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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SCARCITY
OF WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS
AND THE MULTIPLE FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE
THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS OF WOMEN TEACHERS

By

Francine Fisher

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ABSTRACT

A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE SCARCITY OF WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS AND THE MULTIPLE FACTORS WHICH INFLUENCE THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS OF WOMEN TEACHERS

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This dissertation explores the influence on female teacher aspiration for administrative positions in U.S. public education, of attitude-shaping factors such as the contemporary culture, the educational climate, personal and psychological perspectives, and the general work environment. Since World War II, women have lost their previous position of dominance in the administration of public education. Although they currently constitute about two-thirds of the public school teaching force, women occupy less than one-sixth of the administrative positions. As a result, U.S. education is being deprived of a large percentage of the best leadership talent available to it. Discrimination and occupational sex-typing, two obvious causes for the small number of women in education administration, are being dealt with by strong and effective campaigns to give women equality under the law. The research of this dissertation, however, focused on a more subtle and difficult-to-correct restraint on women in education administration, namely the personal psychological inhibitions which keep women from seeking administrative jobs.

Methodology

A structured questionnaire was developed to gather and compare data from women and men teachers in Michigan school districts. Questionnaires were mailed to 800 teachers selected from the population. From the 359 responses which resulted, data were extracted and analyzed with the assistance of the Institute for Research on Teaching at Michigan State University. The instruments were punched on computer cards and analyzed using the chi square Test of Association.

Findings

Sixty-nine testable hypotheses were used on the questionnaire, 33 of which were rejected, indicating significant differences between men and women in their selection of multiple-choice possibilities. Among those subjects on which such differences were registered were: aspirations toward all levels of administration, i.e., elementary principalship, secondary principalship, central office, assistant superintendent, and superintendent. There were also significant differences between the men's and women's age level, number of children, teaching level, and number of years their mothers had worked. Clear differences between the sexes were expressed on: women's organizing ability, independence, dependability, effect on the status of the profession, and men's administrative ability and know-how in seeking administrative positions. There were differences too on working relationships between the sexes, the effect on female students of the scarcity of women administrators, and the influence

of early home life, later marriage and children. Differences surfaced on such subjects as attitudes toward sacrifices in behalf of professional advancement, morality of administrators, and the competitive edge which being a male provides to an aspirant.

Research Conclusions

Among the negative conclusions are: (a) Women's aspirations decrease as the responsibility of the job increases. (b) Only a very small percentage of women apply for administrative jobs. (c) Only a small percentage of teachers of either sex aspire. (d) Large percentages of both sexes are unwilling to either move or further their education for the sake of bettering their chances for an administrative position. (e) The potential for administration aspiration by female students is adversely affected by the scarcity of female administrators. (f) The virtual male monopoly on administrative positions and the perceived unfair odds of the competition intimidates women and inhibits their aspiration.

Among the more positive conclusions are: (a) Men's acceptance of women in the profession is increasing. (b) Women teachers are becoming more willing to accept other women in administration. (c) Men are becoming more willing to accept the idea that women can, at one and the same time, be successful both as mothers and administrators. (d) Women too are accepting the compatibility of family responsibilities and administrative success.

Eight recommendations are made for increasing the number of women in educational administration.

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To all of these persons and to the many women who have or will in the future seek leadership roles in education--with love and appreciation--the study and the degree are dedicated.

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CHAPTER I

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The success of the National Women's Conference in Houston during November, 1977, has made it abundantly clear that the political power needed to raise women from second-class citizenship to full social and economic equality is well within the grasp of the contemporary feminist. Although there were major divisions and controversy concerning the larger issues of ERA, abortion, and lesbian rights, a common denominator which solidly united all the conferees was the determination to end once and for all unequal treatment of women under the law. As a result of the strong campaign which the Conference has unleashed, businessmen and public officials who continue to be identified with a policy of too frequently rejecting women applicants for management positions will find themselves on the losing end of lawsuits. Courts will be empowered by tougher laws to impose both civil and criminal penalties on those who discriminate against women in personnel placement and promotion.¹

Many factors in their external environment which have long inhibited women from assuming leadership roles in U.S. society are

¹"What Next for U.S. Women," Time, December 5, 1977, p. 19. This cover story provides a colorful analysis of the Houston Conference.

on the wane. Inequality under the law may all but vanish in the next decade or two. Unfortunately, however, legislation, no matter how finely honed, will not necessarily strengthen the will of women to seek administrative positions. Although preliminary studies have indicated that there are many personal and psychological restraints which curb women's quest for administrative positions, much more research will be necessary to analyze these restraints, measure their impact, and determine what remedial measures can be taken to overcome them.

A rash of best-selling books are drawing conclusions about female attitudes which do not seem to be supported by what serious research has been done on the subject. John T. Molloy, for example, in his commercially successful The Woman's Dress for Success Book, writes: "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."² Michael Korda, in his best-selling Success, continues the theme: "An increasing number of women today are motivated to success and more and more of them are in fact succeeding."³ These glowing descriptions of modern women's transformation from the old stereotypes may well be creating an unjustified self-confidence among feminists which could cause them to concentrate their proven political strength exclusively in political action campaigns. In this

² John T. Molloy, The Woman's Dress for Success Book (Chicago: Follett Publishing Company, 1977), p. 19.

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

regard, it is noteworthy that although the National Plan of Action proposed at Houston could, if implemented, cost U.S. taxpayers in the billions of dollars, there was no publicized concern with funding research programs to identify and correct feminine attitudes about themselves which impede their progress toward economic and social equality. An enormous amount of money, time, and talent has been and will continue to be devoted to winning political rights for women and educating them to what these rights are. All of this effort will be futile if women choose not to exercise their rights.

The high optimism with which popular writers like Molloy and Korda are influencing the outlook of millions of Americans about contemporary women do not seem to be shared by more serious scholars. Jane Prather, for instance, writing in the American Behavioral Scientist in 1971,⁴ concludes that centuries of discrimination, which have perpetuated the "woman-servant" and "sex object" image, have modified modern women's desire for professional success. As a result, she writes, many women pursue one of the following courses: (1) do not prepare for a career at all, (2) acquire a college education not as a career preparation but as an "insurance policy" in case they cannot marry or the marriage fails, (3) prepare for a career but give up their profession when they marry. In the latter instance, according to Prather, women frequently do not continue their career

⁴Jane Prather, "Why Can't Women Be More Like Men: A Summary of the Sociopsychological Factors Hindering Women's Advancement in the Professions," American Behavioral Scientist 15 (November-December 1971): 172-83.

because they are convinced in their own minds that they cannot succeed in both marriage and a career: "Women perpetuate the self-fulfilling prophecy because they see few role models of women who have successfully achieved or managed a career combined with motherhood."⁵

Other writers such as Florence Howe⁶ support the Prather conclusion, and Gordon and Strober, in the very recent Bringing Women Into Management, carry the thesis one step further:

What is unique about the situation of women is that almost everyone is to blame, including women themselves who have joined the conspiracy by accepting the idea that they must monitor their ambitions and goals in terms of what everybody else expects of them, including their husbands, children, fathers or bosses.⁷

An unpublished Ph.D. dissertation by Lois Hart, moreover, points out that although about one of three women is employed in the U.S., only a small percentage is in management.⁸

Need for the Study

Based on the foregoing, there is a clear need for additional research on the relationship between the number of women in management and women's aspirations to be in management positions. It was in response to the need for such research that this dissertation was

⁵ Ibid., p. 179.

⁶ Florence Howe, "Sexism and the Aspirations of Women," Phi Delta Kappan, October 1973, p. 102.

⁷ Francine E. Gordon and Myra H. Strober, Bringing Women Into Management (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1977), pp. 17-18.

