterful men by other qualities. Then they emphasize other facts. "Apart from her attractions, she was highly educated, interested in literary studies, conversant with many languages, and a skilled organizer and woman of business". . . .<sup>3</sup>

In describing Theodora, Hook claimed, "As a woman she was attractive, but her contemporaries thought her more graceful than beautiful and were most impressed by her spirit, intelligence, and

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<sup>1</sup>Sidney Hook, The Hero in History (Boston: Beacon Press, 1943), p. 176.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 177.

<sup>3</sup>Beard, Woman as a Force in History, pp. 291-92.

sharp wit."<sup>1</sup> Hook also wrote about Catherine II: "Among modern eventful women, probably of greatest distinction is Catherine II, that 'Russian Empress of German blood and French culture.'" Further, he stated that "her eventfulness as a historic character was due to unique gifts of political intelligence."<sup>2</sup>

Although these women stood out individually as having power in the formation of history, women as a collective force have also influenced the transformation of great societies in history. Beard wrote,

Fatefully interlocked with all the visible, vocal, and revolutionary upheavals which, in our time, have been ripping open and transforming great societies inherited from the nineteenth century and its long past are the relations between men and women. . . . As in the beginning of organized warfare, back in the aeons of unrecorded history, so in its latest forms the sanction of women is deemed essential to its terrific force.<sup>3</sup>

Beard also asserted that "the competition among the revolutionists for mastery in the human world has been emphatically marked by competition in conceptions of sex relations."<sup>4</sup>

One is the view that the "woman's problem," a definition respecting woman's place in society satisfactory to herself, can only be solved by complete equality with men, and that the equality can only be established under Communism. A second view is that woman must find her greatest happiness and contribute most to the State by limiting her ambitions to domesticity and still more narrowly to child-bearing, in order that the population rate may be high enough to keep a given nation secure against crowded societies on its borders, and strong enough within for aggressive action when desired against

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<sup>1</sup>Hook, The Hero in History, p. 181.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 182.

<sup>3</sup>Beard, Women as a Force in History, p. 13.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 38.



neighbors or more distant communities; this is the ideology of Fascism. The third view is that woman must have the right to choose her way of life even to the point of self-centered interests; this is one among the ideologies of Democracy.<sup>1</sup>

The leaders of revolutionary efforts had to reckon with the role and force of women. "Equally with Lenin, Mussolini, and Franco, Hitler understood the force of women as an imperative in achieving and establishing a revolution."<sup>2</sup> And, of course, the power of the vote in democracy was a factor of power for women. In 1944, Roosevelt had to recognize the power of women having 65 percent of the voting power.<sup>3</sup>

Women as a group were a force throughout history; individually some women, through wit and intelligence, were influential, but mostly by influencing men in power. Generally, women were not known to be socially and legally equal to men. Writers have attested to the subjection of women in a social sense as well as in the legal, religious, economic, intellectual, military, political, and philosophical realms. In speaking on the subjection of women, John Stuart Mill said:

The masters of all other slaves rely, for maintaining obedience, on fear; either fear of themselves, or religious fears. The masters of women wanted more than simple obedience, and they turned the whole force of education to effect their purpose. All women are brought up from the very earliest years in the belief that their ideal of character is the very opposite to that of men; not self-will, and government by self-control, but submission, and yielding to the control of others. All the moralities tell them that it is the duty of women, and all the current sentimentalities that it is their nature, to live for others; to make complete abnegation of themselves, and to have no life but in their affections. And by their affections are

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 14.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 19.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 25.

meant the only ones they are allowed to have--those to the men with whom they are connected, or to the children who constitute an additional and indefeasible tie between them and a man. When we put together three things--first, the natural attraction between opposite sexes; secondly, the wife's entire dependence on the husband, every privilege or pleasure she has being either his gift, or depending entirely on his will; and lastly, that the principal object of human pursuit, consideration, and all objects of social ambition, can in general be sought or obtained by her only through him, it would be a miracle if the object of being attractive to men had not become the polar star of feminine education and formation of character.<sup>1</sup>

Mary Wollencraft talked about the fact that "Rousseau, and most of the male writers who have followed his steps, have warmly inculcated that the whole tendency of female education ought to be directed to one point:--to render them pleasing."<sup>2</sup>

Frederick Engels spoke to the oppression of women in The Origin of the Family, Private Property, and the State, which was first published in 1884. The book offers the basic Marxist explanation for the oppression of women. According to Engels, that oppression is rooted in the twin facts of private ownership of property and the exclusion of women from social production. He recognized the family as a basic social organization within which the woman becomes subject to man:

The overthrow of mother-right was the world historical defeat of the female sex. The man took command in the home also; the woman was degraded and reduced to servitude, she became the slave of his lust and a mere instrument for the production of children. This degraded position of the woman, especially conspicuous among the Greeks of the heroic and still more of the classical age, has gradually been palliated and glossed over, and sometimes clothed in a milder form; in no sense has it been abolished.

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<sup>1</sup>Cited in Miriam Schneir, Feminism: The Essential Historical Writings (New York: Random House, 1972), pp. 167-68.

<sup>2</sup>Cited in Schneir, Feminism, p. 9.

The establishment of the exclusive supremacy of the man shows its effects first in the patriarchal family, which now emerges as an intermediate form. . . .<sup>1</sup>

Engles further discussed the patriarchal family, which evidences the exclusive supremacy of the man:

Its essential features are the incorporation of unfree persons, and paternal power; hence the perfect type of this form of family is the Roman. The original meaning of the word "family" (familia) is not that compound of sentimentality and domestic strife which forms the ideal of the present-day philistine; among the Romans it did not at first even refer to the married pair and their children, but only to the slaves. Famulus means domestic slave, and familia is the total number of slaves belonging to one man. . . . The term was invented by the Romans to denote a new social organism, whose head ruled over wife and children and a number of slaves, and was invested under Roman paternal power with rights of life and death over them all. . . .<sup>2</sup>

Beyond the origins of the patriarchal family, Engles further stated that the origin and purpose of the monogamous family is based on the supremacy of man, "the express purpose being to produce children of undisputed paternity; such paternity is demanded because these children are later to come into their father's property as natural heirs."<sup>3</sup>

Engels' historical writings appraising the oppression of the woman within the family structure were published in 1884; Margaret Mead's writings published in 1949 give evidence of the influence of the historical family structure on the role of women within the family in recent history:

So it falls to the lot of women to design the way of life for the family, consulting her husband on major issues only, simply because that is her job.

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<sup>1</sup>Cited in Schneir, Feminism, p. 189.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 190.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., pp. 190-91.



. . . Two things mar her happiness, however: the fear that even though she never has any time, she is not perhaps doing a full-time job, and the fact that although she, like her brother, was taught that the right to choose a job is every American's sacred right, she doesn't feel that she chose this one. She chose wifehood and motherhood perhaps, but she did not necessarily choose to "keep house." That, in the phrasing of contemporary America, is thrust upon her because she is a woman; it is not a full status to be proudly chosen, but a duty that one cannot avoid and still find happiness in marriage.<sup>1</sup>

Historically, socializing factors, such as those discussed in this section, have fostered among women patterns of dependence as opposed to styles and expectations of independence and liberation. The English novelist and critic Virginia Woolfe stressed that intellectual freedom and productivity depend upon a woman having "money and a room of one's own."

Intellectual freedom depends upon material things. Poetry depends upon intellectual freedom. And women have always been poor, not for two hundred years merely, but from the beginning of time. . . . That is why I have laid so much stress on money and a room of one's own.<sup>2</sup>

But Woolfe also knew that, for women, "money" was not easily attained. Although she fortunately was a woman of inheritance, she spoke of her lot before the monetary freedom:

. . . She had left me five hundred pounds a year forever. Of the two [recently attained]--the vote and the money--the money I own seemed infinitely the more important. Before that I had made my living by cadging odd jobs from newspapers, by reporting a donkey show here or a wedding there; I had earned a few pounds by addressing envelopes, reading to old ladies, making artificial flowers, teaching the alphabet to small children in a kindergarten. Such were the chief occupations that were open to women before 1918. I need not, I am afraid, describe in any

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<sup>1</sup>Margaret Mead, Male and Female (New York: William Morrow & Co., 1949), pp. 334-35.

<sup>2</sup>Cited in Schneir, Feminism, p. 354.

detail the hardness of the work, for you know perhaps women who have done it; nor the difficulty of living on the money when it was earned, for you may have tried. But what still remains with me as a worse infliction than either was the poison of fear and bitterness which those days bred in me. To begin with, always to be doing work that one did not wish to do, and to do it like a slave, flattering and fawning, not always necessarily perhaps, but it seemed necessary and the stakes were too great to run risks; and then the thought of that one gift which it was death to hide--a small one but dear to the possessor--perishing and with it myself, my soul became like a rust eating away the bloom of the spring, destroying the tree at its heart.<sup>1</sup>

It does seem apparent that women have taken some steps forward from the type of work described by Woolf. Technological advances as well as women's progress toward acceptance in differing occupations in the work force have been factors in the change in type of work available to women. Kerr and Rosow wrote,

In 1900 the most important single occupation for women workers, accounting for nearly three-tenths of the total, was private household work. If we add semiskilled factory workers (operatives) and farm workers, we account for more than seven-tenths of all women workers at the beginning of the century. Since then, the upgrading of the female work force has proceeded more or less steadily. By 1976, only 16 percent of employed women were operatives, private household workers, or farm workers, whereas nearly 64 percent were white-collar workers.<sup>2</sup>

The theme of economic productivity as a means to liberation, equality, and productivity is central to numerous writings. Engels expressed this, as did Woolf; it was also recently expressed in 1968 in a government report presented by Sweden to the United Nations Economic and Social Council concerning the status of women in Sweden,

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 348-49.

<sup>2</sup>Clark Kerr and Jerome M. Rosow, eds., Work in America: The Decade Ahead (New York: D. Van Nostrand, 1979), p. 116.

a country widely regarded as progressive in providing for a greater equality of women. The Official Report stated in part:

The goal for a long-range program of "women's rights" must be that every individual, regardless of sex, shall have the same practical opportunities not only for education and employment but also fundamentally the same responsibility for his or her own financial support as well as shared responsibility for child upbringing and housework. If complete equality is ever to be reached in respect to these rights and responsibilities, there must be a radical change in deeply-rooted traditions and attitudes, as much among women as among men, and active measures must be taken by society which will stimulate a change in the roles of both men and women. The idea that women must be financially supported by marriage must effectively be opposed--even in law, as it is a direct obstacle to woman's economic independence and her chances to compete on equal footing with men in the labor market.<sup>1</sup>

And so from ancient times to modern, the role of women evolves. Today's role and its perception by both men and women is affected by the traditions and customs of the past--a perception made obvious by the literature reviewed and yet to be discussed in a later section. For purposes of this dissertation, however, a historical perspective is not complete without a review of the female role in higher education.

#### History of Women in Higher Education

A woman who is guided by the head and not the heart is a social pestilence: she has all the defects of a passionate and affectionate woman, with none of the compensation: she is without pity, without love, without virtue, without sex.

Honore de Balzac<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Georgene H. Seward and Robert C. Williamson, eds., Sex Roles in a Changing Society (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 200.

<sup>2</sup>M. Horner, "A Bright Woman Is Caught in a Double Bind. In Achievement Oriented Situations She Worries Not Only About Failure But Also Success," Psychology Today 3 (November 1969): 1.

The nineteenth century was a century of transition in regard to the education of women. At the beginning of the century, the majority opposed such education; however, by the end of the century, although much opposition remained, the idea that women would be educated became reality. It was now apparent that within a democratic society women must be educated. The nature of the education remained a matter of tremendous debate, for there were those whose labors were concerned with preserving the "decorative innocence, the domestic saintliness, and the delicate health of women. Books of advice written by men for women were very popular and undoubtedly had an important influence in socializing women into anti-academic role definitions."<sup>1</sup> The adversaries of higher education for women fought hard to keep the role of women centered on domestic and social duties:

Everything has its appointed sphere, within which alone it can flourish. Men and women have theirs. They are not exceptions to this truth, but examples of it. To be happy and prosperous, they must abide in them. Man is fitted for the storms of public life, and, like the petrel, can be happy amidst their rudest surges. Woman is formed for the calm of the home. She may venture like the land-bird, to invade the sphere of man: but she will encounter storms which she is utterly unfitted to meet: happiness will forsake her breast, her own sex will despise her, men will be unable to love her, and when she dies she will fill an unhonored grave.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Carol W. Konek, "Roles Learned by Rote: Access to Higher Education for Women in the Nineteenth Century," Project Delta, Wichita State University, Final Report. Washington, D.C.: Office of Education, Women's Program Staff, 1979 (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 179 153, 1979).

<sup>2</sup>Daniel Wise, The Young Ladies Counselor (New York: Eaton and Mains, 1951), p. 96.



Women were thought to meet their need for power and achievement and to reap rewards and satisfaction in a vicarious manner-- through the educating and inspiring of husband and sons.

Nor are the pleasures of success less delightful in a woman's breast because she attains through another. If a rich rise of joy flows through the breast of an applauded hero, a triumphant statesman, or a useful philanthropist, there is another equally delightful in the bosom of the woman who is conscious that, but for her, the great man would never have mounted the pedestal of his greatness.<sup>1</sup>

It was a curious paradox that a woman should be entrusted with the education of the young, but should be discouraged from seeking further education herself. The role expectations of the woman appeared to be in conflict with the social goals she was expected to accomplish.

The nineteenth-century woman in America was, by popular definition, a household saint. She was expected to be the embodiment of all that was nurturing and pure in a violent and untamed country in the process of founding itself upon principles of equality and self-reliance. She had learned the lesson of courageous exploration in her emigration to these strange shores; she had learned from a revolution what was later to become the basis for a tradition of dissent; she had watched education emerge as one of the most vital values in a country establishing its national priorities. The importance of her role as the educator of the young was being impressed upon her: it was the role of molder of the character of future leaders of the country. She was to produce an educated electorate. Yet she was to think of herself as intellectually limited, as more spiritual than intellectual, as too gentle for public strife, as too fragile for the rigors of learning. Role expectations as they were embodied in the mythologies of the day were already in conflict with social forces which would make her entrance into higher education a cultural imperative. She could not be entrusted with the education of the young without educating herself. She could not educate herself for this purpose and be content with a little learning. It was inevitable that she would gain access to higher education.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 98.

<sup>2</sup>Konek, "Roles Learned by Rote," p. 3.

As the need to educate women became more inevitable and as women sought to acquire further education, female seminaries were established and recognized by some as being a substitute for higher education. Emma Willard established a school for girls in Troy, New York, in 1819; Catherine Beecher opened the Hartford Female Seminary in 1832; Mary Lyon founded Mt. Holyoke Female Seminary in 1836. "Myrtilla Miner, a young white woman from New York, received help from the Quakers and Harriet Beecher Stowe in establishing the first seminary for black women, which came to be called 'The Miner Normal School for Colored Girls.'"<sup>1</sup>

Konek summarized the impact of seminary education and the role the seminaries played in preparing the way for the acceptance of women in institutions for higher education:

While there were academies which emphasized "accomplishments" to the exclusion of academic content, and while there were normal schools which prepared teachers to perpetuate the prescriptive and often shallow teaching of rote skills, these seminaries were formulating curricular plans and theories of education for women which would pave the way for women into higher education. The rise of the female seminaries was important in upgrading standards, in gaining public acceptance for the education of women in roles of service, and in setting the precedent of government funding for the education of women. Although the seminaries were regarded by most as a substitute for higher education for women, it is questionable that the progress women made in gaining access to true institutions of higher education could have been made without the pioneering efforts of the women who made the seminaries educationally respectable.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Patricia Scott, "Schooling Respectable Ladies of Color: Issues in the History of Black Women's Higher Education," Journal of the NAWDC 43 (Winter 1980): 22.

<sup>2</sup>Konek, "Roles Learned by Rote," p. 5.

Before the Civil War, colleges exclusively for women and coeducational institutions began to emerge. Wells College, located in Aurora, New York, was the second college in the country chartered exclusively for the education of women. It provides an example of the nature of education considered at the time of its establishment and the changes in that education as years passed, prompted by both female educators and students. Initial planning for Wells College was provided by two Victorian businessmen, Henry Wells and Edwin Barber Morgan. "Mr. Wells' complex vision of a college was of a 'home' that would combine the private virtues of that institution with the academic standards of the best male colleges."<sup>1</sup>

The curriculum at Wells College initially reflected the intentions of the founders:

During the fledgling years, the original intentions of the founders, providing academic excellence, educating women in the social prescriptions of the nineteenth century, and training women to be wives for college-educated men, remained unchanged. In their joint effort to create a safe educational environment for young women, Henry Wells and E. B. Morgan followed the mold of men who valued women being able to manage useful, purposeful, but constrained lives.<sup>2</sup>

As years passed, however, the curriculum changed. Females gradually became important figures in the governance of the school.

By the late nineteenth century, Wells women no longer perceived of themselves as beings fitted only for moral leadership roles in the home or in the nonpaid benevolent associations designed

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<sup>1</sup>Anne J. Russ, "Divergent Realities: The Wells College Experience, 1876-1905," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, Boston, Massachusetts, April 9, 1980 (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 185 929, 1980), p. 2.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 3.

to bring about the regeneration of a decadent society. Wells women began to enter the new fields of social work, nursing and library science.<sup>1</sup>

Wells College was but one of several colleges available to women during the mid to latter part of the nineteenth century; a number of these colleges gained acceptance as being among the best liberal arts colleges of the day. Through this educational opportunity, women were being exposed to an academic environment unavailable to their mothers and grandmothers. "In a time when women writers and intellectuals were ridiculed and labeled 'blue stockings,' these institutions made scholarship respectable for women, justifying their claim that students need not see womanhood and scholarship as opposites."<sup>2</sup>

In 1837, Oberlin College opened its doors and became the first institution of higher learning in America to admit women and men of all races. "Among the major priorities listed in the first circular issued by the college was 'The elevation of the female character.'"<sup>3</sup> There were only four young women enrolled that first year, and even though the curriculum offering for these women was diluted in comparison with that offered to men, their enrollment was, nevertheless, of major historical importance to the higher education of women. "If one takes a broader historical view, it is possible to look beyond the impact of education on these few women and to see

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid.

<sup>2</sup> Konek, "Roles Learned by Rote," p. 7.

<sup>3</sup> Scott, "Schooling Respectable Ladies of Color," p. 23.

the larger issue--that of the role expectations that were altered by this event."<sup>1</sup>

Subsequent to Oberlin, coeducation emerged as a gradual process, the result of numerous social forces.

Although one source of the occurrence was ideological, the major impetus for women's higher education came in the second half of the nineteenth century, a time of dire economic need for many colleges, caused chiefly by the shrinking enrollments of males. The sag in college enrollments was attributed to the Civil War, to economic depressions, and to dissatisfaction with college curricula.<sup>2</sup>

During and following this period, women began to gain access to higher education with tremendous rapidity. The number of colleges admitting women immediately after the Civil War almost doubled. In 1902, 25 percent of the undergraduates, 26 percent of the graduate students, and 3 percent of the professional students in America were women.<sup>3</sup>

Women had gained some acceptance within higher education, but there remained a conflict between possible career aspirations and the role of women as perceived by society. Many women acquired an education but tended to see college as an end in itself. Konek commented on the fact that the result for many was that they were prepared to become educated wives and mothers.

Yet there were greater gains to be made before the American woman could synthesize her academic and professional roles and her domestic and social roles and experience herself as an autonomous, contributing individual. A few pioneers had been admitted into medicine, the bar, and the ministry; yet there

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<sup>1</sup>Konek, "Roles Learned by Rote," p. 7.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 8.

<sup>3</sup>Edith H. Altbach, Women in America (Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath & Co., 1974), p. 180.

were still graduate and professional schools which barred women from admittance. Women were likely to enter either co-educational or women's institutions of higher learning which imposed limitations upon their learning in subtle and unconscious ways, preparing them to be educated wives and mothers who were not encouraged to think of career options or professional potential.<sup>1</sup>

Despite these difficulties yet to be challenged, the nineteenth century must be recognized as the time when very significant and rapid advancements were witnessed in the education of women. Women in America had and still have a long way to go, but the advancements yet to be seen in the twentieth century could not have occurred without the initial stages taken to help students emerge from the restraints and limitations of the past.

Social and Psychological Factors Perceived to  
Influence Women's Career Aspirations

The woods are lovely, dark and deep,  
But I have promises to keep,  
And miles to go before I sleep,  
And miles to go before I sleep.

Robert Frost  
"Stopping by Woods on  
a Snowy Evening"<sup>2</sup>

Literature on women today abounds with echoes of sex-role images of the past. Although "women now constitute 22 percent of all managers and administrators in the United States,"<sup>3</sup> their potential for success may be dependent on reconciliation of sex-role images

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<sup>1</sup>Konek, "Roles Learned by Rote," p. 9.

<sup>2</sup>Selected Poems of Robert Frost (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1963), p. 140.

<sup>3</sup>Linda Brown, "Women and Business Management," Signs 5 (Winter 1979): 26.

existing from the past and the present role expectation placed upon them as managerial women. For example, in a most extensive experiment involving responses from 1,500 Harvard Business Review subscribers in management positions, Rosen and Judee found that there appears to be a greater concern with organizations for the careers of men than for those of women, and the ability of women to balance work and family demands is viewed with a degree of skepticism.<sup>1</sup> In addition to this skepticism generated by the perceived role of women relative to family responsibilities, women are not perceived as having the "masculine" traits necessary for effective management. Brown wrote,

Certain personal characteristics are identified as necessary for a capable manager; the most commonly mentioned sets of traits are self-confidence and self-esteem, aggressiveness and dominance, emotional control and sound judgement. Women are seen as lacking in these qualities because of differences from men in their training, socialization and "natural" disposition.<sup>2</sup>

The problem areas of family demands and sex-role stereotypes are expanded on in this section. Comments on the benefits of specialized education and training, affirmative-action programs, increased availability of child-care centers, and possible flexibility in work schedules are also commented on.

In a study of variables affecting career progression involving 181 women holding administrative positions in higher education in Minnesota, Mills-Novoa identified two background factors that add

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<sup>1</sup>B. Rosen and T. H. Judee, "Sex Stereotyping in the Executive Suite," Harvard Business Review 5,2 (1974): 45-58.

<sup>2</sup>Brown, "Women and Business Management," p. 283.

significantly to the predictability of administrative status:

(1) educational degree and (2) primary responsibility for household/child-caring duties for those women living with spouses/significant others.<sup>1</sup> Implications for women interested in advancing are that (1) they should pursue the terminal degree for their field and (2) they should try to negotiate household/child-caring responsibilities with their spouse/significant other. In a correlational analysis between administrative status and family variables, Mills-Novoa found an indication that it may not be as important for a woman's career advancement whether she has children at home or even whether she participates in her husband's career as it is that he participates in the household/child-caring responsibilities at home.<sup>2</sup>

In comparing the personality characteristics and background factors of a sample of 300 administrators from education, business, and government, Holtz found "coping with family and career responsibilities to be a significant barrier for women among all three groups."<sup>3</sup>

Hochschild identified the fact that the academic career is founded on assumptions about men (at the present time) rather than women. These assumptions include: the expectation that time out for

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<sup>1</sup>Beverly Ann Mills-Novoa, "A Study of Selected Variables Affecting the Career Progression of Women in Higher Education Administration" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1980).

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Mary Ann Peterson Holtz, "A Comparison of the Personality Characteristics and Background Factors Among Women Administrators in Education, Business and Government" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Minnesota, 1979).



child bearing will not occur; that home situations will be completely supportive of and flexible to job moves, long hours, career socializing, and the like; that career preparation will take place in the shortest amount of time possible; and that child and home care will be handled by someone else in the family (not the employee).<sup>1</sup>

Slay and McDonald reported that women professors

. . . do benefit from their career through personal fulfillment, financial gain, and increased career opportunities, just as their male counterparts. However, women professors indicate more feelings of discrimination and more personal and family conflict than do men.<sup>2</sup>

Etaugh concluded that "one probable deterrent to women's pursuit of professional careers [is] the negative attitudes toward the dual role of the married professional woman held by the professionals."<sup>3</sup> There is evidence, however, that women's perceptions of sex stereotypes held by men were strongly related to women's own role expectations and role behaviors. As Terborg stated,

To the extent that these perceptions place home and family duties primarily in the domain of the "feminine role," then working women may experience pressures from relevant others, and perhaps their own self-concepts, to sacrifice their professional careers for family responsibilities.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Arlie R. Hochschild, "Inside the Clockwork of Male Careers," in Women and the Power to Change, ed. Florence Howe (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1975).

<sup>2</sup>Tana Slay and Ann MacDonald, "Female Professors/Male Professors' Career Development: Attitudes, Benefits, Costs," Psychological Reports 48,1 (1981): 307.

<sup>3</sup>Claire E. Etaugh, "Attitudes of Professionals Toward the Married Professional Woman," Psychological Reports 32 (June 1973): 779.

<sup>4</sup>James R. Terborg, "Women in Management: A Research Review," Journal of Applied Psychology 62 (December 1977): 657.

Broschart hypothesized that family complexity is negatively related to professional achievement and status. She reported on her study, which revealed additional insight into this issue:

This study examines the relationship between family status and the professional status and achievement of a sample of 415 women doctorates. The subjects, selected from Who's Who of American Women, were primarily employed in higher education. It was hypothesized that family complexity is negatively related to professional achievement and status; however, the data suggest that the relationship is a more complex one. Married women and women with children were found in lower-ranking academic positions than single or childless women, but they did not exhibit lower levels of professional productivity or professional recognition. Further analysis suggests that different patterns of labor force participation may account for the observed discrepancies between the professional status and the professional recognition and productivity of married and single women doctorates.<sup>1</sup>

That lack of continuity in employment is a major factor in perpetuating occupational segregation and low earnings of women has already been noted. Aside from the problem of available child care, the "superwoman" role required to combine family and career responsibilities may require more effort than some women are willing to put forth. A report on women in Sweden emphasized that "married women with jobs today have less free time than any other group in society."<sup>2</sup>

In a report to the United Nations in 1968 regarding the equality of men and women in Sweden, financial independence was noted as a necessity, but also of necessity was participation by the fathers

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<sup>1</sup>Kay R. Broschart, "Family Status and Professional Achievement: A Study of Women Doctorates," Journal of Marriage and the Family 40 (February 1978): 71.

<sup>2</sup>Rita Liljestrom, "The Swedish Model," in Sex Roles in a Changing Society, ed. Georgene Seward and Robert C. Williamson (New York: Random House, 1970), p. 201.

in the duties of child care. The Official Report included the following statements:

By the same token, the traditional duty of the man to support his wife must be supplanted by responsibility, shared with her, for the support of the children. This support of the children should also find expression from the man's side, in a greater share in the care and upbringing of children.<sup>1</sup>

The editor of Ms. magazine, Gloria Steinem, recently reported:

If there is any single daily problem that most women share, it is this: coming home from work to another full-time job. This decade may not solve that problem, but it can: (1) Finally do away with the idea that one woman can or should Do It All (giving up this impossible goal will have the healthy impact of turning guilt into anger and action.) (2) See to it that men become self-sufficient. (He who eats can also cook.) (3) Reconcile women to the fact that, if we don't do the housework, it won't be done the way we like it. (And that's okay.)<sup>2</sup>

Increased availability of child care as well as available homemaking services would help remedy, at least in part, the homemaking problems encountered by women. With only 0.8 percent of full-time working women in this country earning \$25,000 and over,<sup>3</sup> the problem of purchasing quality services could be prohibitive to numerous women. Homemaking responsibilities obviously complicate the lives of married and single career women with children; it is a problem area less applicable to the single woman without children. All women, however, seeking nontraditional careers will be likely to face the conflict between the "image" of the career and the "image" of the "feminine" sex-role expectation.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 200.

<sup>2</sup>Steinem, "The Stage Is Set," p. 79.

<sup>3</sup>Kandel, "What Women Earn," p. 10.

Historically, males were the sex identified with leadership. Women were identified as more of a subject sex, having duties relating to providing for child bearing, child rearing, and homemaking chores. As recently as 1973, during hearings to promote the passage of the Women's Educational Equity Act, the fact that women face discriminatory attitudes and stereotypes through their educational experience was addressed:

In the course of the hearings, the Senate and House subcommittees learned that, from birth, women face discriminatory attitudes, stereotypes and assumptions and that these are reinforced in their educational experience. In the schools, textbooks literally illustrate that women just don't count as much as men: studies show that stories, examples, and illustrations choose boys and men as subjects more frequently than girls and women. When females are represented, they are usually drawn as helpless, frightened or stupid people usually doing housework, or watching, or being rescued by males. Equally damaging are the attitudes of teachers and counselors whose different expectations of boys and girls are transmitted to the students who incorporate them into their own self-images. Boys learn to be strong, assertive and competent and girls learn to be weak, passive and dependent. Children also learn that, while boys can grow up to engage in a great variety of interesting occupations, girls will grow up only to be housewives and mothers. One thing they seldom learn is that 40% of women over 16 are in the work force and that more than 90% of women work outside the home at some time in their lives.<sup>1</sup>

In a recent article titled "Silent Sexism," Schmidt reported on a project recently concluded by the staff of the Project on the Status and Education of Women at the Association of American Colleges in Washington, D.C. "The report's conclusion--that different faculty behavior toward male and female students is one of the major reasons

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<sup>1</sup>Annette Ten Elshof, "The Women's Educational Equity Act," in Design for Equity: Women and Leadership in Higher Education, ed. Carol Konek and others. Wichita, Kansas: Wichita State University, 1980 (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 200 124, 1980).

for women's lower self-confidence and career ambitions is an idea whose time has come."<sup>1</sup> In the report was included a situation in which a coed wanting to pursue a Ph.D. was told that a pretty girl would certainly get married. She was advised to stop with an M.A.

Schmidt also reported on the importance of the role of the advisor in graduate school:

The professional success of a graduate student depends largely on the strength of the apprentice/mentor relationship she has with her adviser. It's even more crucial that faculty be demanding and have high expectations of the women they advise because female graduate students are less confident about their preparation for and ability to do graduate work--even when they're as academically qualified as men.<sup>2</sup>

Children's books reflect a social reality, but they also help to conserve this reality. Collegiate experiences such as those described by Schmidt, recently published in Working Woman, October 1982, can perpetuate reality. Although much progress has been made, it is not surprising that the attitudes toward female sex-role stereotypes still exist in the labor force in terms of women's role.

Traditionally, women have been reluctant to prepare for business careers. . . . Since the dominant managerial model is male, women who accept the stereotypic feminine role are less inclined to acquire the training or job behaviors associated with managers because such characteristics are inconsistent with their self-image. This situation becomes self-reinforcing by keeping women out of role-model positions which could encourage more women to aspire to managerial careers.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Peggy Schmidt, "Sexist Schooling," Working Woman (October 1982): 102.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Brown, "Women and Business Management," p. 270.

In the summary of his research review on women in management, Terborg reported:

Based on aggregate data, women describe themselves and are described by men as having self-concepts that are not suitable for management. Also, women who do choose nontraditional careers fail to receive support for their choice or are actually discouraged from pursuing their choice by members of the family and by vocational counselors. It is not known, however, whether those women who choose nontraditional careers have different self-concepts from women who choose traditional careers because no research on career choice has been reported. It does appear that women who pursue nontraditional careers reject sex role stereotypes and that, once in those positions, they have needs, motives, and values that are similar to men who also are in those positions. Whether this similarity is the result of self-selection, experience, or both is not known given available research.<sup>1</sup>

In fact, there are women who are rejecting sex-role stereotypes. In a recent study by Foster and Kolinko, individual difference variables of female MBA students were measured toward the end of their academic careers:

Data from these subjects as well as from male MBAs and from male and female MA candidates in elementary education were ordered in a 2 x 2 female/male, traditional role/nontraditional role matrix of analysis (N=151). Female MBA candidates were found to differ significantly from the other subjects on several dimensions. Female managers-to-be saw themselves as more self-assured, more creative, and higher in initiative than did the others. There was no evidence of fear of identity or of sex role inappropriateness, which had been suggested in earlier literature dealing with women entering nontraditional careers.<sup>2</sup>

Lester and Chu developed a questionnaire that included items from the Bem Sex Role Inventory, the Work and Family Orientation Questionnaire, the Texas Social Behavior Inventory, and the Attitudes

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<sup>1</sup>Terborg, "Women in Management," p. 658.

<sup>2</sup>Lawrence Foster and Tom Kolinko, "Choosing to Be a Managerial Woman: An Examination of Individual Variables and Career Choice," Sex Roles 5,5 (1979): 627.

Towards Women Scale. The questionnaire was administered to males and females holding higher education administrative positions. For comparison purposes, the same instrument was administered to public-school teachers and administrators and college undergraduate students.

Among the male sample, the only significant differences found between students, teachers and [higher education] administrators was on the social desirability scale, which showed that administrators scored higher than teachers. On the contrary, among the female sample many significant differences were found. Female [higher education] administrators had higher masculinity, social desirability, self-esteem, mastery, and work scores than female students and teachers.<sup>1</sup>

Lester and Chu reported that the results of their study supported the hypothesis that women in higher education administration are not necessarily less feminine than other women but have incorporated additional masculine traits such as assertiveness, ambition, and self-reliance.

The concept of androgyny was also addressed by Lester and Chu. Androgyny calls for the integration of masculine and feminine traits in the same person. "An androgynous person is one who can be both assertive and sensitive, agentic and communal, instrumental and expressive, and is flexible in exhibiting the situationally appropriate behavior."<sup>2</sup> To succeed in their nontraditional roles, women have had to adopt many masculine-oriented behaviors. "Men, on the other hand, tend not to be incorporating feminine traits into their personalities."<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Patricia Lester and Lily Chu, "Women Administrators: Feminine, Masculine or Androgynous?" (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 181 107, 1979), p. 7.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 9.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 11.

The need for power and achievement has been a topic of numerous writings in regard to women. In a study of achievement and aspiration among male and female academic-career aspirants, Fox and Faver reported:

- (1) Women's achievement-aspiration conversion is different from, but not necessarily lower than, men's. Rather, the strength and direction of the relationship vary with aspiration type (traditional versus alternative) and, to some extent, with specific types of academic achievement (e.g., paper publication and GPA).
- (2) The mediators of the achievement-aspiration relationship also vary by sex and aspiration type. Notably, women's aspirations for traditional career rewards are largely a function of their perceptions of the structural availability of job opportunity.<sup>1</sup>

Winter, interviewed on the subject of power for Working Woman magazine, reported:

The first thing we found is that women are as interested in power as men. The myth is that women are not interested in power, that power is in the male sphere. People who believe that often have a fear of powerful women. A woman who shows any power is threatening and frightening, like Joan of Arc, and has to be put to death; or like the goddess Kali in India, who is also the goddess of pestilence. There is a real contradiction--women aren't supposed to be interested in power, yet people's imaginations are full of powerful, female demon figures.<sup>2</sup>

According to Winter, there actually is a lot of overlap in the actions displayed by power-motivated men and power-motivated women. They both tend to be officers in volunteer organizations and are attracted to prestigious positions in which they can have a direct effect on other people--such as law, medicine, executives in business,

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<sup>1</sup>Mary F. Fox and Catherine A. Faver, "Achievement and Aspiration: Patterns Among Male and Female Academic-Career Aspirants," Sociology of Work and Occupations 8,4 (1981): 439.

<sup>2</sup>Aida K. Press, "Do Women Handle Power Differently Than Men? An Interview With David G. Winter," Working Woman 5 (April 1980): 44.



psychology, and teaching. Winter, the author of The Power Motive, questioned the myth that women have to be jocks to learn to rise to power. "Recent research on other topics suggests that women develop the desire to lead not through sports, as men do, but through science and holding of office in extracurricular organizations."<sup>1</sup>

Horner talked about power being the capacity to influence. Part of power at the top level is being able to see the big picture.<sup>2</sup> In speaking of women and power, Horner suggested,

The other big problem, as I said earlier, is people's perception of your power and reaction when you exercise it, particularly if you are young and a woman. . . . One of the things that frequently happens when sex-role or age-role expectations or boundaries are broken is that, after you have won your point, you have to be gracious enough to allow the relationship to be re-established in other ways. It may mean allowing somebody to hold the door for you or to pick up the tab for lunch. To move onto the next step it's important to let people regain their sense of self-esteem.<sup>3</sup>

In the available writings there certainly was evidence of women who reject the "feminine" sex-role stereotype; there was also evidence that man's perception of women in a managerial role is changing. In late May 1982, Business Week magazine commissioned Louis Harris and Associates to conduct a public-opinion survey, focusing on the executive's view of women in management. "The poll reflects the views of more than 600 high officials from the 1,200 largest U.S.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 46.

<sup>2</sup>Julie Englund and Carol Sienkiewicz, "Learning to Lead Beyond Fear of Success: An Interview With Matina Horner," Working Woman 5 (April 1980): 47.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 48.

companies included in Business Week's Corporate Scorecard."<sup>1</sup> The report of conclusions strongly stated the changing viewpoint. "By enormous margins, top executives affirm that despite a decade of doubts that women could perform well as managers, they have, in fact, succeeded."<sup>2</sup> Table 2-6 reflects the conclusion that women are perceived to be positively affecting organizations. The table also conveys the message, however, that both men and women are far from total acceptance of women as supervisors. Harris did caution that responses could be biased because (1) executives questioned were so high on the corporate ladder that competition from executive women did not threaten them, and (2) overwhelmingly positive answers were elicited when questions probed official corporate policy on hiring women executives. Harris also believed answers to questions about practices that reflect operational realities revealed a far deeper split. He noted that "the division is really between hiring and promoting." The article further described the situation today:

When executives were asked to agree or disagree with the statement that "it has been harder to promote women to high-level positions than we thought it would be," a substantial minority --40%--agreed. A bare majority--52%--disagreed. . . . [However], despite the qualifications and cautions, the main thrust of the survey's findings is far different from what might have been expected a decade ago--or even five years ago. At the level of the largest U.S. companies, at least, top executives are making a determined effort to focus on performance rather than on perceived differences between men and women executives.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>"How Executives See Women in Management," Business Week, June 28, 1982, p. 10.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Table 2-6.--How executives see women in management.

	Percent	
	Agree	Disagree
Q. Here are a series of statements about women in the workplace. Do you agree or disagree?		
A. Contributions of women executives in the company are more positive than negative.	94%	2%
Women executives are performing on the job as well as or better than expected.	86	5
Quite a number of women use sex and guile to get ahead.	7	87
Some men now can't get ahead in certain jobs because they are being saved for women.	8	89
Q. Do you agree or disagree with these statements?		
A. It has been harder to promote women to high-level positions than we thought it would be.	41	52
Men don't like to take orders from women.	41	49
Women don't like to take orders from other women.	39	45

Source: "How Executives See Women in Management," Business Week, June 28, 1982, p. 10.