⁸ Lois Borland Hart, "Training Women to Become Effective Leaders" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1974), p. 1.

undertaken to explore the relationship between the scarcity of women in educational administrative positions and personal factors which influence career aspirations of women teachers. It is hoped that the dissertation's research provides at least a modest contribution toward spotlighting the effect which women's own ambitions--or lack of them--have on the problem of professional inequality. The field of educational administration on which the dissertation focuses is an appropriate one for study. The placement of women in educational administrative positions has, for whatever reason, been so limited that a diminution in the quality of U.S. public education administration can logically be assumed. There is strong support in research which will be cited below that U.S. education has urgent need to tap the administrative talents of women. Statistics compiled in one study in the early 1970s indicate that women constituted about two-thirds of the public school teaching force, yet occupied less than one-sixth of the administrative positions.⁹ The continued deprivation of U.S. children of the administrative talents of such a large percentage of trained educators is considered by many professional educators to be unconscionable.

Scholarly research has played a vital role in the long campaign for women's rights. Now, victory in that battle seems to be at hand, it is time for the universities to turn more of their attention to those attitudinal changes in women which may be necessary

⁹Catherine Dillon Lyon and Terry N. Saario, "Women in Public Education: Sexual Discrimination in Promotions," Phi Delta Kappan, October 1973, p. 120.

to the full exploitation of new opportunities. It is in conformity with such a trend that this dissertation was originally proposed.

It follows from the above that before the administrative talent of women teachers can be more widely employed in the contemporary education of our youth it is necessary to pin down the less obvious reasons why women, during the past century, lost control of the education of children. Although there are preliminary indications of these reasons, much more research is necessary to develop a logical plan to restore the talent and expertise of female educators to areas of educational administration where it is so desperately needed.

American education of children has traditionally been characterized as a "woman's field." Historically and culturally, women were viewed as able and willing to manage the organizational structure and environment of America's youth. Dame schools were the acceptable mode of formal learning for youth. Women were considered the educational leaders. Current statistics, however, reflect a change of command. Although women hold 67 percent of all public school teaching positions, they occupy less than 16 percent of the administrative positions.¹⁰

In a national survey conducted in 1970-71, only 15 percent of principals and .6 percent of superintendents were female. The women who were in administration were concentrated in the elementary schools. There were 19 percent of elementary principals and

¹⁰ Ibid.

34 percent of elementary assistant principals who were women. Even this percentage is changing. One study concluded in the 1960s that many retiring women elementary school principals were being replaced by men.¹¹ A young man recently out of college, with a few hours of administrative credit and a recommendation by the superintendent and the school board, is frequently selected for a principal position over better trained, more experienced women.¹²

A recent study expresses very well the unfortunate effects of the decline of female leadership opportunity in the schools.

This decline of women in administrative roles in education is a major concern for public education and for our society. It is of particular importance now, at a time when our society is involved in the reevaluation of traditional sex roles and the limitation placed by sex role stereotypes upon the opportunities of women and men to make maximum contributions to our society and to enjoy the full range of human experience.¹³

The effect of the scarcity of women in administrative roles reaches right into the classroom. Role modeling is being jeopardized. Female students who never experience women in a leadership capacity are unlikely to develop career aspirations beyond stereotyped female roles.¹⁴ In addition, women teachers themselves have a clear need

¹¹Norma Q. Hare, "The Vanishing Woman Principal," National Elementary Principal 45 (April 1966): 12.

¹²Ibid.

¹³Suzanne Howard, "Why Aren't Women Administering Our Schools?" National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1975, p. 1.

¹⁴Ibid.

to emulate successful female managers who have realized ambitions to excel in administrative careers:

Another urgent need is to provide role models for aspiring women, since there are few practitioners for them to observe and emulate. Models cannot be provided of course, until women are appointed to executive level positions in school districts, . . .¹⁵

If a woman sees positions formerly maintained by female leadership steadily become unbalanced by the dominant influx of men, a feeling of the impossible may prevail.

To the young woman teacher who harbors aspirations for a principalship, the preponderance of males in her administration class may lead her to wonder what her chances are of making a significant contribution to education as an elementary principal.¹⁶

U.S. education would clearly profit if better sexual balance in educational leadership were achieved. Competent leadership should not be wasted. School districts need to re-evaluate and tap evident sources of responsible administration, male and female. The root causes of the continuing obstruction to success by women achievers must be sought out by much research of the type done in conjunction with this dissertation. The consequence of failure to remedy the sexual imbalance in U.S. educational leadership is well described by one educator:

¹⁵Glenda Lee Landon, "Perceptions of Sex Role Stereotyping and Women Teachers' Administrative Career Aspirations" (Ph.D. dissertation, University of Wisconsin-Madison, 1975), p. 197.

¹⁶Clare Broadhead et al., "The Woman Principal, Going the Way of the Buffalo?" The National Elementary Principal 45 (April 1966): 6.

In the coming years, if education does not begin using the untapped leadership abilities of women, it seems that the results will be predictable. At a time when good and perhaps great leadership is needed in education, the pool of leadership development must be expanded to include women or we must all learn to live with the mediocrity which is certain to result from a restricted source of leadership talent.¹⁷

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this dissertation, then, is to investigate the relationship between the scarcity of women in educational administration and the administrative career aspirations of women teachers. It may be assumed that discrimination and sex-typing of occupations are two apparent causes for having so few women in administrative jobs. But investigation of less obvious factors is a worthy objective of intensive research. It is only through the employment of the results of such research that erroneous notions about feminine capabilities in administrative jobs can be countered. Is it, for example, that:

- . Women don't want the responsibility, or
it is assumed women don't want the responsibility?
- . Women can't handle the job, or
it is assumed women can't handle the job?
- . Women are too emotional, or
it is assumed women are too emotional?¹⁸

It is the stated purpose of the dissertation, therefore, to expand upon the research title and to explore whether or not multi-factors, such as culture, educational climate, personal perspectives,

¹⁷Charlene T. Dale, "Women Are Still Missing Persons in Administrative and Supervisory Jobs," Educational Leadership, November 1973, p. 125.

¹⁸Ibid., p. 123.

psychological aspects, and the world of work, may have an influence on women teachers in their aspirations for a position in educational administration.

Significance of the Study

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 educational institutions, it is of considerable significance to research in some depth factors that act to limit female opportunities in educational administration. Feminine acceptance of their limited role in educational leadership, as described below, 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.²⁰

Academic research must respond to the necessity of educating women to the connection between their awareness of the obstacle course leading to administrative hiring, and their aspirations toward administrative jobs. It is hoped that studies like this one may be significant if they gather data concerning the conditions under which more women are likely to aspire; the environments in which women are more apt to succeed in administration; and the pitfalls

²⁰Dale, "Women Are Still Missing Persons," p. 125.

which can be pointed out by women who have aspired to administrative roles and failed.²¹

Assumptions

This dissertation was based on two assumptions:

1. Women, in general, are as capable and trainable as their male counterparts of discharging the responsibilities of educational administrative positions.
2. Sex should not be a consideration in selecting qualified individuals for educational administrative positions.

Definition of Terms

Career Management Aspirations--Active and/or passive desire for a managerial position which is characterized by movement from one to another level in a hierarchy.²²

Educational Administrative Positions--Those educational positions designated as line positions of management. These would include: district superintendency, assistant superintendency, secondary principalship, elementary principalship, and central office staff personnel appointed in line of command.²³

Multiple Factors--Elements which may correctly or incorrectly influence career profession. They include: cultural

²¹Landon, "Perceptions of Sex Role Stereotyping," p. 193.