The changing attitudes of male executives may be timely. Although the numbers of women among executives today is miniscule, there are indicators that younger women have intentions of greatly increasing their numbers among managerial and executive ranks. "A recent Fortune survey of the 1,300 largest companies in America found only ten women among the 6,400 corporate officers and directors."<sup>1</sup>

In considering historical perspectives on female role expectations, the relatively few number of women among executives is quite understandable.

Executive recruiters estimate that a manager requires fifteen to twenty-five years to become a top executive. The presence, however small, of women in the chief executive suite today is actually surprising since these women would have had to achieve much of their progress up the ranks during the 1950's, a period of extreme emphasis on women's domestic functions.<sup>2</sup>

In the 1970s, data indicated major changes in women's career-oriented behavior. Harvard's two-year graduate school business program was not open to women until 1963. "Women now constitute nearly 25 percent of the total enrollment of collegiate schools of business as compared to 13 percent in 1972."<sup>3</sup> There are researchers who feel this increase will not be enough to meet the demands for managers yet to come. "The U.S. Department of Labor predicts that the number of managerial and administrative jobs will increase more rapidly in the next few years than in the past decade of the 1960's."<sup>4</sup> Schneider

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<sup>1</sup>Brown, "Women and Business Management," p. 268.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 269.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 271.

<sup>4</sup>S. A. Schneider, The Availability of Minorities and Women for Professional Managerial Positions, 1970-1985 (Philadelphia: University of Pennsylvania, 1977), p. 98.

further believed that the relative number of women and men in the initial labor force and high departure rates as a consequence of family commitments will mean only a minimal increase in the proportion of women in business.

"The high departure rates for women must be reduced if business is serious about developing women managers," according to Brown.<sup>1</sup> Fogarty, Rapaport, and Rapaport suggested adaption of employment practices.<sup>2</sup> Suggested adaptations included flexible hours, maternity leave, part-time work, relaunching, and accelerating back to the top. The intention would be to enable women to combine having children with a chance of promotion to senior posts.

First there are nine months before the baby is born. Then the baby is born. Then there are three or four months spent in feeding the baby. After the baby is fed there are certainly five years spent in playing with the baby. You cannot, it seems, let children run about the streets. People who have seen them running wild in Russia say the sight is not a pleasant one.<sup>3</sup>

Children need proper and adequate care. "The important point is that in too many cases a mother is forced to stop working because child-care arrangements have broken down."<sup>4</sup> Sherman stated,

It is surprising that predominantly female unions and organizations devoted to the advancement and welfare of the female sex have not moved more effectively in the development of

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<sup>1</sup>Brown, "Women and Business Management," p. 273.

<sup>2</sup>M. P. Fogarty, R. Rapaport, and R. N. Rapaport, Women in Top Jobs: Four Studies in Achievement (London: George Allen & Unwin, 1971), p. 25.

<sup>3</sup>Virginia Woolf, quoted in Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" p. 24.

<sup>4</sup>Gordon, "Women and Work," p. 131.

child care facilities, emergency homemaker care, and home-maintenance services.<sup>1</sup>

Sweden took up the quality banner earlier and has carried it further than has the United States:

High-quality, government-subsidized, full-time day-care centers, plus municipally licensed family day-care, now accommodate nearly 40 percent of all preschool children, or about two-thirds of those whose mothers work. (Even when private facilities are included, only 5 percent of American children under age 6 have access to full-time licensed day care.)<sup>2</sup>

However, progress has been made in the United States. Steinem described changes in the last two years:

Now, 359 top national companies offer maternity leave. Ten years ago, the first was a privilege--and the second wasn't even a term. . . . Now, kids are beginning to have two parents--and other adult friends. Ten years ago, Dr. Spock and psychiatry were still insisting Only Mothers Mattered.<sup>3</sup>

Again, although we've progressed in this area, Sweden might offer an example of further progress yet possible:

The most important innovation--because it officially smashed the myth that women were the only "natural" caretakers of babies --was "parental leave." Introduced in 1974 to replace maternity leave, it now provides either parent with six months of leave after the birth of the baby at 90 percent of pay.<sup>4</sup>

Although, as a country, we have permitted and fostered the increasingly larger numbers of married women in the labor force,

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<sup>1</sup>Julia A. Sherman, On the Psychology of Women: A Survey of Empirical Studies (Springfield, Ill.: Charles C. Thomas, 1971), p. 243.

<sup>2</sup>Hilda Scott, "World Equality Swedish Style," Working Woman 7 (June 1982): 21.

<sup>3</sup>Steinem, "The Stage Is Set," p. 78.

<sup>4</sup>Gordon, "Women and Work," p. 131.

we have not had the same concern for the necessary changes in social policies.

It is true that antidiscrimination and affirmative-action policies have been stressed at both the federal and state levels, though generally without adequate or carefully integrated policies of enforcement, but in many other respects we have failed to develop social policies that accommodate and encourage careers for women while at the same time protecting the welfare of the family.<sup>1</sup>

Gordon pointed out that, in the long run, the social provision for child care may become less urgent than it is today. She stated that small-scale changes are already occurring along the lines that imaginative writers of future social changes have predicted:

In this world of the future, child rearing will become a joint responsibility, shared equally, by both parents. This will probably be most feasible if both parents work on a part-time basis, alternating responsibilities for child care, but other arrangements, such as alternating periods of full-time work, are conceivable. There is growing interest in "flexible hours" or "flex-time," in which employees have considerable voice in selecting their working hours. The idea was first promoted by a German economist and management consultant, Christel Kaemmerev, in 1956. Flexible hours are now used by 6,000 European companies and have been adopted by several hundred larger American concerns.<sup>2</sup>

In addition to being able to manage homemaking and child care to assure adequate time and energy for career responsibilities, the woman must prepare for and take advantage of educational opportunities to assure competence in the chosen area. The topic of necessary preparation programs for women seeking and holding administrative and managerial positions has been addressed by numerous writers. The

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 129.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 132.

literature covers such areas as the nature of degree preparation, special training programs for women, and the value of internships.

Nannerl Overhauser Keohane, Wellesley's new college president, recently stated her ideas on the type of education necessary for women now and in the future:

First, we must ensure that our students have grasped the rudiments of several essential technological skills, such as computing, . . . in this way, we make it more likely that educated persons in the future will be informed users of the powerful tools at their disposal, capable of appreciating and taking advantage of their powers. . . .

In the second place, we must ensure that all students are familiar with the lineaments of the mature humanism developed in many ancient cultures, including--but not limited to--the Hebraic and Hellenic, and brought forward through modern literature and art into the present day. . . .

Finally, we must ensure that students are trained to understand the complexities of human social life, and to respect the dignity of each individual person.<sup>1</sup>

As an aside and to note a point of interest, a recent UPI article related to the need for technological literacy being proposed by Keohane. The article, entitled "Girls Shy Away from Computers," pointed to the fact that we are entering the information age, and those who have the ability to access computer information will have the power.<sup>2</sup> It is primarily today's adolescent boys who are frequenting video arcades and tinkering with computer programs at summer camp. A number of educators have said that "job gains made by mothers

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<sup>1</sup>Nannerl Overhauser Keohane, quoted by Judy Foreman, "Wellesley's New President: The Right Woman for the Right Job," Change 14 (April 1982): 43.

<sup>2</sup>Janet S. Rae, "Girls Shy Away From Computers," Detroit Free Press, September 28, 1982, p. 2-C.



and grandmothers may be lost by daughters because they are not keeping up with the boys."<sup>1</sup>

Keohane was not only concerned about degree preparation of undergraduates but also intended to provide for the needs of those seeking better qualification and preparation for the world of work. She said,

A month-long intercession course is being initiated: "Wellesley and the World of Work," an intensive program open to those affiliated with the college, and eventually to those in the community at large. It will focus on accounting, management analysis, career advice, and general business know-how.<sup>2</sup>

With knowledgeable and insightful educational leaders such as Keohane, the educational training for professional women of tomorrow should prepare them better for the world of work. But what about the women in the work force today? "Although more young women each year are choosing college majors leading toward managerial careers, a gap appears in management education for women already in the work force."<sup>3</sup>

The continual need for women-only management training is being questioned, but it is still very much in vogue. Many of the programs would provide valuable training for either gender, but sessions also help female managers deal with problems unique to them.

Topping the list is the fact that women are still trying to catch up on needed skills, says Camilla Colantonio, director of the Continuing Education for Women Program at the University of Minnesota (Minneapolis), who adds that the female MBA

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Quoted in Foreman, "Wellesley's New President," p. 45.

<sup>3</sup>Guvenc G. Alpander and Jean E. Gutmann, "Contents and Techniques of Management Development Programs for Women," Personnel Journal 55,2 (1976): 76.

is a relatively new phenomenon. While many of their male colleagues have past work experience in management, many women are trying to move up from positions such as administrative assistant, and therefore lack formal training. These women find seminars that cater to women very helpful.<sup>1</sup>

Commenting on training for women entering academic administration, Andre and Edwards advised that training programs "do not substitute for academic credentials," but are most useful to women already "in place" in academic institutions.<sup>2</sup> Further, they described training programs as being basically of two kinds: short-term summer institutes and longer internship programs. They stated, "Our data show that programs which included internships had considerably higher percentages of people who reported a positive impact on their careers."<sup>3</sup>

Kanter and Wheatly, in studying the benefits of training programs for women in higher education administration, arrived at the conclusion that the value of training programs varies according to the target populations who attend.

The most effective programs in terms of providing the largest number of benefits and the biggest boost to careers seem to be those that are aimed at two very different populations: (1) senior women, carefully selected, benefit from an extra amount of prestige and connection with prestigious individuals, along with management training suitable for top officials; and (2) entering women benefit from internships as a way to gain job experience.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Pam White, "Do Women Managers Still Need Special Training?" Training/HRD (September 1981): 102.

<sup>2</sup>Rae Andre and Mary I. Edwards, "Training Women in Administration," Journal of the NAWDC 42 (Fall 1978): 16.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 18.

<sup>4</sup>Rosabeth Kanter and Margaret Wheatley, "Career Development--Women in Academic Administration: The Role of Training," in Women in Higher Education Administration. Washington, D.C.: Association of American Colleges, Project on the Status of Women (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 162 572, 1978), p. 1.

Brown felt that "the development of women managers is an area where opinions are plentiful, but research is not."<sup>1</sup> She stated that there is a serious need for research to examine the long-range impact of training and to compare the benefits of training for women with that directed toward their male colleagues and superiors. "Admittedly, such research is difficult, but it is crucial to this field because, without research substantiation, special training for women appears often to fulfill the practical needs of others and not those of aspiring female executives."<sup>2</sup>

White reported on the results of a survey of 40 organizations that indicated that career-development programs for women only are tapering off:

One reason for this is the growing number of women who have MBAs. . . . With the benefits of a good, thorough education and the lessons of the women's movement behind these new graduates, career development specialists see a dramatically decreasing need for women-only seminars over the next decade.<sup>3</sup>

As women-only seminars become less numerous, alternatives are appearing. White reported on men-only training, which includes consciousness-raising pertaining to attitudes and stereotypes regarding women managers; and courses that address gender-related issues in socially mixed groups.<sup>4</sup> In addition, some corporations have initiated special supportive programs for women. Honeywell Corporation has

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<sup>1</sup>Brown, "Women and Business Management," p. 282.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>White, "Do Women Managers Still Need Special Training?" p. 103.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 108.

established a Women's Task Force and Women's Network. David Dotlitch, Honeywell's corporate manager of human resources development, commented:

Until there are further changes in the culture, women will continue to need specific programs such as these. . . . Though women are entering the work force better prepared than ever before, the image of leadership continues to be masculine. The training need for today is to help the rest of the organization understand that the model of successful management will be a participative, andogynous model. That's the kind of manager we're going to need in the 1980's.<sup>1</sup>

Finally, in the development of competency, women need to have a chance to acquire a position and develop skills within it. Kanter and Wheatley, in reporting to the Carnegie Commission, commented:

Competence, of course, also is critical. But for most of the administrators to whom we spoke, formal education or training merely gives people access to the positions which allow them to develop competence. Specialized technical skills can be quickly learned outside the institution. It is inside the institution itself, and inside the job, that most administrators learn what they actually need to do the job. At best, training programs provide a spurt of energy, a booster rocket propelling one to a new position. But the long-term effects on careers and the factors that determine career success come not from training but from the jobs people hold.<sup>2</sup>

The women's movement and resulting affirmative-action programs may ensure some women the jobs they need to gain competence. Donna Shalala, president of New York City's Hunter College, is one woman who gives credit to the women's movement for her career success. She stated, "Most of the critical breaks in my career would not have happened if it wasn't for the women's movement."<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup> Ibid.

<sup>2</sup> Kanter and Wheatley, "Career Development," p. 4.

<sup>3</sup> Cochs, "How Long Till Equality?" p. 21.

The comments in this section resulted from sources related primarily to higher education administration and business management. The leadership skills needed and the barriers to the exercise of effective leadership seem to be essentially the same for both groups. As demonstrated in the following section, the successful leaders in both areas share some common traits.

Some Characteristics of Successful Women  
in Leadership Positions

To be what we are, and to become what we are capable  
of becoming, is the only end of life.

Robert Louis Stevenson  
Familiar Studies of Men  
and Books (1882)

Nannerl Overhauser Keohane, Wellesley's new president, was described in a recent article in Change magazine as being "the right woman for the right job."<sup>1</sup> She is one of a new class of leaders: "feminist presidents of some of the most prestigious colleges in the country--if not, their most fitting symbol."<sup>2</sup> She is an outstanding match for the college she leads, for others like it, and for the betterment of higher education in general. Change described her:

The image is right: She jogs, she swims, she's young. . . .  
The brainpower is right: She's Phi Beta Kappa (Wellesley, '61).  
Sterling Fellowship to Yale for a Ph.D. in political science in  
1967; Gores Award for Excellence in Teaching in 1976 at Stanford;  
Honorary Woodrow Wilson Fellowship; and the list goes on. . . .  
The family solidarity is right: Her father gave the invocation  
at her inauguration in September. Her husband, Robert O. Keohane,  
gave up his post at Stanford to follow her east and become pro-  
fessor of political science at Brandeis University and a fellow

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<sup>1</sup>Foreman, "Wellesley's New President," p. 42.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

at Harvard University Center for International Affairs. And their collective four children--his, hers, and theirs form the human core of her life. . . . Perhaps most important, the politics are right: Keohane is a strong feminist who is not afraid to say so.<sup>1</sup>

In another arena, Maccoby described Elsa Porter, U.S. Assistant Secretary of Commerce for Administration, as an example of a new style of leadership. She is a person developing the new functions of leadership.

Bureaucratic systems in business and government that are built on assumptions of control and competition are inadequate to the requirements of our time. To change them we need new kinds of leaders who can involve employees in the study and transformation of work according to the emerging ideals of our society. Although this requires technical understanding, the task is not merely technical but, in the fullest sense of the term, political.<sup>2</sup>

Maccoby described Porter as being a person who cares about people and resents the wastage of human life in work that mechanizes people. She is able to assert authority strongly on issues of principle, but she is also willing to stand back and let others take control. She is a student of the organization she leads, being able to evaluate both its mission and the way performance is controlled and measured.

In addition to individual profiles of successful leaders, research has given collective profiles. In a study of selected women executives in business, government, and education, Hughes reported that respondents indicated their success as a manager was attributable to five factors: (1) knowledge of the job, (2) motivation to manage,

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Michael Maccoby, "The Leadership Crisis: New Room at the Top for Women," Working Woman 5 (April 1980): 43.

(3) communicative skills--verbal and written, (4) intelligence, and (5) knowledge and understanding of people. Respondents indicated that the personal characteristics requisite to success were a strong motivation to manage and sensitivity and/or concern for people.<sup>1</sup>

McGee reported on a profile of the female college president in 1978 determined by considering majority responses from 35 women: 15 heading two-year institutions and 20 heading four-year institutions.<sup>2</sup> In 1978, the women college presidents tended to have (1) spent her entire career in education; (2) received a doctorate; (3) had a mother who was at least a high school graduate not working outside the home, and a father who had attended college and worked in a professional, technical, or managerial field; (4) had not initiated her own application but was approached by a search committee; (5) was formerly or currently married; (6) expressed great satisfaction with her position; and (7) considered her sex a distinct asset.

In an article appearing in the Wall Street Journal, Hull reported the findings of a study of characteristics of executive women. The study reported involved senior executives at large U.S. companies with salaries of about \$92,000. Hull wrote,

They attribute their success to ambition, drive and a willingness to take risks, and they blame their failures on a male world and their lack of confidence in it. They were

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<sup>1</sup>Martha A. Hughes, "An Investigation of the Aspirations, Attitudes, Apprehensions and Strategies for Success of Selected Women Executives in Business, Government and Education: A Case Study" (Ph.D. dissertation, Kansas State University, 1981).

<sup>2</sup>Martha McGee, "The Woman College President in 1978" (paper presented at the Annual Convention of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, Washington, D.C., April 4-7, 1979).

more often first-born or only child in their families and favored their father.<sup>1</sup>

Most of the respondents were vice-presidents, with an average age of 46. Comparison showed the biggest difference between executive men and executive women to be marital and family status. "Fifty-two percent of the women surveyed are single, compared with only 4% of the men. In addition, 61% of the women are childless, while 97% of the men were parents."<sup>2</sup>

Hull pointed out differences between younger and older female executives:

Nearly half of the women over 52 years of age started in clerical positions, compared with only 23% of the younger female executives, who were more often started in management. The younger women also have more earning power than their elders. Some 60% of the women earning more than \$106,000 are between 38 and 52, compared with only 20% of those over 52. . . . Although executive women have more limited educational backgrounds than their male counterparts, more than in the past are graduating from college. Some 20% of the respondent's don't have a college degree, compared with 8% of the men surveyed. But 34% of the younger women surveyed have advanced degrees, compared with only 14% of the older women.<sup>3</sup>

There are numerous writings available depicting characteristics of successful women. Brown cautioned that present profiles should be reviewed in proper perspective.<sup>4</sup> Are factors reported unique only to executives? Morrison and Sebald reported on a study that involved matched pairs of executive and nonexecutive women. There were no

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<sup>1</sup>Jennifer B. Hull, "Female Bosses Say Biggest Barriers Are Insecurity and 'Being a Woman,'" The Wall Street Journal, November 2, 1982, p. 36.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 29.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Brown, "Women and Business Management," p. 287.



significant differences between the women in their current marital environment or in their early socialization process (e.g., father's occupation). The study did find that the executive group was significantly higher in mental ability, the need for power, and the need for achievement.<sup>1</sup>

Brown also indicated that aspects of the profile can be affected by the age of the subjects.

Researchers must give greater consideration to delineating generational differences since there are actually three age groups of female managers working today: senior executives, middle managers (about thirty-five to forty-five years of age), and managers under thirty-five. . . . If this generation of women survives the deteriorating economic conditions, the profiles of their careers twenty years from now should be quite different from those of their few female predecessors.<sup>2</sup>

#### A Similar Study

Burleigh-Savage conducted a study in which she examined the influence of female career aspiration for administrative positions in higher education.<sup>3</sup> The population used in the study comprised men and women professors taken from four of Michigan's public four-year universities: (1) Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan; (2) University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan; (3) University of Michigan, Dearborn, Michigan; and (4) University of Michigan, Flint,

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<sup>1</sup>R. F. Morrison and M. L. Sebald, "Personal Characteristics Differentiating Female Executive From Female Nonexecutive Personnel," Journal of Applied Psychology 59,5 (1974): 656-59.