²²Robert J. Havighurst and Bernice L. Neugarten, Society and Education (Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1967), p. 484.

²³Landon, "Perceptions of Sex Role Stereotyping," p. 116.

considerations, educational factors, personal perspectives, psychological aspects, and the influence of the world of work.

Research Hypotheses

The research hypotheses of the dissertation are:

1. Is there a relationship between the sex of an individual and the intent of one to aspire for an educational administrative position?
2. Is there a relationship between the sex of an individual and the influence of demographic characteristics on one's aspiration for an educational administrative position?
3. Is there a relationship between the sex of an individual and the influence of cultural factors on one's aspiration for an educational administrative position?
4. Is there a relationship between the sex of an individual and influence of educational factors on one's aspiration for an educational administrative position?
5. Is there a relationship between the sex of an individual and influence of personal perspectives on one's aspiration for an educational administrative position?
6. Is there a relationship between the sex of an individual and the influence of psychological considerations on one's aspiration for an educational administrative position?
7. Is there a relationship between the sex of an individual and the impact of the world of work on one's aspiration for an educational administrative position?

Design of the Study

Population

The population of the study consisted of the men and women teachers in Groups II, IV, and VI of the Michigan School Districts

as defined by the Michigan Association of School Boards in Lansing, Michigan.²⁴

Sample

A systematic random sample was taken of 400 men and women teachers selected on the basis of every fifth name from a population of 4,226. The Michigan Education Association computed the sample and provided the mechanical labeling materials to be used in the survey.

Procedure

A structured questionnaire was designed based on the following: a review of pertinent literature pertaining to women's aspirations in educational administration; consultation with individual women teachers who demonstrated experiential knowledge of women's aspirations in education; and the advisement of trained personnel who had previously done formal and informal research on women in leadership positions.

The questionnaire was designed to determine those multiple factors which teachers perceive as barriers to obtaining educational administrative positions. At the suggestion of the writer's doctoral committee, male teachers were included in the questionnaire survey as a means of comparison and contrast with the indicated view of female teacher respondents. To this end, the questionnaire was

²⁴The Groups were selected from the four counties in Michigan around Michigan State University: Ingham County, Clinton County, Eaton County, and Shiawassee County.

mailed to men and women teachers by the dissertation writer in order to ensure as much validity and accuracy as possible in the procedural task.

Limitations of the Study

1. The data collected were based on one specific geographical location--The State of Michigan: school districts, Grouped II, IV, and VI, as defined by the Michigan Association of School Boards in Lansing, Michigan.

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

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

4. The descriptive nature of the study represents a limitation inasmuch as it only describes what is perceived to be true--not what is true.

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

Summary and Overview

The general purpose of Chapter I has been to briefly introduce the rationale for and implementation procedures of the study. Most of the material in this chapter will be expanded upon in later chapters. Concepts have been explained in this chapter on the

basis of preliminary research and resulting observations of the writer.

The thrust of this in-depth examination of the attitudes and opinions of men and women teachers, which is developed in later chapters, is to determine the need for professional educators to develop a broad plan of action that will more equally incorporate the services of women in the educational administration of public schools throughout the country.

Research questions and statements have been suggested dealing with the aspirations of women educators. The assumptions have been stated, the design of the study outlined, and the problem explained.

In Chapter II the literature related to the study will be explored. In Chapter III the procedures will be defined dealing with the basis for the selection of the population and the sample. Instrumentation and techniques of analysis will be reviewed and reported. Chapter IV will contain a summary of the statistical results. In Chapter V the study will be summarized, conclusions stated, and recommendations made.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE AND RELATED MATERIAL

Introduction

This chapter will be devoted to reviewing some of the literature and related material which is background to, or in other ways related to, the original research undertaken for purposes of this dissertation. A setting from the literature will be established in which to present the dissertation's research and its conclusions concerning the career aspirations of women teachers. Several subjects mentioned in Chapter I will be expanded upon. The following topics will be discussed:

1. Women in contemporary professions
2. Women in history
3. Women in education
4. Women in educational administration
5. Women and sex-bias in educational leadership
6. Women's aspiration in the education profession
7. Women's diminishing role in educational leadership

Women in the Contemporary Professions

When speaking of "the literature" associated with scholarly pursuits, one normally refers to the written presentation of the results of formal academic research. The evolution of the role of

women in contemporary professions, however, has so accelerated in the late 1970s that it is impossible for formal research to keep pace. As this chapter was being prepared, a front-page article in the New York Times provided a remarkable account of an instance in which the mask which normally conceals sex-bias in the professions was torn away in a most dramatic fashion.¹ As indicated in Chapter I, the woman of the late 1970s looks to the courts to secure those rights which she has won in law. If the allegations in the Times article are correct, it is ironic that the display of male bias against a professional woman was openly exhibited in a courtroom by an officer of the court, and apparently tolerated by the presiding judge. Because those events took place during a sensational murder trial, they were widely reported. This type of media reporting may reduce female aspirations to become lawyers. Because this dissertation deals with female aspirations in a related profession, it is appropriate to summarize the courtroom incident as a relevant case study.

In March 1978 former teacher Mrs. Sybil Moses, then a New Jersey prosecuting attorney, was found in contempt by the judge presiding over a case in which a doctor was accused of murdering five patients. The following day the prosecutor's office called on the judge to withdraw from the case. The Times seemed to support Mrs. Moses' contention that the judge harassed her, treating her as

¹ New York Times, April 3, 1978. All the information and quotations concerning the trial are taken from this article.

a novice while deferring to the defense attorney. The latter, Raymond Brown, a leading criminal lawyer, openly expressed to the press his low opinion and dislike of Mrs. Moses and women lawyers in general. Mrs. Moses charged that Brown taunted, insulted, and mocked her and was implicitly encouraged by the judge. The Times reported that once when Mrs. Moses was speaking, Brown "wiggled his hips in an effeminate gesture." Brown repeatedly in court proceedings referred disparagingly to the female prosecutor as a "school-teacher." He once interrupted her statement to the court with the sarcastic question: "Is school in session?" Brown also accused her in court of not knowing legal rules and improperly phrasing questions. Throughout the trial, the judge tended to lecture Mrs. Moses but not Brown. At a bench conference, the judge was overheard to say to Mrs. Moses: "We shouldn't have to teach you the basic rules here." The judge used Brown's name correctly from the outset of the trial but for weeks had trouble remembering Mrs. Moses' name. Occasionally the judge expressed anger when asked by Mrs. Moses to restrain Brown from interrupting her. At one point the judge snapped: "Don't you tell me what to do."

Despite Mrs. Moses' difficult situation, she told reporters that it helps a trial attorney to be a woman because people remember and relate to the few women who practice law in the courtroom. The newspaper article described the 38-year-old Mrs. Moses as wearing stylishly tailored clothes but being stiff in her movements. By way of contrast, Brown was said to wear baggy suits and to be relaxed and

confident. He was most forthcoming with reporters about his background. Brown, a 62-year-old black man, was born in poverty in Florida. He is frequently mistaken for white. His father, whom Brown admired, was an illiterate laborer who had no use for school. He "went to his grave at 87 clinging steadfastly to his illiteracy." Perhaps important in shaping Brown's attitude toward women--particularly professional women--was his father's belief that "reading was for women." Brown, who has been active in many civil-rights causes, is quick to inform people that he is black. It is pertinent to this study to note that a black attorney, who worked his way through college and law school and battled race-inspired prejudice, makes no secret according to press reports that he dislikes women in his profession. This should be far from encouraging to women who aspire to leadership roles in any profession, whether it be law or education. If those who have felt the lash of prejudice themselves are not in sympathy with women's campaign for equality under the law and in the legal profession, the modern feminist is fighting a lonely battle. If the alleged attitude of the 64-year-old judge in this case is typical, women cannot look for support to the conservative establishment either. The judge was educated in Ohio, a state with a reputation for conservatism. Like Mrs. Moses, he was a New Jersey assistant prosecutor for a time before becoming a judge in the early 1960s. He rejected the prosecution's request that he disqualify himself in this case and in the process was critical of the New York Times' reporting of his conduct.

Women in History

If women who are making current headlines are not faring well in the professional esteem of some men, neither are some of the famous women of history. Sidney Hook might be designated as representative of historical perspectives regarding women. In a study entitled The Hero in History, Hook indicates that the influence of one of the oldest of well-known women, Cleopatra, "has been enormously exaggerated and she herself has been the subject of romantic myths that are great poetry but poor history."² Hook, however, does attribute what influence Cleopatra did have, more to intellectual qualities than to sexual appeal:

Like most women who have played some role in history, Cleopatra's influence was achieved by influencing men. 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 upon face or figure.³

And again:

Cleopatra was not a great courtesan but a shrewd politician with overreaching ambitions, who fought a losing battle to preserve the independence of her empire. The preservation of her empire was the fixed principle of her policy, to which she showed a far greater constancy than to any of her royal lovers. She was willing to learn to love anybody who would save her dynasty.⁴

Although Hook gives a somewhat higher estimate of the influence on history of Theodora, he hedges his assessment by stating that she "at most must be regarded as a potentially event-making woman."⁵ He writes that despite her successful manipulations of

²Sidney Hook, The Hero in History (Boston: Beacon Press, 1943), p. 176.

³Ibid., p. 177.

⁴Ibid., p. 178.

⁵Ibid., p. 180.

the military, the politicians, two popes, and Emperor Justinian himself, the heresies Theodora championed made little permanent headway, she bankrupted the imperial treasury, and shared responsibility for the crumbling of Justinian's empire. As in the case of Cleopatra, Hook attributes Theodora's historical influence more to intelligence than to beauty:

In short, she showed herself the keenest statesman in the whole line of Byzantine rulers. As a woman she was attractive but her contemporaries thought her more graceful than beautiful and were more impressed by her spirit, intelligence and sharp wit.⁶

Only to Catherine II does Hook attribute high historical significance and even this distinction is grudgingly yielded, and modified with the statement: "It is difficult to evaluate her influence. . . ."⁷ Again, however, Hook acknowledges, as with the other two women, that Catherine's success was not due to feminine attractiveness but to her unique intelligence:

She was not beautiful enough to hold her own husband whom she deposed and murdered in order to clear the way for herself. And although she never denied the needs of her passionate nature, she did not allow any of her favorites to swerve her from her fixed policy. . . .⁸

In his account of these three women, Hook seems too much the revisionist. For some reasons he does not explain, he believes that positive influences are automatically of more historical significance than negative influences. His stress of the importance of intelligence over beauty of famous women leaders is a more important feature of his commentary. History is not devoid of women in the

⁶Ibid.

⁷Ibid., p. 181.

⁸Ibid., p. 152.

highest management roles. They won these positions, for the most part, by their intellectual qualities rather than by sexual appeal. This view is in contrast to one which downgrades female capabilities and promotes sex-bias against women in contemporary education. That the latter view is not uncommon, we shall shortly see confirmed by test results.

Women in Education

According to Taylor, women did not participate in the educational process during the beginning years of American schooling.⁹ Women were considered homemakers and outside careers were taboo. The first female involvement in the educational system took place in the seventeenth century in "dame school" where young boys were prepared for the standard village school. Actual male and female academies were not established until the late eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries.¹⁰

The "dame school" grew in support and popularity in Massachusetts between 1639 and 1680. Taylor reports that by 1682 Springfield, Massachusetts, contracted with a headmistress, "Goodwife Merrick," to support her educational endeavors which allowed girls to receive an education as well as boys:¹¹ "The girls learned to read, but usually were not taught to write because they might learn how to forge their future husband's signature."¹²

⁹Suzanne Taylor, "Women in Education," 51% Minority, Connecticut Conference on the Status of Women (National Education Association, 1972), pp. 61-68.

¹⁰Ibid., p. 61.

¹¹Ibid.

¹²Ibid.

The Civil War provided opportunity for women to fill positions in the classrooms as teachers mainly because the men went off to fight the war. As a result the demands for qualified women educators emerged:

But to do the same task as men, the women had to receive an equal education. From this point in time women made steady progress. By 1870 nearly two-thirds of all public school teachers were women and the careers of women educators blossomed up to the passage of the 19th Amendment in 1920 when they reached the plateau of their success.¹³

During the depression years of the late 1920s, the 1930s, and continuing through the years following World War, II, there was a decline in the involvement of women in education and specifically in educational administration. Statistics reveal that the percentage of women elementary principals to the total number declined between 1951 and 1962, from 56 percent to 37 percent.¹⁴ The decline in the percentage of women was no less dramatic at the level of secondary principals, school superintendents, and higher education administrators. Current studies disclose that the same type of administrative decline continues today. Taylor believes that these trends are rooted in certain historical aspects of women's education:

Although girls were permitted to attend the "dame schools," and the private venture schools, they were informed that intellectuality, politics and philosophy were not intended for them.¹⁵

What has come to be known as the Women's Rights Movement of 1792 supported the need for coeducational institutions. While female

¹³Ibid., p. 62.

¹⁴Ibid.

¹⁵Ibid.

academies were in vogue until 1850, the innovation of public high schools provided the optimum environment for equal education opportunities for women:

Despite the conflicting opinions about education and what education of women should be, by the 1880s the basic problem appeared to have been resolved. Most state universities admitted women on a par with men, and they were producing many outstanding women educators.¹⁶

The move for equal education for women, however, had many critics. Hiring practices involving women educators were influenced by such factors as: the appropriateness of women teachers for boys over ten years of age; teaching work as an alleged strain on the physical make-up of women; and the belief that women were out of their element in principalships.

Employment trends in the 1930s, 1940s, and 1950s provided some evidence that even women themselves questioned whether they belonged in the professions. In 1960, 11 percent of the professional work force was female, compared to 15 percent in 1930. Yet more women were attending college in 1960 than in 1930.¹⁷

Contemporary women are confused as to their status in the field of education. Psychologists and educational specialists cite a variety of causes for the vanishing woman educator. Among them are: personal attitude changes, consistent stereotyping, and conflict of roles. In 1890, nine-tenths of teachers were females, but by 1971 the percentage had been reduced to two-thirds.¹⁸ Taylor is pessimistic about the possibility of large numbers of women continuing

¹⁶Ibid., pp. 63-64.

¹⁷Ibid., p. 65.

¹⁸Ibid.

in education during the future. Women, therefore, may well lose their prominence in a profession in which they had developed great strength over the years: "The prognosis for women in education appears unfavorable. At this juncture women must unite and fight to protect even the status quo."¹⁹

Suzanne Howard examines in her research teaching as a "female occupation" and arrives at some interesting conclusions.²⁰ She maintains that not only the shortage of men during the Civil War, but the fact that women were anxious to get out of their homes and enter the professions, explained the willingness of women to work for half the wages of men. Howard submits that the gradual predominance gained by women in teaching "labeled" teaching as a low-status profession, and, indeed, by some a semi-profession.²¹ Her prognosis of a further decline in the percentage of women teachers attributes this reduction to an infiltration by men not only of the teaching profession but of other professions formerly dominated by women, as well:

Men are not only gradually infiltrating the teaching profession but other female occupations as well, e.g., nursing administration, social work, library science. However, while female occupations have become less segregative, or more open about including males, male occupations continue to be resistant to female entry. It may be argued that sex-typing of occupation gets in the way of finding the best qualified person for the job. What is needed to reduce sex-typing in education is not greater inducements to bring men into the

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 67.