<sup>2</sup>Brown, "Women and Business Management," p. 288.

<sup>3</sup>Charlene Burleigh-Savage, "A Study of the Relationship Between the Scarcity of Women in Higher Educational Administrative Positions and the Multiple Factors Which Influence the Career Aspirations of Women Professors" (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1979).

Michigan. Questionnaires were mailed to 600 professors selected from this population. There were significant differences between men and women respondents and their aspirations toward levels of administration in higher education. The positions of chief academic officer, dean of a major college, and administrative vice-president were three positions in which differences in aspiration levels of men and women were indicated. There were no significant differences in the aspirations of men and women for the position of university/college president. Also, there were significant differences between men's and women's age level, teaching rank, and number of years in teaching. Differences were recorded between male and female responses regarding the following: (1) women's dependability, (2) administrative ability, (3) men's professional advancement and know-how in seeking administrative jobs, and (4) institutional encouragement for positions in administration.

Specific conclusions were as follows:

1. A small percentage of men and women professors compete for administrative jobs.
2. Women's aspiration levels are slightly higher than men's.
3. Women are not as confident about their administrative ability as men.
4. Not only women's, but also men's aspirations decrease as the responsibilities of the administrative job increase.
5. Large majorities of professors, male or female, do not aspire to be administrators in our institutions of higher learning.

6. Women seem to be rejecting the sex-stereotyping views of men being superior in leadership roles.

7. Although some male bias against women seems to be perceived, it is probably decreasing, and men's acceptance of women in administrative ranks seems to be increasing.

8. Women's perception that there are unfair odds against them discourages them from seeking administrative positions.

9. Men today seem to be more aware that family responsibilities are not incompatible with women's careers in higher educational administration.

It is the intent of this researcher to replicate the procedures of the Burleigh-Savage study and to expand it to include not only the two Big Ten institutions in Michigan but also the remaining eight.

### Summary

The literature review described the status of women in the contemporary work force and served as a reminder of the historical antecedents of the sex-role stereotypes that still exist and that often act as barriers to the advancement of today's professional woman.

The first section, "The Status of Women in the Contemporary Work Force," addressed the fact that increasingly large numbers of women are now entering the work force. The trend toward increasing numbers is expected to continue through 1990. More women are not only working, but a considerable number are entering nontraditional occupations, previously considered to be the nearly exclusive domain

of men. In comparison with male salaries, women's pay is less. Two factors were cited as contributing to the lower salary levels of women: (1) Women tend to leave the work force for extended periods of time for purposes of child bearing and child rearing. This pattern gives them less seniority and perhaps less sophistication in skill levels. (2) Large numbers of women enter fields dominated by women, which tend to have less status and lower pay. Women need work for the same reasons as men: economic needs, as well as the opportunity to meet needs of affiliation, esteem, and self-actualization.

"The Status of Female Professionals in Higher Education" gave a comparison of women and men professors and administrators in regard to numbers in the profession, comparative numbers within various ranges, and comparative salary figures. There are fewer women among full professors, and in all ranks women earn less. In the administrative ranks, women are almost nonexistent at the top and tend to be clustered in the middle levels of administration. Women tend to earn less than men in comparable administrative positions.

Comments on the history of women were included as reminders of the historical antecedents of the sex-role stereotypes that still influence the contemporary woman. Historically, men were the leaders of society, the work place, and the family. Men needed to be educated for their role in life. Women were more of a subject sex, with responsibilities of child bearing, child rearing, and homemaking. Women met achievement needs through their husbands and sons. Women were not expected to be educated nor independent.

The historical role of women and the resulting expectations and perceptions of women's role have been perceived to provide barriers to the now-aspiring professional woman. The role of women in regard to child-care and homemaking responsibilities was noted as a demand often in conflict with career aspirations. A second major barrier discussed was the concept of the "feminine" sex-role stereotype, which is perceived to be incongruous with the "masculine" traits perceived to be necessary for leadership. Increased access to quality child care, shared homemaking responsibilities, and flexible work hours were discussed as possible solutions to the demands of working women. Various preparation programs and training programs were discussed as a means to assure greater competence in the chosen career area.

A profile of the successful woman in leadership positions was included as a point of interest. However, caution was advised in interpreting the numerous profiles found in the literature of today.

Finally, a brief summary was presented of a study of the aspirations of female professors for positions in higher education administration, conducted by Burleigh-Savage in 1979. The study included four universities in Michigan, including two of the Big Ten, whereas the present study includes all Big Ten universities.

## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN OF THE STUDY

#### Introduction

It should be recalled that the major purpose of this study is to investigate the disparity between women in higher education administration and the career aspirations of women professors. Further investigation focuses on whether factors such as culture, educational climate, personal perspectives, psychological aspects, and the world of work may have an influence on women professors in their aspirations for a position in administration.

Chapters I and II served to introduce the problem under investigation and to review the literature pertinent to the primary concerns of the study. The purpose of Chapter III is to explain the investigator's methods and procedures for collecting and analyzing the data derived from the instrument administration.

#### Type of Study

The descriptive method of research was used in this study.

Sax described the goal of this particular type of study:

The purpose of descriptive research is to show conditions as they exist without being influenced by the investigator. Descriptive research encompasses a number of different techniques, including correlational analyses, case studies, surveys, and interviews as well as direct observation.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Gilbert Sax, Empirical Foundations of Educational Research (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1968), p. 36.

Both male and female professors in the Big Ten institutions were given the identical questionnaire for the purpose of determining the levels of administrative aspiration as well as degree and intensity of aspiration. The use of the descriptive study enables the researcher to obtain the necessary data for analysis and to determine "the extent of the problem and indicate how serious and widespread it is."<sup>1</sup>

#### Population and Sampling Methods

A random sample of professors from the ranks of assistant, associate, and full were chosen from the main campuses of the Big Ten Conference institutions. Boocock stated that

The random sample, in which every case in a population has an equal likelihood of being included in the final sample, is the only kind that allows the researcher to make estimates about the total population and to compute the degree of confidence to be placed in his or her estimates.<sup>2</sup>

In other words, if one is to use sampling, as this study did at the higher education level, then random selection should be used.

The population used in the study comprised men and women from the ranks of assistant professor, associate professor, and full professor from the institutions of higher education in the Big Ten Conference. They include Michigan State University, University of Michigan, University of Minnesota, Purdue University, University of Illinois, University of Iowa, Northwestern University, Ohio State

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Sarah Spence Boocock, Sociology of Education (Boston: Houghton-Mifflin Co., 1980), p. 24.

University, University of Wisconsin-Madison, and Indiana University.

Descriptions of these universities are as follows:

### I. Institution Identification<sup>1</sup>

1. School Name: Michigan State University
2. Address: East Lansing, Michigan Zip Code 48824
3. Established: 1855
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 47,316
5. Control: State
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees (In-State): \$1,502 Quarter
7. Highest Offering: Doctorate
8. Program: Terminal Occupational Below Bachelor's; Liberal Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory; Professional

### II. Institution Identification<sup>2</sup>

1. School Name: University of Michigan-Ann Arbor
2. Address: Ann Arbor, Michigan Zip Code 48109
3. Established: 1817
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 36,211
5. Control: State
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees (In-State): \$1,738 Trimester
7. Highest Offering: Doctorate
8. Program: Liberal Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory; Professional

### III. Institution Identification<sup>3</sup>

1. School Name: University of Minnesota of Minneapolis, St. Paul
2. Address: Minneapolis, Minnesota Zip Code 55455
3. Established: 1851
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 65,293
5. Control: State
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees (In-State): \$1,264 Quarter
7. Highest Offering: Doctorate
8. Program: Terminal Occupational Below Bachelor's; Liberal Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory; Professional

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<sup>1</sup>Educational Directory of Colleges and Universities 1981-82, by Susan Broyles and Geneva C. Davis (Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, 1982), p. 107.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 110.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 115.



#### IV. Institution Identification<sup>1</sup>

1. School Name: Purdue University
2. Address: West Lafayette, Indiana                      Zip Code 47907
3. Established: 1869
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 32,978
5. Control: State
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees (In-State): \$1,158 Semester
7. Highest Offering: Doctorate
8. Program: Terminal Occupational Below Bachelor's; Liberal  
Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory;  
Professional

#### V. Institution Identification<sup>2</sup>

1. School Name: University of Illinois
2. Address: Urbana, Illinois                      Zip Code
3. Established: 1867
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 34,791
5. Control: State
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees (In-State): \$1,074 Semester
7. Highest Offering: Doctorate
8. Program: Terminal Occupational Below Bachelor's; Liberal  
Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory;  
Professional

#### VI. Institution Identification<sup>3</sup>

1. School Name: University of Iowa
2. Address: Iowa City, Iowa                      Zip Code 52242
3. Established: 1847
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 25,998
5. Control: State
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees (In-State): \$950 Semester
7. Highest Offering: Doctorate
8. Program: Terminal Occupational Below Bachelor's; Liberal  
Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory;  
Professional

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 72.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 108.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 77.

### VII. Institution Identification<sup>1</sup>

1. School Name: Northwestern University
2. Address: Evanston, Illinois Zip Code 60201
3. Established: 1851
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 15,224
5. Control: Independent Nonprofit
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees: \$6,885 Quarter
7. Highest Offering: Doctorate
8. Program: Liberal Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory;  
Professional

### VIII. Institution Identification<sup>2</sup>

1. School Name: The Ohio State University
2. Address: Columbus, Ohio Zip Code 43210
3. Established: 1870
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 54,533
5. Control: State
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees (In-State): \$1,380 Quarter
7. Highest Offering: Doctorate
8. Program: Liberal Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory;  
Professional

### IX. Institution Identification<sup>3</sup>

1. School Name: University of Wisconsin-Madison
2. Address: Madison, Wisconsin Zip Code 53706
3. Established: 1849
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 41,349
5. Control: State
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees (In-State): \$984 Semester
7. Highest Degree: Doctorate
8. Program: Liberal Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory;  
Professional

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 68.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 178.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 245.

### X. Institution Identification<sup>1</sup>

1. School Name: Indiana University
2. Address: Bloomington, Indiana                      Zip Code 47405
3. Established: 1820
4. Student Enrollment 1981-82: 31,877
5. Control: State
6. Undergraduate Tuition and Fees (In-State): \$1,172 Semester
7. Highest Offering: Doctorate
8. Program: Terminal Occupational Below Bachelor's; Liberal  
Arts and General; Teacher Preparatory;  
Professional

To insure sampling techniques were carefully observed in the various institutions, Dr. Lynn Peltier, of the Michigan State University Office of Planning and Budgets, wrote a letter to the respective directors of research in Big Ten institutions to obtain their cooperation. Each of them agreed to conduct the sampling of their staffs and to distribute the questionnaire with a self-addressed envelope to the male and female professors in their respective institutions. Specifically, the methodology used by one institution to create these samples is described briefly as follows: (1) the universe was the on-line data base of all the assistant, associate, and full professors currently associated with the University. The pool for the male sample was all the known males in this universe. The pool for the female sample was all the known females in this universe. Out of the total assistant, associate, and full professors, those who had missing sex codes were excluded from the pools. (2) Each member of the male pool was arbitrarily assigned a unique number going from 1 to the total in the pool in the order they appeared in the on-line data base

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 69.

which was sorted in ascending order by the social security number. Similarly, each member of the female pool was assigned a number from 1 to the total number in the pool. (3) Separate sets of 50 nonduplicating pseudo-random numbers were generated independently using the uniform distribution function in SAS with the starting value devaluated to the time of the day. (4) These sets of pseudo-random numbers were then used to pick the individuals from each of the pools to yield the male and female random samples.

It should be further pointed out that while the samples were randomly selected they do not reflect the relative sizes of the different departments at each university.

In an examination of the numbers of faculty on each of the campuses of the Big Ten institutions, it was decided to limit the sampling to male and female professors on the main campuses. Furthermore, in consultation with Drs. Robert Ebel and William Farquhar, professors at Michigan State University, it was agreed to do a stratified sampling of these institutions and to attempt to obtain a total of 600 returned questionnaires from these institutions. According to Isaac and Michael, "it is important that each category is proportionally represented in the sample. The population is subdivided into the appropriate strata and then a predetermined quota of cases is drawn at random from each substratum."<sup>1</sup>

The weight given to each institution and the number of questionnaires needed are shown in Table 3-1.

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<sup>1</sup>Stephen Isaac and William B. Michael, Handbook in Research and Evaluation (San Diego, Calif.: Robert R. Knapp, Publisher, 1974), p. 146.

Table 3-1.--Number of questionnaires needed from each institution to reach the sampling size.

Institution	No. of Staff	Weight	No. of Questionnaires Needed
Indiana University	1,353	.07	42
Michigan State University	2,450	.12	72
Northwestern University	778	.04	24
Purdue University	1,981	.10	72
University of Illinois	2,379	.12	60
University of Wisconsin	2,144	.11	66
Iowa University	1,533	.08	48
The Ohio State University	3,096	.16	96
University of Minnesota	1,769	.09	54
University of Michigan	2,259	.11	66
Total	19,742	.99	600

To insure the elimination of a follow-up letter and yet secure a large enough sample for the study, 75 questionnaires for males and 75 questionnaires for females were sent to the designated samples at Michigan State University, Ohio State University, Purdue University, University of Illinois, University of Michigan, and University of Wisconsin, whereas 50 questionnaires for males and 50 for females were sent to the remaining institutions.

#### Instrumentation

In this study to determine the aspirational levels of women professors for higher educational administrative positions, a survey

was conducted using a structured questionnaire. Sax summarized the advantages of such an instrument:

1. The major advantage of the questionnaire is one of economics: the time and expense involved in questionnaires sent through the mail has practical ramifications over other types of survey, such as the interview.
2. Each respondent receives the same set of questions phrased in exactly the same way: the job of summarizing and comparing responses is reduced.
3. The use of the mail in sending out the questionnaires means that a larger variety of persons can be contacted.<sup>1</sup>

The questionnaire used in this study was developed by Burleigh-Savage after a review of the literature pertaining to women in administrative roles in higher education.<sup>2</sup> The first-draft questionnaire was critiqued by professors at Michigan State University, the week of April 2, 1979, who have appointments in the Administration and Higher Education Department. The identical questionnaire was given to the same professors, the week of February 8, 1982, to determine if further revisions were necessary. No suggestions were made except for the opening paragraph on general directions. A few terms were changed to fit this particular study.

A letter of explanation was developed to accompany the questionnaire. Also, at each institution, the Director of Research asked for the cooperation of the personnel in his/her respective institution. The services of a research consultant with the Michigan State

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<sup>1</sup>Sax, Empirical Foundations of Educational Research, pp. 214-15.

<sup>2</sup>Charlene Burleigh-Savage, "A Study of the Relationship Between the Scarcity of Women in Higher Educational Administrative Positions and the Multiple Factors Which Influence the Career Aspirations of Women Professors" (Ph.D. dissertation, Michigan State University, 1979), p. 110.

University College of Education were obtained for the purpose of analyzing the data which will be later described. During the month of March 1982, each sample population received the same questionnaire.

The survey instrument was divided into three parts:

PART I contained levels of aspiration in higher educational administration for which an appropriate response might be included:

1. I have applied for this position.
2. I would aspire to this position.
3. It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.
4. I would never apply for this position.

The administrative positions described were: (1) Chief Academic Officer, (2) Dean of a Major College, (3) Administrative Vice-President, (4) College President, (5) Other \_\_\_\_\_ (Please specify).

PART II contained 13 demographic items intended to indicate the various backgrounds, for descriptive purposes only, among the sample population.

PART III contained the following five major topic areas with appropriate statements for each:

Cultural Considerations (Questions 1 through 11)

Educational Factors (Questions 12 through 21)

Personal Perspective (Questions 22 through 31)

Psychological Aspects (Questions 32 through 42)

The World of Work (Questions 43 through 53)

The Likert scale of five choices was used for response codes: 1 = strongly agree, 2 = agree, 3 = undecided, 4 = disagree, and 5 = strongly disagree.

Two additional items were also contained in Part III of the questionnaire. They were as follows:

1. Please indicate your major teaching department.  
(Statement 54)
2. What do you consider your primary academic (professional) responsibility? (Question 55)

These two items were not treated as factors that may be related to administrative aspirations but to ascertain whether a significant difference existed among men and women professors in higher education.

#### Collection of the Data

One hundred fifty questionnaires were mailed to each sample population (75 female professors and 75 male professors) selected from Michigan State University, The Ohio State University, Purdue University, University of Illinois, University of Michigan, and University of Wisconsin. One hundred questionnaires were mailed to each sample population (50 female professors and 50 male professors) selected from Northwestern University, University of Iowa, Indiana University, and University of Minnesota. An appropriate letter requesting participation in the study, an endorsement note of the institutional research directors, and a return self-addressed and self-stamped envelope were contained in the package to each respondent. (See Appendix.) Table 3-2 lists the number of questionnaires mailed to and returned by the groups surveyed and the final total for the collectivity of the sample.



Table 3-2.--Surveyed population table.

	Questionnaires Mailed		Completed Returns		
	N	%	N	%	% of the Returned Population
Male	650	50	264	44	20
Female	<u>650</u>	50	<u>330</u>	<u>56</u>	<u>25</u>
Total	1,300		594	100	45

#### Treatment of the Data

As the completed questionnaires were returned, the researcher assigned a code number to each one beginning with a numerical order of 001 to 594. Since the items on the questionnaires were pre-coded before mailing, the responses were easily transferred and coded using the Fortran statement coding form. This statement, containing all responses from the total sample population, was given to the Michigan State University Data Processing Division for key punch and verifying purposes.

Data analysis included cross-tabulations, frequency distributions, chi-square test of association, and the t-test of significance was based on alpha, testing at the .05 level with various degrees of freedom.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Items in Parts I, II, and III were crossed with sex.

### Testable Hypotheses

To ascertain whether significant differences existed among men and women professors concerning their aspiration levels for a higher educational administrative position, it was necessary to test the following null hypotheses based on Parts I, II, and III of the questionnaire.

#### PART I: Intent of Aspiration for a Position in Higher Educational Administration

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between men and women respondents and their aspirations to an administrative position in higher education.

#### PART II: Demographic Data

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

#### PART III: Multiple Factors Which May Be Related to Administrative Aspirations

##### CULTURAL CONSIDERATIONS

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

##### EDUCATIONAL FACTORS

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

##### PERSONAL PERSPECTIVES

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in the personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

### PSYCHOLOGICAL ASPECTS

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in the psychological aspects between men and women respondents.

### THE WORLD OF WORK

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women respondents.

### MAJOR TEACHING DEPARTMENTS

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference in the major teaching departments between men and women respondents.

### PERCEIVED PRIMARY ACADEMIC RESPONSIBILITY

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference in the perceived primary academic responsibility between men and women respondents.

### Statistical Procedures

The Michigan State University College of Education Office of Research Consultation assisted in recommending appropriate statistical techniques for data analysis. A research consultant from this office assisted in writing all computer programs for data analysis. The computer programs and facilities of Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan, were used.