²⁰ Suzanne Howard, "Why Aren't Women Administering Our Schools?" The Status of Women Public School Teachers and the Factors Hindering Their Promotion Into Administration (Arlington, Virginia: National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1975), pp. 1-23.

²¹ Ibid., p. 5.

profession (higher salaries) but rather a broadening of alternatives for women.²²

Whatever the reasons, the evidence is quite clear that women in education are statistically diminishing. Sexton comments:

The phenomenal growth of secondary and especially higher education greatly diminished the numerical dominance of women. In 1970, male teachers, including those in higher education, almost equalled the number of female teachers--1.2 million and 1.7 million respectively. In 1930, women teachers were almost four times as numerous as males--819,000 and 216,000 respectively.²³

Women in Educational Administration

As dramatic as the diminishing percentage of women in education is, it is overshadowed in significance by the very small percentage of women in educational administration positions. Tables 2.1 and 2.2 illustrate the imbalance of women in instructional staff work as compared with those in line and staff administrative positions. The obvious difficulties, as indicated by the tables below, which women encounter in being appointed as elementary principals, secondary principals, superintendents, and associate superintendents fully justify the concern of women about their place in the educational profession.

Several relevant studies of leadership in the field of education were conducted during the 1950s and 1960s. They revealed some interesting characteristics of women administrators.

²²Ibid.

²³Patricia Cayo Sexton, Women in Education (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1976), p. 15.

Table 2.1.--Percentage of women among all teachers in selected years.

	Elementary	Secondary	Elementary and Secondary
1957-58	87.2	49.6	73.2
1960-61	85.8	47.2	70.7
1963-64	85.5	46.1	68.9
1966-67	85.4	64.0	68.3
1970-71	84.7	45.9	67.2
1971-72	84.5	45.8	66.9

Source: Estimates of School Statistics, 1971-72, National Education Association, Research Report, 1971-73. Reprinted in Patricia Cayo Sexton, Women in Education (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1976), p. 15.

In 1955, Niles and Grobman wrote about three types of leadership.²⁴ The first is democratic leadership, which involves group policy making and individual creativity and initiative. This type of leadership provides two-way communication as a by-product. The second type is authoritarian leadership, which assigns decision making to the status leader and his inner circle. The third kind is called laissez-faire leadership. It is the least desirable and results in failures to assume leadership responsibility and/or take action. Niles and Grobman believed that through certain test situations, the leadership style of the administrator would emerge. In one study of men and women administrators in Florida, the women ranked significantly

²⁴ Kimball Niles and Hulda Gross Grobman, "Principals as Leaders," Nation's Schools 56 (October 1955): 75-77.

Table 2.2.--Estimated number and percent distribution of full-time public school professional employees, 1970-71, by sex (instructional staff and central office).

Position	Number of Persons			Percent Distribution		
	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
Instructional Staff:						
Teachers	2,034,581	667,751	1,366,830	100.0%	32.8%	67.2%
Principals:						
Elementary	40,453	32,605	7,848	100.0	80.6	19.4
Elementary-teaching principals	7,261	5,068	2,193	100.0	69.8	30.2
Junior-high	8,782	8,472	310	100.0	96.5	3.5
Senior-high	13,763	13,349	414	100.0	97.0	3.0
Total principals	70,259	59,494	10,765	100.0	84.7	15.3
Assistant principals:						
Elementary	5,119	3,388	1,731	100.0	66.2	33.8
Junior-high	6,777	6,022	755	100.0	88.9	11.1
Senior-high	11,403	10,383	1,020	100.0	91.1	8.9
Total assistant principals	23,299	19,793	3,506	100.0	85.0	15.0
Other instructional staff:						
Heads of departments	12,478	8,639	3,839	100.0	69.2	30.8
School librarians	30,757	2,658	28,099	100.0	8.6	91.4
Counselors	39,348	20,897	18,451	100.0	53.1	46.9
Social workers and/or visiting teachers	6,002	1,051	4,951	100.0	17.5	82.5
Psychologists and psychometrists	3,980	1,827	2,153	100.0	45.9	54.1
School nurses	15,639	126	15,513	100.0	0.8	99.2
Other or not stated	563	235	328	100.0	41.7	58.3
Total other instructional staff	18,767	35,433	73,334	100.0	32.6	67.4
Total instructional staff	2,236,906	782,471	1,454,435	100.0	35.0	65.0
Central Office Administrators:						
Superintendents	14,379	14,289	90	100.0	99.4	0.6
Deputy and associate superintendents	731	676	55	100.0	92.5	7.5
Assistant superintendents	4,402	4,276	126	100.0	97.1	2.9
Administrative assistants to the superintendent	2,345	1,989	356	100.0	84.8	15.2
Administrators for:						
General administration	10,414	5,398	4,016	100.0	51.8	48.2
Finance and school plant	6,980	6,390	590	100.0	91.5	8.5
Pupil personnel services	7,510	4,636	2,874	100.0	61.7	38.3
Instructional administration	10,881	5,846	5,035	100.0	53.7	46.3
Special subject areas	7,663	4,891	2,773	100.0	63.8	36.2
Total central-office administrators	65,306	48,391	16,915	100.0	74.1	25.9
Total full-time professional employees	2,302,212	830,862	1,471,350	100.0%	36.1%	63.9%

Source: Patricia Cayo Sexton, Women in Education (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa, 1976), pp. 16-17.

higher than the men as democratic principals.²⁵ To further test the hypothesis, Grobman and Hines conducted a similar study in Florida the following year.²⁶ The study involved test situations which included the schools, teachers, students, parents, and members of the communities in which the principals worked. The findings confirmed the previous search. Women were identified with the democratic leadership style more often than men.

Seawell and Canady's critical review added insights concerning women administrators provided in two relatively recent studies regarding women as elementary school principals.²⁷ The first study was conducted by the National Association of Elementary Principals in 1968. The second similar study was conducted in the Commonwealth of Virginia for the Virginia Association of Elementary School Principals. The authors note the following conclusions of the studies:²⁸

1. Both for the nation and for Virginia, women holding positions as elementary school principals were older than men principals.
2. Only 39.1 percent of men elementary school principals included in the study in Virginia reported the elementary principalship as their final professional goal. On the other hand, 71.6 percent of the women principals did list it as their final goal. The

²⁵Ibid., p. 75.

²⁶Hulda Gross Grobman and Vynce A. Hines, "What Makes a Good Principal," Bulletin of the National Association of Secondary Principals 40 (November 1956): 5-16.

²⁷William H. Seawell and Robert Lynn Canady, "Where Have All the Women Gone?" National Elementary Principal 53 (May-June 1974): 46-48.

²⁸Ibid., pp. 46-47.

authors indicate that most men consider the elementary principalship as a stepping stone to higher levels of educational management.

3. The Virginia study further revealed that 27 percent of the men reported had nine or fewer years of experience in education, compared to only 5.5 percent of the women. Further, 27.6 percent of the men had 20 or more years of experience, compared to 45 percent of the women. Again, men entered the elementary school principalship at an earlier age than did women.

4. In the Virginia study, male elementary principals had far less actual experience in teaching children of elementary school than female principals had.

5. Only 34.3 percent of the men had ten or more years of experience in the elementary principalship, compared to 47.9 percent of the women.

6. More than half of the men reported in the Virginia study had been in their present positions for three or fewer years. Only 16.7 percent of the men had been in their present positions for ten or more years. Conversely, only 36.2 percent of women had three or fewer years experience. Further, 32.9 percent of the women had ten or more years experience in the present position.