The statistical procedures used in the analysis of data were:

1. Cross-tabulations
2. Frequency distributions
3. The chi-square test of association

4. The t-test of significant difference between group means
5. The hypothesis test of significance based on the .05 level with various degrees of freedom

### Summary

In this chapter the writer attempted to provide a description of the planning and implementation of the study. Specific attention was given to describing the type of study and discussing the population and sampling methods used. The development and pre-sampling of the instrument were then discussed, along with a description of the components that comprised the structure of the final survey instrument. The procedures used to collect the data and the treatment of the data were also presented. The testable hypotheses were reviewed, and the statistical procedures used in the analysis of the data were the closing topics of discussion.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF DATA

#### Introduction

The purpose of this dissertation is to investigate the disparity between women in higher education administration and the career aspirations of women professors. Further investigation focuses on whether factors such as culture, educational climate, personal perspectives, psychological aspects, and the world of work may have an influence on men and women professors in their aspirations for a position in administration in colleges and universities. In addition, the major teaching departments and perceived primary academic responsibilities of the respondents were also testable items.

The analysis of the data is presented in the following manner:

1. Part I is related to the level of aspiration of both men and women professors. The appropriate hypothesis is stated with the accompanying data and explanation.

2. Part II presents the demographic data. Appropriate data and explanation are included in this section.

3. Part III presents the factors that influence the higher educational administrative aspirations, namely, cultural considerations, educational factors, personal perspectives, psychological

aspects, and the world of work. Each hypothesis is analyzed to determine if there is a significant difference between men and women respondents.

Part I of the Questionnaire: Perceived Aspiration  
Levels of Men and Women Professors for an  
Administrative Position

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between men and women respondents and their aspirations for an administrative position in higher education.

Position: Chief Academic Officer

In Table 4-1, 4 percent of the men had applied for the chief academic officer position, and 6 percent of the women had done so. However, only 21 percent of the men would aspire to this position, whereas 29 percent of the women would like to move into this position.

This hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 6.73 with 3 degrees of freedom and found not to be significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4-1.--Chief academic officer.

	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
I have already applied for this position.	9	4	16	6
I would aspire to this position.	50	21	84	29
It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.	84	35	83	28
I would never apply for this position.	100	41	107	37
Total	243	46	290	54

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between men and women respondents and their aspirations for an administrative position in higher education.

Position: Dean of a Major College

As shown in Table 4-2, 5 percent of the men had already applied for the position as dean of a major college, as had 5 percent of the women. However, 21 percent of the men would aspire to become a dean, as would 28 percent of the women.

This hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 8.63 with 3 degrees of freedom, which was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4-2.--Dean of a major college.

	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
	N	%	N	%
I have already applied for this position.	11	5	15	5
I would aspire to this position.	50	21	81	28
It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.	68	28	96	33
I would never apply for this position.	114	47	102	35
Total	243	45	294	55

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between men and women respondents and their aspirations for an administrative position in higher education.

Position: Administrative Vice-President

In Table 4-3, 1 percent of the men had already applied for the position as administrative vice-president, as well as 2 percent of

the women. However, 11 percent of the men would aspire to this position, as would 17 percent of the women.

This hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 5.69 with 3 degrees of freedom, which was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4-3.--Administrative vice-president.

	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
I have already applied for this position.	3	1	5	2
I would aspire to this position.	26	11	50	17
It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.	70	29	87	30
I would never apply for this position.	141	58	148	51
Total	240	45	290	54

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between men and women respondents and their aspirations for an administrative position in higher education.  
Position: College President

In Table 4-4, only 1 percent of the men and women had already applied for the position as college president. Similar results were found for both men and women who would aspire to this position, namely, 11 percent for men and 10 percent for women.

This hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 1.40 with 3 degrees of freedom, which was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.



Table 4-4.--College president.

	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
I have already applied for this position.	1	1	3	1
I would aspire to this position.	26	11	30	10
It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.	52	22	72	25
I would never apply for this position.	158	67	183	64
Total	237	45	288	55

Table 4-5 summarizes the results of testing the level of aspiration of men and women respondents for various administrative positions.

Table 4-5.--Results of tests for significant differences between male and female respondents on level of aspiration to become an administrator in higher education.

Administrative Positions	Test of Null Hypothesis
Chief academic officer	NR
Dean of a major college	R
Administrative vice-president	NR
College president	NR

Key: R = rejected  
NR = not rejected

Table 4-6 summarizes the data regarding aspiration levels between men and women respondents for administrative positions in higher education.

Table 4-6.--Aspiration levels of males and females for administrative positions.

	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
	N	%	N	%
<u>CHIEF ACADEMIC OFFICER</u>				
<u>Aspirers</u>				
I have already applied for this position.	9	4	16	6
I would aspire to this position.	50	21	84	29
Total	59	25	100	35
<u>Nonaspirers</u>				
It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.	84	35	83	28
I would never apply for this position.	100	41	107	37
Total	184	76	190	65
<u>DEAN OF A MAJOR COLLEGE</u>				
<u>Aspirers</u>				
I have already applied for this position.	11	5	15	5
I would aspire to this position.	50	21	81	28
Total	61	26	96	33
<u>Nonaspirers</u>				
It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.	68	28	96	33
I would never apply for this position.	114	47	102	35
Total	182	75	198	68

Table 4-6.--Continued.

	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
	N	%	N	%
<u>ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-PRESIDENT</u>				
<u>Aspirers</u>				
I have already applied for this position.	3	1	5	2
I would aspire to this position.	26	11	50	17
Total	29	12	55	19
<u>Nonaspirers</u>				
It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.	70	29	87	30
I would never apply for this position.	141	58	148	51
Total	211	87	235	81
<u>COLLEGE PRESIDENT</u>				
<u>Aspirers</u>				
I have already applied for this position.	1	1	3	1
I would aspire to this position.	26	11	30	10
Total	27	12	33	11
<u>Nonaspirers</u>				
It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.	52	22	72	25
I would never apply for this position.	158	64	183	64
Total	210	86	255	89

Table 4-7 summarizes aspiration levels between men and women respondents on the basis of aspirers and nonaspirers for administrative positions in higher education.

Table 4-7.--Summary of aspirers versus nonaspirers for administrative positions in higher education.

	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>%</u>
<u>CHIEF ACADEMIC OFFICER</u>				
Aspirers	59	25	100	35
Nonaspirers	184	76	190	65
Total	243	101	290	100
<u>DEAN OF A MAJOR COLLEGE</u>				
Aspirers	61	26	96	33
Nonaspirers	182	75	198	68
Total	243	101	294	101
<u>ADMINISTRATIVE VICE-PRESIDENT</u>				
Aspirers	29	12	55	19
Nonaspirers	211	87	235	81
Total	240	99	290	100
<u>COLLEGE PRESIDENT</u>				
Aspirers	27	11	33	11
Nonaspirers	210	89	55	89
Total	237	100	288	100

Part II of the Questionnaire: Descriptive Demographic  
Characteristics Data of Males and Females

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Age

In Table 4-8, 12 percent of the men and 7 percent of the women were in the 20-29 age bracket, whereas 37 percent of the men and 25 percent of the women were in the over-50 age bracket.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 12.66 with 4 degrees of freedom, which was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4-8.--What is your age?

Age	<u>Male</u>		<u>Female</u>	
	N	%	N	%
20-29	12	5	24	7
30-39	74	28	120	36
40-50	81	31	105	32
Over 50	97	37	82	25
Total	264	101	331	100

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Sibling Placement

In Table 4-9, 26 percent of the men and 20 percent of the women were the youngest child in the family. Within the other

categories, there were small differences between the men and the women.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 7.90 with 5 degrees of freedom, which was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4-9.--What is your sibling placement in your family?

Sibling Placement	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Youngest child	68	26	66	20
Second youngest to middle	19	7	26	8
Middle child	29	11	48	15
Middle to second oldest	15	6	34	10
Oldest	104	39	119	36
Only child	30	11	37	11
Total	265	100	330	100

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Marital Status

In Table 4-10, 9 percent of the men and 31 percent of the women were single, whereas a larger percentage of women were divorced/widowed with children (13 percent) or divorced/widowed without children (6 percent), as compared to men, who had 6 percent and 1 percent, respectively.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 7.90 with 5 degrees of freedom, which was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4-10.--What is your marital status?

Marital Status	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Single	25	9	103	31
Married	95	36	86	26
Married with children	125	47	70	22
Divorced/widowed with children	16	6	43	13
Divorced/widowed without children	3	1	21	6
Separated	3	1	8	2
Total	265	100	331	100

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Number of Children

In Table 4-11, 17 percent of the men and 52 percent of the women did not have children. Of the men, 61 percent had two to four children, whereas 31 percent of the women had two to four children.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 87.82 with 4 degrees of freedom, which was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4-11.--How many children do you have?

Number of Children	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
0	46	17	172	52
1	37	14	47	14
2-4	161	61	101	31
5 or more	20	8	8	2
Total	264	100	320	99

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Teaching Level

In Table 4-12, 20 percent of the men held the assistant professorship, whereas 42 percent of the women were at that teaching level. At the associate professor level, there were 27 percent men and 34 percent women. Fifty-three percent of the men and 25 percent of the women were at the professor rank.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 52.28 with 2 degrees of freedom, which was significant at the .05 level.

The null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Racial Group

In Table 4-13, the largest racial group was Caucasian, which included 76 percent men and 78 percent women. The next largest racial group was the native American: 14 percent men and 11 percent women.



The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 8.65 with 5 degrees of freedom, which was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4-12.--What is your teaching level?

Teaching Level	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Assistant professor	52	20	132	42
Associate professor	71	27	106	34
Full professor	136	53	78	25
Total	259	100	316	100

Table 4-13.--What is your racial group?

Racial Group	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Native American	37	14	37	11
Black	6	2	17	5
Asian American	13	5	8	2
Caucasian	199	76	259	78
Hispanic	0	0	2	1
American Indian	8	3	8	2
Total	263	100	331	99

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Level of Education

In Table 4-14, the doctorate was achieved by 89 percent of the men and 74 percent of the women.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 26.30 with 3 degrees of freedom, which was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4-14.--What level of education have you completed?

Level of Education	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Doctorate	233	89	245	74
Graduate hours beyond master's	10	4	48	15
Master's degree	13	5	33	10
Bachelor's degree	5	2	4	1
Total	261	100	330	100

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Number of Years in Teaching

In Table 4-15, 4 percent of the men and women were in their first year of teaching, whereas 15 percent and 23 percent, respectively, were in their first through fifth years. Forty-eight percent of the men had 15 or more years of experience, as compared to 32 percent of the women.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 17.50 with 4 degrees of freedom, which was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4-15.--How many years have you been teaching?

Years in Teaching	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
First	10	4	13	4
1-5	40	15	77	23
6-10	37	14	65	20
11-15	50	19	68	21
15 or more	127	48	106	32
Total	264	100	329	100

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Educational Community

As shown in Table 4-16, approximately 60 percent of both men and women professors were teaching in urban communities, whereas the smallest number were teaching in rural areas (9 percent men, 14 percent women).

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 4.41 with 2 degrees of freedom, which was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4-16.--Identify the educational community in which you are now teaching.

Community	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Urban	152	60	188	58
Suburban	78	31	88	27
Rural	22	9	46	14
Total	258	100	322	100

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Sports Participation

In Table 4-17, 20 percent of the men and 9 percent of the women had participated in sports as a youth. Approximately the same percentage (15 percent men, 16 percent women) had participated in individual sports. Forty-one percent of the women as opposed to 20 percent of the men had not participated in sports as a youth.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 39.6 with 4 degrees of freedom, which was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Mothers Working

In Table 4-18, approximately the same percentages were found for both men and women professors whose mothers had worked during their growing years. For example, 53 percent of the men and 55 percent of the women had mothers who worked during these years.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of .81 with 3 degrees of freedom, which was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted.

Table 4-17.--Did you actively participate in sports as a youth?

Type of Sports Activity	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Team	53	20	28	9
Individual	40	15	52	16
Both team and individual	119	45	117	35
Did not participate	52	20	134	41
Total	264	100	331	100

Table 4-18.--How many years did your mother work during your growing years? Either full or part-time?

Number of Years	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
0	141	53	180	55
1-5	46	17	50	15
6-10	41	16	57	17
All	36	13	43	13
Total	264	100	330	100

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

Factor: Worked for Female Administrator

As shown in Table 4-19, only 37 percent of the men had worked for a female administrators, whereas 62 percent of the women had had this experience. Sixty-three percent of the men and only 38 percent of the women had not had the experience of working for a female administrator.

The hypothesis was tested by obtaining a chi-square of 37.12 with 1 degree of freedom, which was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

Table 4-19.--Have you ever worked for a female administrator?

Reply	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Yes	96	37	205	62
No	167	63	124	38
Total	263	100	329	100

### Summary of Demographic Data

Table 4-20 summarizes the results of testing the various demographic data of men and women respondents who aspired for administrative positions in higher education.

Table 4-20.--Results of tests for significant differences between men and women respondents on various demographic data.

Demographic Data	Test of Null Hypothesis
Age	R
Sibling placement	NR
Marital status	NR
Number of children	R
Present teaching level	R
Racial group	NR
Level of education	R
Years in teaching	R
Educational community	NR
Sports as a youth	R
Mother working	NR
Working for a female administrator	R

Key: R = rejected  
NR = not rejected

Part III of the Questionnaire: Perceived Multiple  
Factors That May Be Related to Administration  
Aspirations of Men and Women

Cultural Considerations

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Colleagues React Unfavorably

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "My colleagues would react unfavorably if I became an administrator." The obtained t-statistic of  $-.10$  with 586 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the

null hypothesis was accepted. As shown in Table 4-21, 67 percent of the women and 65 percent of the men disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-21.--My colleagues would react unfavorably if I became an administrator.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	7	3	24	7
Agree	40	15	43	13
Undecided	46	18	42	13
Disagree	120	46	136	42
Strongly disagree	49	19	81	25
Total	262	100	326	100

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Men Are More Effective Administrators

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "For psychological and social reasons, men are more effective administrators than women." The obtained t-statistic of -6.67 with 590 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-22, 83 percent of the women and 62 percent of the men disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.



Table 4-22.--For psychological and social reasons, men are more effective administrators than women.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	10	4	10	3
Agree	48	18	28	9
Undecided	42	16	17	5
Disagree	99	38	105	32
Strongly disagree	63	24	169	51
Total	263	100	329	100

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Women Better Organizers

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Women are better organizers than men." The obtained t-statistic of 7.70 with 585 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-23, 38 percent of the women and 62 percent of the men disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Women Seek Proximity to Others

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently." The obtained t-statistic of -.03 with 589 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null

hypothesis was accepted. As shown in Table 4-24, 52 percent of the men and 58 percent of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-23.--Women are better organizers than men.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	2	1	27	8
Agree	15	6	81	25
Undecided	83	32	94	29
Disagree	121	47	96	29
Strongly disagree	39	15	29	9
Total	260	100	327	100

Table 4-24.--Women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	1	1	8	2
Agree	36	14	57	17
Undecided	90	33	71	22
Disagree	104	40	148	45
Strongly disagree	32	12	44	13
Total	263	100	328	100

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Women Ask for Help

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "In a given task, women are more likely to ask for help or rely on others in face of a threat than are men." The obtained t-statistic of .24 with 589 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. As shown in Table 4-25, there seemed to be similarity in the responses of both men and women.

Table 4-25.--In a given task, women are more likely to ask for help or rely on others in face of a threat than are men.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	6	2	10	3
Agree	56	21	83	25
Undecided	65	25	73	22
Disagree	107	41	107	33
Strongly disagree	29	11	55	17
Total	263	100	328	100

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Women Not as Dependable

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "In general, I consider women not as dependable as men because of women's biological and personal characteristics." The

obtained t-statistic of -5.56 with 591 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-26, 87 percent of the men and 93 percent of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-26.--In general, I consider women not as dependable as men because of women's biological and personal characteristics.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	2	1	4	1
Agree	16	6	9	3
Undecided	17	6	10	3
Disagree	114	43	68	21
Strongly disagree	115	44	238	72
Total	264	100	329	100

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Male Spouse Would Feel Threatened

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "A male spouse would be threatened by a competent, career-oriented wife." The obtained t-statistic of .80 with 581 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was not rejected, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Approximately 57 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement. (See Table 4-27.)

Table 4-27.--A male spouse would be threatened by a competent, career-oriented wife.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	3	1	11	3
Agree	47	18	61	19
Undecided	56	22	75	23
Disagree	109	42	117	36
Strongly disagree	43	17	61	19
Total	258	100	325	100

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Women Lower Achievement

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men." The obtained t-statistic of  $-.15$  with 588 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted, indicating no differences in the responses of men and women. (See Table 4-28.)

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Men Know More About Opportunities

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Men know more than women about how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators." The obtained t-statistic of  $4.84$  with 588 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level.

The null hypothesis was rejected. Forty-one percent of the men strongly agreed, whereas 65 percent of the women took this position, as shown in Table 4-29.

Table 4-28.--Women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	1	1	6	2
Agree	60	23	83	25
Undecided	42	16	41	13
Disagree	110	42	109	33
Strongly disagree	49	19	88	27
Total	263	101	327	100

Table 4-29.--Men know more than women about how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	14	5	35	11
Agree	95	36	176	54
Undecided	54	21	39	12
Disagree	73	28	54	17
Strongly disagree	26	10	24	7
Total	262	100	328	100

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Women Lack Drive

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Women lack the drive to become administrators." The obtained t-statistic of  $-.10$  with 588 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted. Fifty-six percent of the men disagreed with this statement, whereas 43 percent of the women disagreed also. Twenty percent of the men and 30 percent of the women strongly disagreed with this statement. (See Table 4-30.)

Table 4-30.--Women lack the drive to become administrators.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	1	1	5	2
Agree	24	9	41	13
Undecided	38	15	44	13
Disagree	146	56	142	43
Strongly disagree	52	20	97	30
Total	261	101	329	100

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

Factor: Women Who Compete Lose Popularity

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "College women who attempt to compete with men usually do

so at the expense of their popularity or social life." The obtained t-statistic of  $-.33$  with 588 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted. Fifty-nine percent of the men responded that they disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement, whereas 60 percent of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed also. (See Table 4-31.)

Table 4-31.--College women who attempt to compete with men usually do so at the expense of their popularity or social life.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	4	2	11	3
Agree	50	19	70	21
Undecided	53	20	45	14
Disagree	117	45	140	42
Strongly disagree	36	14	64	19
Total	260	100	330	100

Table 4-32 summarizes the data for the statements under the Cultural Considerations section of Part III of the questionnaire.

#### Educational Factors

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: Women Downgrade Teaching Profession

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Welcoming women as equals into the professional management levels may tend to downgrade the teaching profession." The



Table 4-32.--Results of tests looking for significant differences between males and females on Cultural Considerations.

Statement	Test of Null Hypothesis
My colleagues would react unfavorably if I became an administrator.	NR
For psychological and social reasons, men are more effective administrators than women.	R
Women are better organizers than men.	R
Women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently.	NR
In a given task, women are more likely to ask for help or rely on others in face of a threat than are men.	NR
In general, I consider women not as dependable as men because of women's biological and personal characteristics.	R
A male spouse would be threatened by a competent, career-oriented wife.	NR
Women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men.	NR
Men know more than women about how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators.	R
Women lack the drive to become administrators.	NR
College women who attempt to compete with men usually do so at the expense of their popularity or social life.	NR

Key: R = rejected  
NR = not rejected

obtained t-statistic of -2.58 with 586 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-33, 88 percent of the men and 91 percent of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-33.--Welcoming women as equals into the professional management levels may tend to downgrade the teaching profession.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	0	0	5	2
Agree	8	3	13	4
Undecided	23	9	12	4
Disagree	105	40	80	24
Strongly disagree	124	48	218	67
Total	260	100	328	100

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: Female Students Never Experience Women Leaders

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Female students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes." The obtained t-statistic of 5.64 with 586 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-34,

38 percent of the men and 63 percent of the women strongly agreed and agreed with this statement.