7. Concerning educational preparation, 10.4 percent of the men majored in secondary administration and 30.1 percent majored in general school administration. Only 2.8 percent of the men studied majored in elementary supervision and curriculum. On the other hand, 34.8 percent of the women majored in elementary school administration, 11.6 percent in elementary instruction, and 22.3 percent

in elementary curriculum and supervision. It was concluded that the women were better prepared for their specific positions.

8. The Virginia study also suggested that women principals devoted more time than did men to professional growth activities.

9. Seventy percent of all male elementary school principals were employed for a full 12 months, compared to 48.1 percent of the women.

10. Women principals in the Virginia study were more influential than their male counterparts in selecting instructional materials for their schools.

11. Women principals tended to work more cooperatively with faculty committees than male principals, who frequently dominated the selection of specific instructional methods used.

The research of the above studies analyzed certain perceived differences in performance, training, and experience between male and female leaders. It concluded that at the very least, women are equally as competent as males in the leadership areas of organization, human relations, experience, and curriculum mastery.

Seawell and Canady conclude:

From the data and observations presented, it is obvious that a large number of competent persons are being overlooked in the selection of elementary school principals. Two things are apparent: (1) women perform at least as well in the elementary school principalship as do men and (2) they are not being selected on the same basis as are men to fill these positions.²⁹

²⁹Ibid., p. 48.

Suzanne E. Ester reviewed studies conducted from 1964 to 1973.³⁰ They are similar to the Florida study, the Virginia study, and the study done by NAEP. She concurs with the implications for women:

The results support the notion that there are few significant differences in leader behavior of men and women principals. In general, women principals are perceived as slightly stronger, especially on people-oriented aspects of their jobs, such as working with students and representing staff. . . . In short these studies would indicate that the perceived effectiveness of women as leaders is certainly as high as the perceived effectiveness of their male counterparts, if not higher.³¹

Fishel and Pottker summarize the major behavioral and attitudinal studies regarding women principals from the early 1950s to 1975.³² They discuss findings in such areas as: instructional supervision, relations with students, relations with parents and community, general administration, teacher attitudes toward women principals, and attitudes of women principals toward their job. The results of the behavioral studies confirm earlier findings:

The behavioral studies clearly indicate that in terms of ability to supervise and administer a school and to maintain good relations with students and parents, the few women who have been able to obtain administrative positions have performed as capably as, if not more capably than, their male counterpart.³³

³⁰ Suzanne E. Ester, "Women as Leaders in Public Education," Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society 1 (Winter 1975): 363-86.

³¹ Ibid., p. 375.

³² Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "Performance of Women Principals: A Review of Behavioral and Attitudinal Studies," Journal of NAWDAC 3 (Spring 1975): 110-17.

³³ Ibid., p. 113.

It is significant to note in concluding this section that most studies of women administrators of necessity were conducted in the area of elementary principalships. This is clearly due to the dearth of women secondary principals and superintendents.

Women and Sex-Bias in Educational Leadership

It was established in the last section that of the total number of individuals in elementary and secondary school administration, women, despite their high degree of competence, experience, and training, constitute only a small percentage. It is appropriate to next review the primary reasons indicated by research why this is true.

The findings of attitudinal studies as summarized by Fishel and Pottker are enlightening:

The results from these attitudinal studies indicate that there is prejudice shown by most male teachers, school superintendents and school board members against women serving as principals. As a result, the criteria currently used to recruit and hire principals is not related to characteristics needed for effective performance as principal. Sex has been the determinant in appointment to principalships rather than ability.³⁴

Table 2.3 shows the percentage of elementary school principals who were women.

Until recently, legal redress against discriminatory practices and policies was difficult to obtain. Today new federal legislation makes legal recourse more practical. Title IX of the Educational Amendment Act of 1972, Executive Orders 11246 and 11375,

³⁴Ibid., p. 115.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, and the Equal Pay Act all require educational institutions receiving federal funds to avoid unequal treatment on the basis of sex.³⁵ The guidelines on sex discrimination issued by the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (1972), which enforces Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964, includes employees of public and private educational institutions. As a result, each school district is mandated to comply with EEOC guidelines.³⁶

Table 2.3.--Percent of elementary school principals who were women.

Year	Percent Women Principals
1928	55
1948	41
1958	38
1968	22
1971	21
1973	20

Source: Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "Performance of Women Principals: A Review of Behavioral and Attitudinal Studies," Journal of NAWDAC 3 (Spring 1975): 110.

The occupation of teaching is inexorably associated with the general trend of sex-typing in all occupations. As indicated earlier,

³⁵ Howard, "Why Aren't Women Administering Our Schools?" p. 11.

³⁶ Jacqueline Parker Clement, Sex Bias in School Leadership (Evanston, Illinois: Integrated Education Associates, 1975), p. 44.

men are not only infiltrating the teaching profession but other occupations traditionally associated with women as well, e.g., nursing, social work, library science.³⁷ Howard cites national statistics:

In the last 10 years the number of men teachers increased at a rate of 59 percent while women teachers increased only 37 percent. The most dramatic increase has been at the secondary level--a 67 percent increase in male teachers in the last decade. In the same period, the increase in the elementary schools was 39 percent.³⁸

Clement confirms this type of sex bias from a historical perspective:

Historically, sex discrimination at the elementary and secondary level has been an accepted mode of behavior. Dual pay schedules for men and women public school teachers have not been uncommon. Pregnant women are not allowed to teach in many systems. Until World War II married women were often disqualified from teaching. That boys and girls are subject to different treatment in schools has also been well documented. Sex-role stereotyping in terms of classes, programs and activities is accepted as a matter of course.³⁹

Howard elaborates further.⁴⁰ In the high school, mathematics background courses are generally taught by men, as are math, science and the social sciences. Women still predominate in teaching English and foreign languages. Vocational education as well as physical education still, for the most part, maintain separate instructional staffs. Men instruct boys; women instruct girls.

At the elementary and secondary levels, status and prestige are measured by the age of the children taught. High school teachers,

³⁷Howard, "Why Aren't Women Administering Our Schools?" p. 5.

³⁸Ibid.

³⁹Clement, Sex Bias in School Leadership, p. 27.

⁴⁰Howard, "Why Aren't Women Administering Our Schools?" pp. 6-7.

therefore, are usually somewhat higher on the educational social ladder than are elementary teachers. The "move" is usually "up" to secondary schools. The interesting fact is that men predominate at the secondary levels and hence a sex-ranking phenomenon is evident:

According to NEA, men have been concentrated at the high school level since 1957-58. About 2 out of 3 male teachers are in high school, and men are now a slight majority of the teaching population at that level. In 1972-73 women still made up 83.5 percent of the elementary teaching force.⁴¹

Another form that sex-bias takes is occupational stratification. Men become the superintendents or take over other prestigious positions. Most females in central office management occupy service or staff roles. Major responsibility is assigned to line supervisors, most of whom are men. The statistics on women at the superintendency level attest to the fact that "of an estimated total of 14,379 superintendents, only 90 are reported to be women."⁴²

Schmuck attributes sex-bias toward women as leaders in education to men as the manipulators of the profession:

Men always have held positions of control in our public schools. Even when women have held management positions, they have typically not been in authority either to give directions or to hire or fire subordinates. Men manage the schools and men are the gatekeepers to admit those who will hold management positions in schools. Men as gatekeepers to the profession--consciously and unconsciously, formally and informally--encourage males and discourage females from becoming administrators. Clearly, the control of our schools is structurally differentiated by sex.⁴³

⁴¹Ibid., p. 7.

⁴²Clement, Sex Bias in School Leadership, p. 5.