Table 4-34.--Female students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	6	2	51	16
Agree	97	37	155	47
Undecided	52	20	44	13
Disagree	92	35	55	17
Strongly disagree	13	5	23	7
Total	260	100	328	100

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: Women Have Less Power

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Women administrators have less power to make decisions than men." The obtained t-statistic of 1.88 with 583 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-35, 18 percent of the men and 25 percent of the women strongly agreed and agreed with this statement.

Table 4-35.--Women administrators have less power to make decisions than men.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	1	1	14	4
Agree	35	14	68	21
Undecided	55	21	53	16
Disagree	124	48	126	38
Strongly disagree	42	16	67	20
Total	257	101	328	100

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: More Comfortable Working for a Male

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I feel more comfortable working for a male administrator than a female administrator." The obtained t-statistic of -6.77 with 585 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-36, 55 percent of the men and 78 percent of the women disagreed and strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: Courses Designed for Males

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "In my college career, most college courses were designed for male advancement and emphasis." The obtained t-statistic of 1.23

with 585 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-37, 25 percent of the males and 32 percent of the females strongly agreed and agreed with this statement, whereas 62 percent of the males and 57 percent of the females disagreed and strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-36.--I feel more comfortable working for a male administrator than a female administrator.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	12	5	6	2
Agree	33	13	22	7
Undecided	70	27	46	14
Disagree	108	42	141	43
Strongly disagree	33	13	113	35
Total	256	100	328	100

Table 4-37.--In my college career, most college courses were designed for male advancement and emphasis.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	6	2	31	10
Agree	60	23	71	22
Undecided	33	13	41	13
Disagree	125	48	121	37
Strongly disagree	35	14	64	20
Total	259	100	329	100

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: Uncomfortable in All-Male Class

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I would feel uncomfortable in a higher education administration class of all males." The obtained t-statistic of -5.58 with 583 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-38, 21 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while only 12 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with the statement. Sixty-five percent of the males disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement, whereas 80 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-38.--I would feel uncomfortable in a higher education administration class of all males.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	7	3	7	2
Agree	45	18	34	10
Undecided	38	15	27	8
Disagree	134	52	136	42
Strongly disagree	33	13	124	38
Total	257	100	328	100

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: Educational Counseling for Advancement

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Educational counseling enabled me to plan for advancement in my career." The obtained t-statistic of .39 with 580 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. As shown in Table 4-39, 12 percent of the males and 11 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 81 percent of the males and 79 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-39.--Educational counseling enabled me to plan for advancement in my career.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	3	1	5	2
Agree	28	11	28	9
Undecided	17	7	34	11
Disagree	106	41	137	42
Strongly disagree	103	40	121	37
Total	257	100	325	100

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: Female Administrators Encouraged Me

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "There have been female administrators who have encouraged

me to seek an administrative position." The obtained t-statistic of 5.90 with 583 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-40, 20 percent of the males and 40 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, whereas 73 percent of the males and 54 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-40.--There have been female administrators who have encouraged me to seek an administrative position.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	5	2	37	11
Agree	45	18	95	29
Undecided	20	8	21	6
Disagree	104	41	112	34
Strongly disagree	82	32	64	20
Total	256	100	329	100

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: Most Administrators Male

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Most administrators in my schooling process were male." The obtained t-statistic of -3.34 with 584 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-41, 88 percent of the males strongly agreed or



agreed with this statement, while 75 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement.

Table 4-41.--Most administrators in my schooling process were male.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	92	36	117	36
Agree	133	52	129	39
Undecided	11	4	10	3
Disagree	19	7	52	16
Strongly disagree	3	1	20	6
Total	258	100	328	100

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

Factor: Men and Women Apply for Positions

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "In our institution both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions." The obtained t-statistic of -4.81 with 584 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-42, 68 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, whereas 54 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. Ten percent of the males and 23 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-42.--In our institution both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	48	19	34	10
Agree	126	49	144	44
Undecided	62	24	71	22
Disagree	20	8	53	16
Strongly disagree	4	2	24	7
Total	260	100	326	100

Table 4-43 summarizes the data for the statements under the Educational Factors section of Part III of the questionnaire.

#### Personal Perspectives

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: A Woman Can Be Happily Married

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "A woman can be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time." The obtained t-statistic of 2.59 with 585 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-44, 77 percent of the men and 83 percent of the women strongly agreed or agreed with this statement.

Table 4-43.--Results of tests looking for significant differences  
between males and females on Educational Factors.

Statement	Test of Null Hypothesis
Welcoming women as equals into the professional management levels may tend to downgrade the teaching profession.	R
Female students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes.	R
Women administrators have less power to make decisions than men.	R
I feel more comfortable working for a male administrator than a female administrator.	R
In my college career, most college courses were designed for male advancement and emphasis.	NR
I would feel uncomfortable in a higher education administration class of all males.	R
Educational counseling enabled me to plan for advancement in my career.	NR
There have been female administrators who have encouraged me to seek an administrative position.	R
Most administrators in my schooling process were male.	R
In our institution both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions.	R

Key: R = rejected  
NR = not rejected

Table 4-44.--A woman can be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	52	20	113	35
Agree	147	57	158	48
Undecided	40	15	36	11
Disagree	17	7	10	3
Strongly disagree	3	1	11	3
Total	259	100	328	100

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: Know Administrators for Support

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I feel I need to know a few administrators well in order to win their support for an administrative position." The obtained t-statistic of 1.09 with 575 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-45, 47 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 54 percent of the females answered in the same manner.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: Too Many Family Responsibilities

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position." The obtained t-statistic of -3.41 with

577 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-46, 74 percent of the males and 82 percent of the females strongly disagreed or disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-45.--I feel I need to know a few administrators well in order to win their support for an administrative position.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	14	6	41	13
Agree	105	41	131	41
Undecided	77	30	71	22
Disagree	53	21	66	20
Strongly disagree	5	2	14	4
Total	254	100	323	100

Table 4-46.--I have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	4	2	8	3
Agree	34	13	25	8
Undecided	28	11	27	8
Disagree	148	58	157	49
Strongly disagree	42	16	186	33
Total	256	100	323	100

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: Spouse Would Be Upset

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "My spouse would be upset if we had to move because I was selected as an administrator." The obtained t-statistic of 1.11 with 495 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-47, 59 percent of the males and 47 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-47.--My spouse would be upset if we had to move because I was selected as an administrator.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	5	2	21	8
Agree	47	19	35	14
Undecided	49	20	79	31
Disagree	106	44	66	26
Strongly disagree	35	15	54	21
Total	242	100	255	100

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: I'm Encouraged to Get a College Degree

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "In my home, I was encouraged to get a college degree."

The obtained t-statistic of .03 with 586 degrees of freedom was not

significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. As shown in Table 4-48, 89 percent of the males and 85 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement.

Table 4-48.--In my home, I was encouraged to get a college degree.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	137	53	210	64
Agree	94	36	70	21
Undecided	7	3	4	1
Disagree	18	7	23	7
Strongly disagree	5	2	20	6
Total	261	100	327	100

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: Planned for Advancement

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I have planned specifically for advancement in higher education administration." The obtained t-statistic of 3.22 with 582 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-49, 11 percent of the males and 18 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, whereas 82 percent of the males and 71 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-49.--I have planned specifically for advancement in higher education administration.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	6	2	18	6
Agree	24	9	39	12
Undecided	16	6	35	11
Disagree	130	50	157	48
Strongly disagree	83	32	76	23
Total	259	100	325	100

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: Spouse Thinks Influence Me

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "What my spouse thinks about an administrative position has an influence on me." The obtained t-statistic of -2.18 with 496 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-50, 66 percent of the males and 50 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: Eager to Move

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I would be eager to become an administrator, even if I had to move somewhere else." The obtained t-statistic of 5.31 with 580 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore,



the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-51, 18 percent of the males and 26 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 69 percent of the males and 51 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-50.--What my spouse thinks about an administrative position has an influence on me.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	26	11	10	4
Agree	133	55	118	46
Undecided	24	10	71	28
Disagree	43	18	40	16
Strongly disagree	16	7	17	7
Total	242	100	256	100

Table 4-51.--I would be eager to become an administrator, even if I had to move somewhere else.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	6	2	24	8
Agree	27	16	57	18
Undecided	46	18	77	24
Disagree	98	38	105	33
Strongly disagree	83	31	59	18
Total	260	100	322	100

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: Personally Received Encouragement

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I have personally received encouragement from an administrator in my institution to apply for an administrative position." The obtained t-statistic of  $-.05$  with 582 degrees of freedom was not significant at the  $.05$  level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-52, 34 percent of the males and 35 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while both groups had 58 percent in the disagree and strongly disagree responses.

Table 4-52.--I have personally received encouragement from an administrator in my institution to apply for an administrative position.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	18	7	32	10
Agree	71	27	80	25
Undecided	21	8	25	8
Disagree	103	40	120	37
Strongly disagree	46	18	68	21
Total	259	100	325	100

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference in personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

Factor: Negative Image of Administrators

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I have a negative image of university/college

administrators." The obtained t-statistic of .10 with 584 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. As shown in Table 4-53, 34 percent of the males and 33 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, whereas 51 percent of the males and 47 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-53.--I have a negative image of university/college administrators.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	27	10	25	8
Agree	62	24	80	25
Undecided	37	14	68	21
Disagree	113	43	126	39
Strongly disagree	22	8	26	8
Total	261	100	325	100

Table 4-54 summarizes the data for the statements under the Personal Perspectives section of Part III of the questionnaire

### Psychological Perspectives

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: Satisfied With Present Employment

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I am satisfied with my present employment and would not seek an administrative position." The obtained t-statistic of -4.19

Table 4-54.--Results of tests looking for significant differences between males and females on Personal Perspectives.

Statement	Test of Null Hypothesis
A woman can be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time.	R
I feel I need to know a few administrators well in order to win their support for an administrative position.	NR
I have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position.	R
My spouse would be upset if we had to move because I was selected as an administrator.	NR
In my home, I was encouraged to get a college degree.	NR
I have planned specifically for advancement in higher education administration.	R
What my spouse thinks about an administrative position has an influence on me.	R
I would be eager to become an administrator, even if I had to move somewhere else.	R
I have personally received encouragement from an administrator in my institution to apply for an administrative position.	NR
I have a negative image of university/college administrators.	NR

Key: R = rejected  
NR = not rejected

with 588 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-55, 63 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed, while 47 percent of the females answered in the same manner.

Table 4-55.--I am satisfied with my present employment and would not seek an administrative position.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	59	23	50	15
Agree	102	40	104	32
Undecided	36	14	54	17
Disagree	51	20	91	28
Strongly disagree	8	3	27	8
Total	256	100	326	100

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: Confident in Leadership Positions

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I feel confident in most leadership positions." The obtained t-statistic of .33 with 585 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-56, 80 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 83 percent of the women answered in a similar manner.

Table 4-56.--I feel confident in most leadership positions.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	51	19	94	29
Agree	158	61	177	54
Undecided	24	9	36	11
Disagree	23	9	17	5
Strongly disagree	4	2	3	1
Total	260	100	327	100

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: Willing to Train for Administrative Post

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I would be willing to further my education or training for an administrative position." The obtained t-statistic of 5.99 with 583 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-57, 24 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 48 percent of the women answered in a similar manner. Fifty-four percent of the males and 31 percent of the females responded disagree or strongly disagree.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: Administrators React Favorably

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Administrators in my institution would react favorably if I became an administrator." The obtained t-statistic of .14 with

578 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-58, 49 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 46 percent of the females answered in like manner. Eleven percent of the males and 10 percent of the females answered this statement as disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 4-57.--I would be willing to further my education or training for an administrative position.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	17	7	43	13
Agree	43	17	113	35
Undecided	59	23	70	22
Disagree	98	38	62	19
Strongly disagree	42	16	38	12
Total	259	100	326	100

Table 4-58.--Administrators in my institution would react favorably if I became an administrator.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	19	7	32	10
Agree	108	24	117	36
Undecided	103	40	143	44
Disagree	22	9	22	7
Strongly disagree	6	2	8	3
Total	258	100	322	100

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: In Present Position Too Long

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I have been in my present position too long to seek an administrative position now." The obtained t-statistic of -3.17 with 572 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-59, 16 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while only 10 percent of the females answered in like manner.

Table 4-59.--I have been in my present position too long to seek an administrative position now.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	11	4	6	2
Agree	30	12	25	8
Undecided	28	11	33	10
Disagree	141	56	172	54
Strongly disagree	43	17	85	27
Total	253	100	321	100

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: Like Delegating Tasks

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I like delegating tasks and working with people." The obtained t-statistic of 4.39 with 580 degrees of freedom was significant



at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-60, 79 percent of the males answered strongly agree or agree, while 87 percent of the females answered in a similar manner. Fourteen percent of the males and 7 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 4-60.--I like delegating tasks and working with people.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	28	11	81	25
Agree	176	68	199	62
Undecided	21	8	21	6
Disagree	30	12	21	6
Strongly disagree	4	2	1	1
Total	259	100	323	100

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: Enhance My Self-Image

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Being an administrator would enhance my self-image." The obtained t-statistic of 3.30 with 577 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-61, 25 percent of the males answered the statement strongly agree or agree, while 37 percent of the females answered in the same manner. Fifty percent of the males and 36 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-61.--Being an administrator would enhance my self-image.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	8	3	21	7
Agree	55	22	97	30
Undecided	67	26	89	28
Disagree	96	38	82	25
Strongly disagree	30	12	34	11
Total	256	100	323	100

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: If I Apply, Might Be a Top Contender

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender." The obtained t-statistic of 1.04 with 577 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was accepted. As shown in Table 4-62, 42 percent of the males and 45 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: Not Compete for Administrative Job

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I would rather not compete for an administrative position." The obtained t-statistic of -3.88 with 576 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected.

In Table 4-63, 51 percent of the males and 37 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 30 percent of the males and 43 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Table 4-62.--If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	18	7	33	10
Agree	94	36	113	35
Undecided	86	33	110	34
Disagree	51	20	54	17
Strongly disagree	9	4	11	3
Total	258	100	321	100

Table 4-63.--I would rather not compete for an administrative position.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	41	16	32	10
Agree	89	35	85	27
Undecided	47	18	65	20
Disagree	69	27	107	33
Strongly disagree	11	4	32	10
Total	257	100	321	100

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: Administrators Become "Out of Touch"

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Administrators tend to become 'out of touch' with the teaching environment." The obtained t-statistic of -2.71 with 585 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-64, 61 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed with the statement, while 50 percent of the females answered in the same manner. Twenty percent of the males and 27 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Table 4-64.--Administrators tend to become "out of touch" with the teaching environment.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	35	14	35	11
Agree	122	47	129	39
Undecided	51	19	76	23
Disagree	49	19	71	22
Strongly disagree	3	1	16	5
Total	260	100	327	100

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in psychological perspectives between men and women.

Factor: Seeking an Administrative Position  
Involves Too Much "Politics"

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Seeking an administrative position involves too much

'politics.'" The obtained t-statistic of .32 with 582 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-65, 51 percent of the males strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 48 percent of the females answered in a similar manner.

Table 4-65.--Seeking an administrative position involves too much "politics."

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	28	11	43	13
Agree	102	40	114	35
Undecided	57	21	94	29
Disagree	66	26	61	19
Strongly disagree	4	2	12	4
Total	257	100	324	100

Table 4-66 summarizes the data for the statements under the Psychological Perspectives section of Part III of the questionnaire.

### The World of Work

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: People Asked to Compromise

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "People who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles." The obtained t-statistic of -.53

Table 4-66.--Results of tests looking for significant differences between males and females on Psychological Perspectives.

Statement	Test of Null Hypothesis
I am satisfied with my present employment and would not seek an administrative position.	R
I feel confident in most leadership positions.	R
I would be willing to further my education or training for an administrative position.	R
Administrators in my institution would react favorably if I became an administrator.	NR
I have been in my present position too long to seek an administrative position now.	R
I like delegating tasks and working with people.	R
Being an administrator would enhance my self-image.	R
If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender.	NR
I would rather not compete for an administrative position.	R
Administrators tend to become "out of touch" with the teaching environment.	R
Seeking an administrative position involves too much "politics."	NR

Key: R = rejected  
NR = not rejected

with 582 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-67, 45 percent of the males and 46 percent of the females answered strongly agree and agree, while 28 percent of the males and 29 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 4-67.--People who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	19	7	19	6
Agree	97	38	129	40
Undecided	72	27	83	25
Disagree	69	27	85	26
Strongly disagree	2	1	9	3
Total	259	100	325	100

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: My Present Position Provides Security

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "My present position provides too much security for me to seek an administrative position." The obtained t-statistic of -2.38 with 575 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-68, 18 percent of the males and 13 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 64 percent of the males and 72

percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4-68.--My present position provides too much security for me to seek an administrative position.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	5	2	3	1
Agree	41	16	39	12
Undecided	46	17	49	15
Disagree	142	56	188	59
Strongly disagree	22	9	42	13
Total	256	100	321	100

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: Men Advance Faster in Administration

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men." The obtained t-statistic of 7.15 with 580 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-69, 44 percent of the males and 69 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement. Thirty-two percent of the males and 13 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.



Table 4-69.--Men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	17	7	75	23
Agree	96	37	49	46
Undecided	63	24	59	18
Disagree	72	28	29	9
Strongly disagree	10	4	12	4
Total	258	100	324	100

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: "White-Male Club" Promotes Men

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "The 'white-male club' promotes men over women for positions in administration." The obtained t-statistic of 8.56 with 575 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-70, 45 percent of the males and 74 percent of the females answered strongly agree and agree, while 26 percent of the males and 9 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: A Position Is Attainable

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I see a position in higher education administration as attainable by me." The obtained t-statistic of 10 with 579 degrees

of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-71, 62 percent of the males and 65 percent of the females answered strongly agree and agree, while 16 percent of the males and 15 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 4-70.--The "white-male club" promotes men over women for positions in administration.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	15	6	87	27
Agree	99	39	151	47
Undecided	74	29	52	17
Disagree	55	21	20	6
Strongly disagree	14	5	10	3
Total	257	100	320	100

Table 4-71.--I see a position in higher education administration as attainable by me.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	21	8	39	12
Agree	151	59	171	53
Undecided	44	17	66	20
Disagree	37	14	36	11
Strongly disagree	4	2	12	4
Total	257	100	324	100

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: Men More Often Chosen

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women." The obtained t-statistic of 3.79 with 578 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-72, 79 percent of the males and 81 percent of the females answered strongly agree or agree, whereas 8 percent of the males and 5 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 4-72.--Men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	28	11	109	34
Agree	175	68	152	47
Undecided	35	13	46	14
Disagree	17	7	14	4
Strongly disagree	1	1	3	1
Total	256	100	324	100

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: Willing to "Go for Broke"

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I am willing to 'go for broke' in my quest for a position in administration." The obtained t-statistic of 4.09 with

579 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-73, 7 percent of the males and 9 percent of the females answered strongly agree or agree to this statement, whereas 86 percent of the males and 71 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 4-73.--I am willing to "go for broke" in my quest for a position in administration.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	6	2	9	3
Agree	12	5	19	6
Undecided	17	7	66	20
Disagree	96	37	121	38
Strongly disagree	127	49	108	33
Total	259	100	323	100

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: College Students Are More Rewarding

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I consider that working with college students is more rewarding than administration." The obtained t-statistic of -3.29 with 578 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4-74, 67 percent of the males and 47 percent of the females answered strongly agree and agree, while 17 percent of the males and 22 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 4-74.--I consider that working with college students is more rewarding than administration.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	51	20	51	16
Agree	121	47	99	31
Undecided	41	16	104	31
Disagree	38	15	63	20
Strongly disagree	6	2	6	2
Total	257	100	323	100

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: Too Much Competition

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "There is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator." The obtained t-statistic of 2.82 with 574 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-75, 9 percent of the males and 17 percent of the females strongly agreed or agreed with this statement, while 60 percent of the males and 52 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: Successful Administrator Easier for Men

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Being a successful administrator is easier for men than for women." The obtained t-statistic of -1.25 with 577 degrees of

freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-76, 37 percent of the males and 35 percent of the females answered strongly agree or agree, while 38 percent of the males and 47 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 4-75.--There is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	3	1	8	3
Agree	20	8	46	14
Undecided	78	31	100	31
Disagree	132	51	142	45
Strongly disagree	24	9	23	7
Total	257	100	319	100

Table 4-76.--Being a successful administrator is easier for men than for women.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	10	4	20	6
Agree	85	33	92	29
Undecided	67	25	58	18
Disagree	79	31	124	39
Strongly disagree	17	7	27	8
Total	258	100	321	100

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women.

Factor: Colleagues Assisted Me

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "My university or college colleagues assisted me in seeking an administrative position." The obtained t-statistic of  $-.72$  with 551 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-77, 30 percent of the males and 25 percent of the females answered strongly agree or agree, while 47 percent of the males and 51 percent of the females answered disagree or strongly disagree.

Table 4-77.--My university or college colleagues assisted me in seeking an administrative position.

Correlation Between Responses	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	10	4	18	6
Agree	64	26	58	19
Undecided	54	23	71	24
Disagree	92	37	115	38
Strongly disagree	26	10	39	13
Total	249	100	304	100

Table 4-78 summarizes the data for the statements under the World of Work section of Part III of the questionnaire.

Table 4-78.--Results of tests looking for significant differences  
between males and females on World of Work.

Statement	Test of Null Hypothesis
People who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles.	NR
My present position provides too much security for me to seek an administrative position.	R
Men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men.	R
The "white-male club" promotes men over women for positions in administration.	R
I see a position in higher education administration as attainable by me.	NR
Men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women.	R
I am willing to "go for broke" in my quest for a position in administration.	R
I consider that working with college students is more rewarding than administration.	R
There is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator.	R
Being a successful administrator is easier for men than for women.	NR
My university or college colleagues assisted me in seeking an administrative position.	NR

Key: R = rejected  
NR = not rejected



Major Teaching Department

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference in the major teaching departments between men and women respondents.

Factor: Major Teaching Departments

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Please indicate your major teaching department." The obtained chi-square of 150.77 with 56 degrees of freedom was significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. In Table 4-79, 14 percent of the males were in the health services, while 30 percent of the females were in that department. Most of the female respondents were in the nursing field. Another interesting finding was in the numbers of males and females in the physical sciences and technology. The larger number were males--24 percent, compared to 3 percent females.

Table 4-79.--Major teaching departments.

Department	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
College of Education	51	20	80	25
Social Sciences	59	23	72	22
Health Services	38	14	96	30
Arts and Letters	50	19	65	20
Physical Sciences and Technology	61	24	12	3
Total	259	44	325	56

Primary Academic (Professional)  
Responsibility

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference in the primary academic responsibility between men and women respondents.

Factor: Perceived Primary Academic Responsibility

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "What do you consider your primary academic responsibility?" The obtained chi-square of 40.85 with 36 degrees of freedom was not significant at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. In Table 4-80, 42 percent of the males and 51 percent of the females were teaching as their primary academic responsibility. In research only, there were 7 percent males and 10 percent females. Administration only included only 7 percent of the males and females.

Table 4-80.--Perceived primary academic responsibility.

Responsibility	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Teaching only	109	42	165	51
Research only	22	7	32	10
Administration only	19	7	23	7
Teaching and research	101	40	89	28
Teaching and administration	6	2	14	4
Research and administration	1	0	0	0
Total	258	44	323	56

### Summary

This chapter was designed to investigate the disparity between women in higher education administration and the career aspirations of women professors. Further investigation focused on whether factors such as culture, educational climate, personal perspectives, psychological aspects and the world of work have an influence on men and women professors in their aspirations for a position in administration in colleges and universities. In addition, the major teaching departments and perceived primary academic responsibilities of the respondents were also testable items.

Part I and Part II and the last two hypotheses in Part III of the questionnaire were analyzed through the use of the chi-square test of association. All of the hypotheses in Part III were analyzed through the use of the t-test of significance. The hypothesis test of significance was based at the .05 level for all tests.

A summary of the study, discussion, implications for education, and recommendations for future research are presented in Chapter V.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This chapter presents a review of the purpose, a summary of the procedures employed to collect the data, a summary and discussion of the research findings, conclusions, and recommendations for further research.

#### Summary

This study was conducted to determine any differences that might exist among men and women professors concerning their aspiration levels for a higher educational administrative position. The men and women responded to a questionnaire that focused on their aspiration for an administrative position, and certain factors that influence their advancement into higher educational administrative positions, namely, cultural, educational, personal, psychological, and the work environment.

The literature was reviewed in the seven major areas listed below:

1. Women in the Contemporary Work Force
2. The Status of Women Employed in Higher Education
3. Historical Perspectives on Women
4. History of Women in Higher Education
5. Social and Psychological Factors Perceived to Influence Women's Career Aspirations

6. Some Characteristics of Successful Women in Leadership Positions

7. A Similar Study

Nine hypotheses were considered in this study. They were the following:

1. There is no significant difference between men and women respondents and their aspirations to an administrative position in higher education.

2. There is no significant difference in the demographic characteristics between men and women respondents.

3. There is no significant difference in the cultural considerations between men and women respondents.

4. There is no significant difference in the educational factors between men and women respondents.

5. There is no significant difference in the personal perspectives between men and women respondents.

6. There is no significant difference in the psychological aspects between men and women respondents.

7. There is no significant difference in the world of work between men and women respondents.

8. There is no significant difference in the major teaching departments between men and women respondents.

9. There is no significant difference in the perceived primary academic responsibility between men and women respondents.

### Population Sample

A random sample of professors from the ranks of assistant, associate, and full were chosen from the main campuses of the Big Ten Conference institutions. To insure a large enough sample, 75 questionnaires were sent to men and 75 to women in the larger institutions, and 50 questionnaires for men and 50 for women in the smaller institutions.

### Instrument Employed

A structured questionnaire developed by Burleigh-Savage was critiqued by professors at Michigan State University to improve its quality. The questionnaire was divided into three parts. They included: Part I--levels of aspiration in higher education administration; Part II--demographic items; and Part III--factors related to cultural considerations, educational factors, personal perspective, psychological aspects, and the world of work. A Likert scale of five choices was used. An additional item in Part III asked for the major teaching department and primary academic responsibility.

With the cooperation of the research departments in each of these ten institutions, a cover letter, an endorsement note from the research directors, and a return self-addressed and self-stamped envelope were contained in the package to each respondent. Of the 1,300 questionnaires mailed, 594 usable questionnaires were returned.

### Findings

#### Part I of the Questionnaire: Perceived Aspiration Levels of Male and Female Professors for an Adminis- trative Position in Higher Education

1. Both males and females were unlikely to or would never apply for the chief academic officer position (76 percent men, 65 percent women). On the other hand, more women than men had already applied or would aspire to this position (25 percent men, 35 percent women). Women seemed to aspire to this position more than men, but the differences were not significant.

2. Both males and females were unlikely to apply or would never apply for the dean's position of a major college (75 percent men, 68 percent women). More women (35 percent) would aspire for this position than men (26 percent). Again, women would aspire to this position, and the differences were significant.

3. There was no significant difference between men and women respondents who aspired for the administrative vice-president position. Women (19 percent) more than men (12 percent) would aspire for this position, whereas men (87 percent) and women (81 percent) would be unlikely to or would never apply for this position.

4. There was no significant difference between men and women respondents who aspired for the position as college president. Eleven percent of the men and women would aspire for this position, while 89 percent would be unlikely to or would never apply for this position.

Part II of the Questionnaire:  
Descriptive Demographic Char-  
acteristics of Male and  
Female Professors

1. Thirty-six percent of the women were in the 30-39 age bracket, while there were only 28 percent of the men in this bracket. More men (37 percent) were over 50 years of age, whereas only 25 percent of the women were in this age bracket. There was a significant difference in the age of the men and women professors.

2. The only large difference in the sibling placement in the family was in the youngest-child category. Twenty-six percent of the men and 20 percent of the women were in this category. There was no significant difference in the sibling placement in the family between male and female professors.

3. The largest difference in the number of children in the family was found in the women. Fifty-two percent of the women and only 17 percent of the men had no children in the family. Sixty-one percent of the men had two to four children, whereas only 31 percent of the women were in this category. There was a significant difference between men and women professors in this demographic area.

4. The data on teaching level of professors showed that the largest number of assistant professors (20 percent men, 42 percent women) were women; on the other hand, the largest number of full professors were men (53 percent men, 25 percent women). There was a significant difference in the teaching level between men and women professors.



5. Most of the men and women professors were Caucasian. There was no significant difference between these two groups in the area of race.

6. The men professors had the most doctorates (89 percent men, 74 percent women), but women had larger percentages in all of the other levels of education. The data analysis showed a significant difference between men and women professors.

7. Most of the men professors had more than 15 years of experience (48 percent men, 32 percent women). In the two categories, 6-10 years and 11-15 years, 29 percent of the men and 43 percent of the women were included in these categories. The data analysis showed a significant difference in years of experience between the men and women professors.

8. There was great similarity between the men and women professors in the educational community in which they were teaching. The data analysis showed no significant difference between these two groups.

9. More women (41 percent) than men (20 percent) had not participated in any type of sports activity, while in team sports the men had been involved to a greater extent (20 percent men, 9 percent women). The differences in men and women in sports activity were significant.

10. All of the percentages for men and women professors in the category of their mother working were almost identical. The differences in men and women whose mothers worked during their growing years were not significant.



11. Most of the women professors had worked for a female administrator (37 percent men, 62 percent women), whereas most of the men professors had not (63 percent men, 38 percent women). There was a significant difference between men and women professors on this demographic item.

Part III of the Questionnaire:  
Perceived Multiple Factors That  
May Be Related to Administrative  
Aspirations of Men and Women

Cultural considerations.--There were significant differences between men and women professors on the following cultural consideration factors:

1. More men agreed or strongly agreed (22 percent men, 12 percent women) that women professors, for psychological and social reasons, are less effective administrators, but the largest percentage of women strongly disagreed (24 percent men, 51 percent women).

2. More men disagreed with the statement that women are better organizers (62 percent men, 38 percent women). Thirty-three percent of the women agreed that they are better organizers, whereas only 7 percent of the men agreed with this statement.

3. Although more men (43 percent men, 21 percent women) disagreed with the statement that women are not as dependable as they are, 72 percent of the women strongly disagreed and only 44 percent of the men strongly disagreed.

4. Women agreed that men know more than they do about how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators (41 percent

men, 65 percent women), while 38 percent of the men disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

There were no significant differences between men and women professors on the following cultural consideration statements:

My colleagues would react unfavorably if I became an administrator.

Women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently.

A male spouse would be threatened by a competent, career-oriented wife.

Women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men.

Women lack the drive to become administrators.

College women who attempt to compete with men usually do so at the expense of their popularity or social life.

In a given task, women are more likely to ask for help or rely on others in face of a threat than are men.

Educational factors.--There were significant differences between men and women professors on the following educational factors:

1. Women strongly disagreed (67 percent) with the statement that welcoming women as equals into the professional management levels may downgrade the teaching profession. Only 48 percent of the men strongly disagreed.

2. Most women (63 percent) agreed that female students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes. Only 39 percent of the men agreed with this statement.

3. Twenty-five percent of the women agreed that women administrators have less power to make decisions than men, while only 18 percent of the men agreed with this position. The larger percentage of men (64 percent) disagreed with this position than did the women (58 percent).

4. Most women (78 percent) did not think that they would feel more comfortable working for a male administrator than a female administrator.

5. Most women (80 percent) would feel uncomfortable in a higher education administration class of all males, as compared to 65 percent of the men.

6. Most women (40 percent) stated that a female administrator encouraged them to seek an administrative position, while 73 percent of the men did not have this experience.

7. More men (88 percent) stated that most administrators in their schooling process were males, while 75 percent of the women found this to be true.

8. More men (68 percent) than women (54 percent) stated that in their institution both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions, whereas more women than men disagreed with this statement (10 percent men, 23 percent women).

There were no significant differences between men and women professors on the following educational factors:

In my college career, most college courses were designed for male advancement.

Educational counseling enabled me to plan for advancement in my career.

Personal perspectives.--There were significant differences between men and women professors on the following personal perspectives:

1. Eighty-three percent of the women felt that a woman could be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time. Seventy-seven percent of the men agreed with this statement.

2. Most of the women (82 percent) did not feel that they had too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position, as opposed to 74 percent of the men.

3. Most of the men (82 percent) planned specifically for advancement in higher education administration, while only 71 percent of the women did so.

4. Most of the men (66 percent) agreed that what their spouse thinks about an administrative position would influence them. Only 50 percent of the women agreed.

5. Most of the men (69 percent) would be eager to move somewhere else to become an administrator, whereas only 51 percent of the women would make a move.

There were no significant differences between men and women professors on the following personal perspectives:

I feel I need to know a few administrators well in order to win their support for an administrative position.

My spouse would be upset if we had to move because I was selected as an administrator.

In my home, I was encouraged to get a college degree.

I have personally received encouragement from an administrator in my institution to apply for an administrative position.

I have a negative image of university/college administrators.

Psychological perspectives.--There were significant differences between men and women professors on the following psychological perspectives:

1. Most of the men (63 percent) were satisfied with their present employment and would not seek an administrative position, whereas 47 percent of the women were satisfied. Most of the women (36 percent) were not satisfied with their present employment, as opposed to 23 percent of the men.

2. Most of the women (83 percent) would feel confident in leadership positions, as opposed to 80 percent of the men.

3. Most of the women (48 percent) would be willing to further their education or training for an administrative position. Only 24 percent of the men would agree on further education.

4. Women (81 percent) did not feel that they had been in their present position too long to seek an administrative position, as opposed to 73 percent of the men.

5. Women (87 percent) stated that they like to delegate tasks and work with people, as opposed to 79 percent of the men.

6. Women (37 percent) felt that being an administrator would enhance their self-image, as opposed to 25 percent of the men. Fifty percent of the men and 36 percent of the women did not agree with this statement.

7. Men (51 percent) as opposed to women (37 percent) would rather not compete for an administrative position.

8. Men (61 percent) felt that administrators tend to become "out of touch" with the teaching environment, as opposed to women (50 percent).

There were no significant differences between men and women professors on the following psychological perspectives:

Administrators in my institution would react favorably if I became an administrator.

If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender.

Seeking an administrative position involves too much "politics."

The world of work.--There were significant differences between men and women on the following world-of-work concepts:

1. Most of the women (72 percent) did not feel that their present position provided too much security for them to seek an administrative position.

2. Most of the women (69 percent) felt that men advanced faster in administration with less experience simply because they were men. Forty-four percent of the men agreed with this statement.

3. Seventy-four percent of the women felt that the "white-male club" promoted men over women for positions in administration, while only 45 percent of the men agreed with this position.

4. Most of the men (79 percent) agreed that they are more often chosen for an administrative position than women.

5. Most of the men (86 percent) would not be willing to "go for broke" in their quest for a position in administration, which was also true of women (71 percent).



6. Most of the men (67 percent) felt that working with college students was more rewarding than administration. Only 47 percent of the women agreed with this position.

7. Most of the men (60 percent) did not agree that there was too much competition in trying to become an administrator, whereas 52 percent of the women took the same position.

There were no significant differences between men and women professors in the following world-of-work statements:

People who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles.

I see a position in higher education administration as attainable by me.

Being a successful administrator is easier for men than for women.

My university or college colleagues assisted me in seeking an administrative position.

Indication of major teaching department and primary academic responsibility of men and women professors.--

1. In the College of Education, there were 20 percent men and 25 percent women, whereas there was very little difference in the Social Sciences. A significant difference was found in the Health Services: 14 percent men and 30 percent women. A small difference was found in the Arts and Letters, but in the Physical Sciences and Technology there was a significant difference: 24 percent men and 3 percent women.

2. Most of the men and women professors were involved in teaching or teaching and research. Most women (51 percent) were in

teaching only, as opposed to 42 percent of the men. In teaching and research, 40 percent were men and 28 percent women.

### Conclusions

The results of the data analysis seem to point to the following factors:

1. Approximately 25 percent of the men and women sampled would aspire to administrative positions. The higher the level of the position, the lower the percentage of aspirants.
2. There was a greater percentage of female professors at the assistant-professor level, whereas there was a greater percentage of male professors at the full-professor level.
3. A significant number of women in comparison with men had no children in the family.
4. A small percentage of the male professors had the experience of working for a female administrator.
5. Women's aspiration levels tended to be somewhat higher than the men's.
6. Male professors tended to feel that women professors are less effective administrators.
7. Women seemed to lack the skill needed in seeking and obtaining opportunities to become administrators.
8. Women agreed that female students who never experience women in leadership roles are not likely to develop aspirations for administrative roles.

9. A significant number of women agreed that women administrators have less power to make decisions than men.

10. Most women stated that a female administrator had encouraged them to seek an administrative post.

11. Most women agreed that a woman could be a successful administrator and be happily married at the same time.

12. Only one-half of the women would move somewhere else to become an administrator.

13. One-third of the women professors were not satisfied with their present employment and would not seek an administrative position.

14. Most of the women professors would be willing to further their education or training for an administrative position.

15. One-third of the women would rather not compete for an administrative position.

16. Most women did not feel that their present position provided too much security for them to seek an administrative post.

17. Most women agreed that men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men.

18. Most women felt that the "white-male club" promotes men over women for positions in administration.

19. Most men agreed that they are more often chosen for an administrative position than women.

20. Most women would not be willing to "go for broke" in their quest for an administrative position.

21. Most women felt that working with college students is more rewarding than administration.

22. One-half of the women did not feel that there is too much competition in trying to become an administrator.

23. Most women were involved in teaching or teaching and research.

24. Men professors tended to have more seniority than women professors.

### Discussion

Eleven percent of the men and women in the study would aspire to the position of college president. Since the presidency is an extremely demanding administrative position, it is not surprising that more men and women professors did not aspire to such a position. It may be more logical to assume that those individuals who chose the professorship did so because the nature of responsibilities was attractive to them--responsibilities that, by nature, differ largely from those required in top administrative positions.

It is surprising that clearly one-third of the female professors would aspire to the position of chief academic officer and/or dean of a major college. By contrast, only one-fourth of the men would so aspire. Further, 83 percent of the women would feel competent in a leadership position. Women, however, saw men as attaining administrative positions more easily simply because they are men and have the benefits of the "white-male club." Twice as many women as men would be willing to further their education or training for an

administrative position. More men than women were satisfied with their present employment and would not seek an administrative position. Most of the men (67 percent) felt that working with college students was more rewarding than administration, but only half of the women gave the same response. In reference to the preceding three factors, there may be some indication that more men than women chose the professorship as opposed to desiring an administrative position; women may not have seen an administrative position as a realistic option.