⁴³Patricia Ann Schmuck, Sex Differentiation in Public School Administration (Arlington, Virginia: National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1975), p. 86.

Schmuck uses psychological theories to explain male educators' resistance to women in school management. Men, she concludes, have a need to believe that women are inferior in ability because:

1. Society devalues women. Educators accept society's norms.
2. Men in education generally have a lower self-image because they are in what is considered to be a predominantly female field.
3. The typical personal life style of the male educational administrator is believed by men to be incompatible with society's view of what every woman's life style should be.⁴⁴

Educators are usually accepting of societal norms, and schools generally reflect the social order. Women are viewed as best suited to be homemakers, good wives, and mothers. Cultural confirmation of female stereotyping, Schmuck asserts, is still the popular norm. She writes: "Women who are in leadership positions in the schools belie the acceptable sex role norms for women."⁴⁵

Men generally strive to prove their own self-worth and prominence in their work world. Men in education have a difficult task in this regard because the profession does not compare with law, medicine, or business as a masculine field. As Schmuck remarks:

To share responsibility with women will be to share prestige with women. In our society, women as second class citizens detract--rather than add--to the prestige of the occupational position.⁴⁶

Men in an accepted "female" occupation must continually strive to validate their self-worth. This sometimes takes the form of unjustly disparaging women to elevate themselves.

⁴⁴Ibid., p. 102.

⁴⁵Ibid., p. 103.

⁴⁶Ibid., p. 105.

Finally, the typical life style of a woman in education does not conform to the general criterion which has been set as a standard for administrators by men. Male school administrators find it possible to make a full-time commitment to the job because of supportive wives and families. Since society views a woman's role as "helping" her husband and children, the woman administrator finds it difficult at best to ignore those responsibilities. The notion of women pursuing a career as well as "having" a husband and children seems to many people to be totally contradictory. Schmuck writes that, "In addition, the husbands of females who are administrators are viewed with some suspicion," for "what kind of man would 'allow his wife' to pursue such a masculine role?"⁴⁷ A career woman with definite ambitions and aspirations can often be a source of confusion for males who believe in commonly accepted sex role behavior.

From the foregoing, it seems logical to conclude that if sex-bias in education is to be eliminated, it must be the responsibility of the educational institutions themselves. It is at the institutional level that programs and policies must be initiated to end discriminatory employment practices. Educators, themselves, must be the leaders in the endeavor. Lyon and Saario list several recommendations concerning what can be done at the local, state, and national levels in order to eliminate sex-bias. Some suggestions for the local level are:

⁴⁷ Ibid., p. 106.

1. That school districts publicly identify and eliminate factors which promote discrimination against women in promotions to administrative positions. This should be an organizational priority.
2. That school boards actively seek female applicants for the superintendency and other administrative jobs when interviewing for these positions.
3. That school districts survey female personnel for interest in administrative positions and that professional career ladders leading to promotions be designed and implemented.⁴⁸

Women's Aspirations in the Education Profession

The commentary above regarding women in education generally, and women in administration specifically, emphasizes the lack of upward mobility of women teachers. One reason why women have been held back clearly is sex-bias, but there are others. Various studies have been conducted to assess one of these other reasons, namely the lack of motivation on the part of females themselves to become administrators. A number of reasons have been identified to account for lack of motivation.⁴⁹ Some are:

1. Fear of failure.
2. Inability to handle conflict.
3. Reluctance to accept policy-making roles.
4. Obvious bias against women applying.
5. Lack of encouragement to prepare for administrative positions.

⁴⁸Catherine Dillon Lyon and Terry N. Saario, "Women in Public Education: Sexual Discrimination in Promotions," Phi Delta Kappan 55 (October 1972): 122.

⁴⁹Katherine Van Nessem Goless, Women Administrators in Education (Washington, D.C.: National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, 1977), pp. 14-15.

6. Lack of assertiveness.
7. Little sponsorship by superiors.
8. Lack of encouragement from other females.
9. Lack of informal interaction with male peers which reinforces aspirations.

Although some research has attempted to isolate the factors which seem to inhibit female aspirations for administrative positions, three studies, one by McMillen, one by Dias, and one by Landon, provide evidence that there is need for considerably more investigation of the matter. Each of these studies is summarized below.

McMillen attempts to assess leadership aspirations of a number of women who were prospective teachers in the College of Education at the University of Florida. Questionnaires were distributed to 195 prospective women teachers.⁵⁰ These women were asked if they would be willing to assume an administrative position in education if given the opportunity. The study attempted to investigate the relationship between time spent preparing for a career and the desire to be an educational leader. Each subject was presented with seven different situations regarding accepting positions ranging from assistant principal to president of an education association. In addition, each woman was asked to describe her career option after marriage from the following possibilities:

1. No further work after marriage.
2. Work even if she has children.

⁵⁰Marvin R. McMillen, "Professional Leadership Aspirations of Prospective Women Teachers," Journal of SPATE 10 (March 1972): 63-70.

3. Work after rearing children.
4. On and off work periods.
5. Continued work with no intention of getting married.

The majority of women in the study anticipated utilizing their undergraduate degree after marriage. Few planned to end their career after having children. A majority of women expressed a desire to interrupt their career when children were born but to reenter the profession as children grew older. Most women anticipated obtaining a master's degree. Few planned to work for a doctorate. Regarding interest by the women in positions of leadership, as the level of responsibility which the job involved increased, aspiration for appointment to that job decreased. Assistant principalships, for example, were more desirable than principalships. A leadership role at a county level was more desirable than at a state or national level.⁵¹

McMillen's study answers some questions but raises many others:

Perhaps the greatest value of the present study is that it raises some interesting questions regarding leadership aspirations of prospective women teachers. Are they, indeed, less likely to accept a leadership role as the level of responsibility increases? Are they reticent to accept leadership roles in professional organizations? Are women who interrupt their careers less likely ultimately to accept school principalships if offered, than are women who work continuously? Further research regarding these questions appears warranted.⁵²

Dias in 1976 examined the influence of specific variables on teachers' level of aspiration for certain positions in educational

⁵¹ Ibid.

⁵² Ibid., p. 70.

administrations.⁵³ These factors were analyzed as a possible contributing cause of the scarcity of women in educational leadership positions. Questionnaires were completed by 342 male and female elementary and secondary teachers from four New England school systems. Data were obtained measuring: role preference, commitment to a career, commitment to teaching, expectancy of support systems, likelihood of recruitment, self-role relationship, achievement motivation, and aspiration level toward administration.

Analysis of the data revealed several important items. First, there was a ratio of 3.7 males to 1 female aspiring to positions at higher levels of administration. Although men scored significantly higher in the degree of aspiration toward administration, there is indication that a greater percentage of women than men aspire to these jobs in comparison to women's representation in the profession. The relationship of marital status to aspiration level was not significant in this study of teachers. Children, however, or future plans for children were significant. A relationship of position in the family to administration aspiration was also not confirmed by test results. Teaching level was more indicative of aspiration level for men than women, particularly at the elementary level. Role preference and time commitment to career were significant indicators of aspiration level. Commitment to teaching was also a factor. The interaction between achievement, motivation, and sex was significant

⁵³ Sally L. Diaz, "The Aspiration Levels of Women for Administrative Careers in Education: Predictive Factors and Implications for Effective Change" (paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association, San Francisco, April 19-23, 1976), pp. 1-70.

as well. The indication was a high correlation for women between motivation and aspiration level. Diaz offers this interpretation regarding achievement motivation:

Evidently there are women not avoiding success in a male-oriented profession as evidenced by aspiration level for all whom achievement motivation is a significant predictor of aspiration. Degree of achievement motivation was not a factor in determining level of aspiration for men. There was no significant correlation between these two variables for the male sample.⁵⁴

Generally speaking, the total findings indicate that women exhibit a lower level of administrative aspiration than men. Diaz attributes this to several factors, including:⁵⁵

1. Home-career conflict.
2. Lack of planning for attainment of higher degrees.
3. Lower support systems.
4. Lower self-concept for self-actualization.
5. Discrepancy between self and administrator role.