In the area of homemaking responsibilities, 83 percent of the women respondents felt that a woman could be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time. Eighty-two percent did not feel they had too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position. And yet, 52 percent of the women as opposed to only 17 percent of the men had no children in the family. More than half of the female professionals in this study did not have the added responsibilities of child care.

Based on the review of the literature and on the finding that there are women professors who aspire to administrative positions, and based on the fact that in the world of work today, women in the administrative ranks of academic administration are relatively scarce in comparison with men, the following is recommended:

College and university departments providing graduate education in higher education administration should promote strong campaigns to attract women to enroll in the programs. At the same time, such departments should reevaluate graduate programs to assure they

are preparing administrators for the world of work today. Women, especially, need assistance with career advice, general business know-how, and more sophisticated training in human-relations skills, specific management skills, and accounting. It is essential that graduate programs in administration include training in technological literacy. Those who can understand the use of computers in the coming age of information will be those who have power. Administrative internships should become a part of graduate training for women, especially since many women entering administration today have not had the benefits of previous administrative-management exposure and experience. Administration is still a male-dominated field, and those women entering the field need all the preparation and confidence they can obtain. Discrimination aside, women must be competent in their field. Since academic administration is a nontraditional field for women and a field in which women lack role models, faculty should provide talented women with as much encouragement as possible. Although training is important, there is absolutely no substitute for academic credentials.

For those women professors who aspire for an administrative position and who have the appropriate academic credentials, there should be opportunities to gain both an internship experience and the necessary management skills through attending workshops, institutes, and so on. All of these activities should be sponsored by the institution without any salary loss to the women.

Furthermore, women professors who appear qualified, talented, and motivated should be encouraged to apply for administrative

positions and to pursue administrative careers. Aggressive action should be taken in this regard by both men and women serving in administrative positions. Women, in comparison to men, have fewer role models and mentors and might be less inclined to pursue an administrative position without this type of encouragement.

Finlay and Crossen found that the largest number of women are in lower-level administrative positions.<sup>1</sup> It seems that every effort should be made to move successful women administrators to more responsible positions. These women can be assisted by providing further insights into the job functions and responsibilities of these more responsible positions.

Men currently holding administrative positions as well as those men in faculty positions having responsibility for the graduate education for women may hold values, attitudes, and stereotypes that conflict with the concept of women as administrators. Many men have held positions during years when society was not promoting the idea of women for administrative positions. In the past, men worked with women who were primarily secretaries, administrative assistants, or perhaps administrators in typically women-dominated departments. Consciousness-raising efforts should be initiated or continued to make men more aware of the capabilities of women in administrative positions.

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<sup>1</sup>Cheryl Finlay and Patricia Crossen, "Women in Higher Education Administration: Status and Strategies," Administrator's Update 2 (Winter 1981) (Bethesda, Md.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 200 120, 1981).

Still another recommendation calls for women in administrative positions to form support groups within their respective institutions for the purpose of initiating programs that enable women aspiring to administrative positions to learn more about the opportunities available to them and to serve as a kind of "women's club." This group could also serve as an advisory group to the top administrators.

Women should become fully informed of the nature of discrimination and the subtle ways in which it is employed. At the same time, women should take the responsibility to educate themselves about the legal means to combat discrimination and the legal rights due them.

It is strongly advised and recommended that women aspiring to administrative careers accurately and realistically assess homemaking demands. The career woman who believes she can "do it all" and still have the time and energy to compete in a world in which men do not have these responsibilities is only naive. Such a career woman needs the unequivocal support of her spouse and needs to know the avenues she can use to enable her to relieve herself of homemaking tasks. Using day-care centers, housekeeping services, and, more important, sharing responsibilities with the spouse, are advocated.

If higher educational institutions are serious about cultivating and using female talent, it is recommended that progress continue in the area of permitting both parents to take leaves of absence for childbirth and child care. Flexible work schedules should be implemented to the greatest degree possible. It is further recommended



that quality day-care centers be provided on the campus or within the community if such facilities are not available.

Brown noted that in the world of business it takes 15 to 25 years to become a top executive.<sup>1</sup> Extensive experience and training are also essential for effective leadership within an educational institution. If educators are serious about including women in the top administrative ranks, it is important that actions such as those recommended above be taken to recruit and train talented women and to provide conditions that foster greater continuity in the work experience of present and future female educational leaders.

#### Comparison With the Burleigh-Savage Study

In a comparison of the Burleigh-Savage findings with those of this study it should be pointed out that the first study was limited to men and women professors from four of Michigan's public four-year universities, while this study included all institutions in the Big Ten Conference.

In both studies, a slightly higher percentage of women than men would aspire to become a chief academic officer, dean of a major college, or administrative vice-president. For the presidency of a college, more women than men would aspire for this position although the percentages were smaller in comparison to the other three positions. Apparently, both men and women do not aspire for the top position in the administrative hierarchy in colleges and universities.

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<sup>1</sup>Linda K. Brown, "Women and Business Management," Signs 5 (Winter 1979): 269.

In both studies, the following similarities were found in the demographic data: (1) A majority of the females were in the 39 age bracket or younger, while the majority of males were 40 years of age or older. (2) The largest number of assistant professors were females, and the largest number of full professors were males. (3) Male professors had the most doctorates and had spent more years in teaching than the female professors. (4) Most of the women professors had worked for a female administrator, whereas most of the men professors had not.

In Cultural Considerations, only five of the factors were tested for significance in the Burleigh-Savage study, while all of the factors were tested in this study. The results were identical except in one of the factors, i.e., "In a given task, women are more likely to ask for help or rely on others in face of a threat than are men." The Burleigh-Savage study found this factor to show a significant difference between men and women professors, while this study did not show a significant difference.

In Educational Factors, all of the factors tested in the Burleigh-Savage study and the present study were significant. These findings show that female professors and male professors differ in their perceptions on these factors. For example, in the factor, "I feel more comfortable working for a male administrator than a female administrator," most females did not feel that they would feel uncomfortable working for a female administrator, but this was not true of the male professors.

In Personal Perspectives, only five of the factors were tested in the Burleigh-Savage study. Three of these factors, namely, "In my home, I was encouraged to get a college degree," "I have personally received encouragement from an administrator in my institution to apply for an administrative position," and "I have a negative image of university college administrators," were not significant in both studies. In the Burleigh-Savage study, "I feel I need to know a few administrators well in order to win their support for an administrative position" was significantly different between female and male professors, while in the present study there was no significant difference. Opposing findings were found between the female and male respondents on the factor, "I have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position."

In Psychological Aspects, only four of the factors were tested for significance in the Burleigh-Savage study. Both studies showed a significant difference on the factor, "I have been in my present position too long to seek an administrative position now" and "I would rather not compete for an administrative position." Both studies did not reject the null hypothesis on the following factor: "If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender." In the Burleigh-Savage study, there was no significant difference on the factor, "I like delegating tasks and working with people," while in the present study there was a significant difference.

In World of Work, only five factors were tested for significance in the Burleigh-Savage study. Four of these factors had the same conclusions. Significance was found on these factors: "My

present position provided too much security for me to seek an administrative position," "Men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men," and "I am willing to 'go for broke' in my quest for a position in administration." There was no significant difference on the following factor: "People who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles." On the factor "There is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator," the Burleigh-Savage study concluded that there was no significant difference between the female and male respondents, but in the present study there was a significant difference.

Apparently, many of the factors were not tested in the Burleigh-Savage study, which made it difficult to provide a more comprehensive comparison between these studies.

### Suggestions for Further Research

Women in higher education who aspire to an administrative position raise many issues. These issues need to be studied in depth and, it is hoped, emerge with solutions to the many problems surrounding this particular topic. The following are suggestions for further research:

1. Replicate this study on a national basis because this problem is not limited to the Big Ten Conference schools. The Big Ten represents large-enrollment institutions, and a national study might present findings more in tune with a more representative group of colleges and universities.

2. Conduct case studies of successful women administrators to determine what factors enabled them to move up the administrative ladder.

3. Identify and study a particular institution that has a large number of women administrators to determine what policies were effective in bringing about this situation.

4. Another interesting study would be to examine in depth a number of women in one institution to determine whether they aspire to an administrative post. What factors are at play that provide them with the incentive to move into administration? Also, it would be helpful to determine why some women do not aspire to move into administration.

5. Study a well-defined internship program for women who aspire to an administrative position. What features in the program proved to be successful? What features in the program should be revised or dropped? Such a study would prove to be an excellent model for other institutions to emulate.

6. It is well known that many women move into an administrative post because of a mentor. Such a mentor would prove to be an interesting study to determine why he undertook to assist this woman in obtaining an administrative position, and what steps proved to be invaluable in a realization of an administrative position for the aspiring woman administrator.

## APPENDIX

## MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

OFFICE OF PLANNING AND BUDGETS  
ADMINISTRATION BUILDING

EAST LANSING • MICHIGAN • 48824

June 15, 1981

STUDY BETWEEN THE SCARCITY OF WOMEN IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATIVE  
POSITIONS AND THE MULTIPLE FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE THE CAREER ASPIR-  
ATIONS OF WOMEN PROFESSORS

MEMORANDUM

TO: Institutional Researchers in the Big Ten

FROM: Lynn Peltier *LP/jb*

SUBJECT: Request for a Sample of Faculty

Dr. Louis Romano, Professor of Administration and Higher Education at Michigan State University, is conducting a study of the relationships between the scarcity of women in higher education administrative positions and the multiple factors which influence the career aspirations of women professors at Big Ten institutions. The study will involve the use of a survey to be distributed to approximately 100 individuals at each institution. Attempts to utilize faculty and/or staff directories at each institution have proven to be extremely difficult. Would it be possible to prevail upon your resources to assist in the development of a list of 50 males and 50 females selected at random from the ranks of assistant, associate, and full professors? The name and department affiliation would be sufficient to provide a mailing address. Alternately, Professor Romano would be willing to work with an alphabetical list of individuals holding professorial rank including the additional variables of departmental affiliation and gender.

Funds to support this research are extremely limited and any information you might supply at minimum cost would be appreciated. If there is a charge for the service, please contact Professor Romano at area code 517, 353-5461, and inform him of the estimated cost before proceeding. Any assistance that you may provide will be appreciated.

LHP/jb

bc: Dr. Louis Romano

Dear Colleagues:

This letter is an invitation for you to participate in a study considering the factors that are important in aspiring to higher educational administrative positions. The study is being conducted to determine the relative difference, if any, in the administrative aspirations of men and women professors.

The purpose of the study is to obtain information upon which to assess the perceived lack of aspiration of women at the administrative levels of higher education. The questionnaire is easy to complete, and just a few minutes of your time will provide data that may help educators to assess the factors that influence a career for women in higher educational administration.

This survey will be valid only if you will give complete information. Your confidence will be honored. We pledge complete secrecy of individual responses. The results will be reported in statistical form only. No individuals or institutions will be identified.

Please answer the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the self-stamped addressed envelope. Your return will be very much appreciated.

The results should prove interesting. If you wish a review of the results when the study is completed, just let us know and we will be happy to oblige. Thank you for your time and interest.

Sincerely,

Louis Romano  
Professor

Jeanne Karr  
Project Co-director



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### ADMINISTRATIVE ASPIRATION QUESTIONNAIRE

**GENERAL DIRECTIONS:** This questionnaire is designed to obtain the opinions of professors of Big Ten universities concerning their administrative aspiration. Aspiration is a term used to describe the seeking after or actively applying for a particular level of educational administration. It is an important issue regarding equal employment opportunities for all administrative applicants.

What is wanted is your own point of view about each of the statements in Parts I, II, and III of the questionnaire. Part I indicates actual administrative positions: Part II simply seeks demographic data to aid in analyzing results obtained. Your answers will be kept strictly confidential and at no time will individuals be identified.

After reading each item in Part III, indicate the extent of agreement with your point of view on each item by encircling the appropriate response selected.

#### PART I

Answer each item under "Level of Aspiration" with an appropriate response from below. Numbers may be used as often as necessary.

- 1 -- I have already applied for this position.
- 2 -- I would aspire to this position.
- 3 -- It is unlikely that I would aspire to this position.
- 4 -- I would never apply for this position.

#### Level of Aspiration:

- 4 1. Chief Academic Officer \_\_\_\_\_
- 5 2. Dean of a Major College \_\_\_\_\_
- 6 3. Administrative Vice President \_\_\_\_\_
- 7 4. College President \_\_\_\_\_
- 8 5. Other \_\_\_\_\_ (Please specify)

#### Part II

#### Demographic Data

Answer each of the following questions:

- 9 1. What is your age?
  - ( ) 1. 20-29
  - ( ) 2. 30-39
  - ( ) 3. 40-50
  - ( ) 4. Over 50
- 10 2. What is your sex?
  - ( ) 1. Male
  - ( ) 2. Female
- 3. What is your sibling placement in your family?
  - ( ) 1. Youngest child
  - ( ) 2. Second youngest to middle
  - ( ) 3. Middle child
  - ( ) 4. Middle to second oldest
  - ( ) 5. Oldest child
  - ( ) 6. Only child

- 12 4. What is your marital status?  
☐ 1. Single  
☐ 2. Married  
☐ 3. Married with children  
☐ 4. Divorced/widowed with children  
☐ 5. Divorced/widowed without children  
☐ 6. Separated
- 13 5. How many children do you have?  
☐ 1. 0  
☐ 2. One  
☐ 3. Two-four  
☐ 4. Five or more
- 14 6. What is your present teaching level?  
☐ 1. Assistant professor  
☐ 2. Associate professor  
☐ 3. Full professor
- 15 7. What is your racial group?  
☐ 1. Native American  
☐ 2. Black  
☐ 3. Asian American  
☐ 4. Caucasian  
☐ 5. Hispanic  
☐ 6. American Indian  
☐ 7. Other
- 16 8. What level of education have you completed:  
☐ 1. Doctorate  
☐ 2. Graduate hours beyond Master's  
☐ 3. Master's degree  
☐ 4. Bachelor's degree
9. How many years have you been teaching? 17  
☐ 1. First year  
☐ 2. 1-5  
☐ 3. 6-10  
☐ 4. 11-15  
☐ 5. 15 or more
10. Identify the educational community in 18  
 which you are now teaching.  
☐ 1. Urban  
☐ 2. Suburban  
☐ 3. Rural
11. Did you actively participate in sports 19  
 as a youth?  
☐ 1. Team  
☐ 2. Individual  
☐ 3. Both team and individual  
☐ 4. Did not participate
12. How many years did your mother 20  
 work during your growing years?  
 Either full or part-time?  
☐ 1. 0  
☐ 2. 1-5  
☐ 3. 6-10  
☐ 4. All
13. Have you ever worked for a female 21  
 administrator?  
☐ 1. Yes  
☐ 2. No

## PART III

RATING SCALE: 1 -- Strongly Agree  
 2 -- Agree  
 3 -- Undecided  
 4 -- Disagree  
 5 -- Strong Disagree

DIRECTIONS: Encircle your response to each item.

Cultural Considerations		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
22	1. My colleagues would react unfavorably if I became an administrator.	1	2	3	4	5
23	2. For psychological and social reasons, men are more effective administrators than women.	1	2	3	4	5
24	3. Women are better organizers than men.	1	2	3	4	5
25	4. Women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently.	1	2	3	4	5
26	5. In a given task, women are more likely to ask for help or rely on others in face of a threat than are men.	1	2	3	4	5
27	6. In general, I consider women not as dependable as men because of women's biological and personal characteristics.	1	2	3	4	5
28	7. A male spouse would be threatened by a competent, career-oriented wife.	1	2	3	4	5
29	8. Women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men.	1	2	3	4	5
30	9. Men know more than women about how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators.	1	2	3	4	5
31	10. Women lack the drive to become administrators.	1	2	3	4	5
32	11. College women who attempt to compete with men usually do so at the expense of their popularity or social life.	1	2	3	4	5

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		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<b>Educational Factors</b>						
33	12. Welcoming women as equals into the professional management levels may tend to downgrade the teaching profession.	1	2	3	4	5
34	13. Female students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes	1	2	3	4	5
35	14. Women administrators have less power to make decisions than men.	1	2	3	4	5
36	15. I feel more comfortable working for a male administrator than a female administrator.	1	2	3	4	5
37	16. In my college career, most college courses were designed for male advancement and emphasis.	1	2	3	4	5
38	17. I would feel uncomfortable in a higher education administration class of all males.	1	2	3	4	5
39	18. Educational counseling enabled me to plan for advancement in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
40	19. There have been female administrators who have encouraged me to seek an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
41	20. Most administrators in my schooling process were male.	1	2	3	4	5
42	21. In our institution both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions.	1	2	3	4	5
<b>Personal Perspectives</b>						
43	22. A woman can be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time.	1	2	3	4	5

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		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
44	23. I feel I need to know a few administrators well in order to win their support for an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
45	24. I have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
46	25. My spouse would be upset if we had to move because I was selected as an administrators.	1	2	3	4	5
47	26. In my home, I was encouraged to get a college degree.	1	2	3	4	5
48	27. I have planned specifically for advancement in higher education administration.	1	2	3	4	5
49	28. What my spouse thinks about an administrative position has an influence on me.	1	2	3	4	5
50	29. I would be eager to become an administrator, even if I had to move somewhere else.	1	2	3	4	5
51	30. I have personally received encouragement from an administrator in my institution to apply for an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
52	31. I have a negative image of university/college administrators.	1	2	3	4	5
Psychological Aspects						
53	32. I am satisfied with my present employment and would not seek an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
54	33. I feel confident in most leadership positions.	1	2	3	4	5
55	34. I would be willing to further my education or training for an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
56	35. Administrators in my institution would react favorably if I became an administrator.	1	2	3	4	5



		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
57	36. I have been in my present position too long to seek an administrative position now.	1	2	3	4	5
58	37. I like delegating tasks and working with people.	1	2	3	4	5
59	38. Being an administrator would enhance my self image.	1	2	3	4	5
60	39. If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender.	1	2	3	4	5
61	40. I would rather not compete for an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
62	41. Administrators tend to become "out of touch" with the teaching environment.	1	2	3	4	5
63	42. Seeking an administrative position involves too much "politics."	1	2	3	4	5
The World of Work						
64	43. People who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles.	1	2	3	4	5
65	44. My present position provides too much security for me to seek an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
66	45. Men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men.	1	2	3	4	5
67	46. The "white-male club" promotes men over women for positions in administration.	1	2	3	4	5
68	47. I see a position in higher education administration as attainable by me.	1	2	3	4	5
69	48. Men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women.	1	2	3	4	5
70	49. I am willing to "go for broke" in my quest for a position in administration.	1	2	3	4	5

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72 51.

73 52.

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75-76 54.

77-78 55.

		Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
<sup>71</sup>	50. I consider that working with college students is more rewarding than administration.	1	2	3	4	5
<sup>72</sup>	51. There is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator.	1	2	3	4	5
<sup>73</sup>	52. Being a successful administrator is easier for men than for women.	1	2	3	4	5
<sup>74</sup>	53. My university or college colleagues assisted me in seeking an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5

<sup>75-76</sup>54. Please indicate your major teaching department.

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<sup>77-78</sup>55. What do you consider your primary academic (professional) responsibility?

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Thank you for your assistance in my efforts to improve higher education.  
Please return this form to:

Dept. of Administration and Higher Education Michigan State University Erickson Hall, Room 406 East Lansing, MI 48824
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