The study, however, pointed out that:

It is also evident, however, that the ratio of women exhibiting high aspirations levels toward administration is much higher than the ratio of women now represented in the administrative ranks.⁵⁶

It further indicates that:

Women teachers who aspire to administration are those high in achievement motivation (not true for men) indicating that there are highly motivated women in education who do aspire to the educational administration profession.⁵⁷

⁵⁴Ibid., p. 61.

⁵⁵Ibid., p. 65.

⁵⁶Ibid., p. 64.

⁵⁷Ibid.

Diaz concludes by suggesting to school personnel directors several methods of hiring and recruiting that would increase the number of capable women in educational administration.⁵⁸

Landon in her 1975 study attempted to establish the relationship between sex role stereotyping and women teachers' administrative careers.⁵⁹ Questionnaires were mailed to approximately 281 female secondary teachers employed full time in grades seven through twelve in Wisconsin public schools. The questionnaire contained:⁶⁰

1. A likelihood scale for rating a list of six administrative positions.
2. Nine subscale factors:
 - a. Confidence
 - b. Career satisfaction
 - c. Sex-biases
 - d. Advancement opportunities
 - e. Motivation
 - f. Staff relations
 - g. Sex typing
 - h. Socio-sexual ideologues
 - i. Family role influence

The findings have a relationship with the studies of McMillen and Diaz:

1. There was a significant negative relationship between career aspiration and actually seeking administrative positions.

⁵⁸Ibid., p. 64.

⁵⁹Glenda Lee Landon, "Perceptions of Sex Role Stereotyping and Women Teachers' Administrative Career Aspirations" (Ph.D. dissertation, The University of Wisconsin, 1975).

⁶⁰Ibid., p. 74.

2. There was a positive relationship between women teachers' career aspirations and the confidence and motivation factors.

3. There was no significant relationship between women's intent to seek administrative positions and sex typing, socio-sexual biases, family role ideologues, staff relations, occupational sex biases, and promotional opportunities.⁶¹

The Landon study further indicated that there was a significant negative relationship between career satisfaction and women's intent to seek secondary principalships, assistant secondary principalships, and central office positions. There was also a positive relationship between the confidence factor and the aspiration for department chairpersons. Finally, there was no significant relationship between aspiration levels for positions of secondary principalships and assistant principalships, department chairs, and central office positions and the following factors: motivation, sex-typing, social-sexual biases, family role influences, staff relations, sex biases, and promotional opportunities.⁶² Landon concludes the study with the following remarks:

Not only did the findings of the study suggest that women teachers in Wisconsin do not subscribe to many of the sex stereotyped notions about the role of women in society or in the organizational structure of the school system that have often been posited as the reason for their underrepresentation in educational administration, but they also revealed that there exists a substantial pool of women teachers who have expressed an intent to pursue careers in the field. These results have profound implication for further research and practice.⁶³

⁶¹Ibid., pp. 165-66.

⁶²Ibid.

⁶³Ibid., p. 190.

All three of the studies cited, indicate the apparent increase of awareness among women educators of educational administration possibilities. In fact, there seems to be conclusive evidence that more women teachers are expressing an intent to pursue an administrative career, the questions of discrimination and sex-bias notwithstanding. The dimension of women's administrative aspiration needs considerably more research:

Specifically, we need information about the number of women who have aspired to administrative roles and failed; the conditions under which more women are likely to aspire; the situation in which women are more likely to succeed, the dimensions of the range of success.⁶⁴

Women do become administrators whether by accident or by direct choice. The increasing evidence that more women are becoming interested in administrative positions demands that continued research be undertaken to provide guidance on how to obtain administrative positions and how to succeed in administrative roles.

Public and private funding of programs to assist women in their quest for administrative roles in education will come only after enough research is completed to support the need for them. The most forward-looking program designed to promote the interests of women aspirants toward and women occupants of administrative positions in education is a Ford Foundation funded project:

Probably the first national project to help women get and hold school superintendencies is training 75 women administrators in applying for positions and in developing self-confidence, job survival skills and management techniques. The project, sponsored by the American Association of School Administrations and funded by the Ford Foundation, will also

⁶⁴Clement, Sex Bias in School Leadership, p. 10.

provide support teams for four new women superintendents this year [1978] and four more next year. At present, 5 percent of superintendents and assistant superintendents are women.⁶⁵

The research undertaken in conjunction with this dissertation is in direct response to studies like those of McMillen, Diaz, and Landon, all three of whom independently arrived at the conclusion that further studies should be done on leadership aspirations of women teachers. Their investigations tend to indicate that there is a substantial number of women who are interested in becoming administrators. These aspirants need all the help they can get from research results which may provide effective guidance.

Women's Diminishing Role in Educational Leadership

"Where have all the women gone?" should, indeed, be a vital concern of our society if it really is interested in the best educational system it can obtain for its money. If a large percentage of highly qualified educators are systematically being eliminated from educational leadership in the United States, we can not possibly be promoting quality education. Fortunately, there is some concern about this subject. In 1966, Broodhead, Heald, Hecker, Leu, and Rudman undertook to organize a symposium at the request of the editor of The National Elementary Principal, on the problems of "The Woman Principal Going the Way of the Buffalo."⁶⁶ Concern for the

⁶⁵Today's Education 67 (February-March 1978): 8.

⁶⁶Clare Broodhead and others, "The Woman Principal--Going the Way of the Buffalo?" The Elementary Principal 45 (April 1966): 6-11.

steady influx of men into the educational field led the panel members to reflect on the plight of the aspiring woman administrator, who must compete for positions with a preponderance of males. The question of actual employment opportunities in administration was discussed at length:

There are today in the United States many bright capable women who aspire to the principalship and to other administrative positions in education. What opportunities does the woman enrolled in a university class in educational administration have when she completes a Master's degree program? Will the fact that she is a woman automatically eliminate her from consideration for administrative employment? What does reality tell her about the mathematical odds she faces?⁶⁷

The panel suggested that these women must make education a full-time career if they hope to be able to compete for administrative opportunity. It was the prognosis of the group in 1966 that the "elementary school principalship will, in the near future, become the exclusive fief of the male."⁶⁸ The epilogue of the discussion concluded that administrative behavior of an effective principal has no generic basis whatever. The final statement of this 1966 session predicted continued obstacles for women educators if the social conditions of 1966 did not change:

But the continued desire to mix professional careers with personal family responsibilities will hamper the woman as long as the social milieu of the United States continues to stress the fundamental role of the woman as mother, wife and companion--the essential ingredients of the social cement that keeps families together in our American Society.⁶⁹

In 1966, social role stereotyping was very much the accepted norm used to measure female performance. The perceived inability on

⁶⁷ Ibid., p. 11.

⁶⁸ Ibid.

⁶⁹ Ibid.

the part of women to harmonize career life with personal goals raised questions about the suitability of career women as marriage partners. Margaret Mead comments:

But the more successful a man is in his job, the more certain everyone is that he will make a desirable husband; the more successful a woman is, the more most people are afraid she may not be a successful wife.⁷⁰

And again:

Success for a woman means success in finding and keeping a husband. This is much more true than it was a generation ago, when men were supposed to do the seeking, and some women found their new freedom outside the home so intoxicating that they could abandon themselves to their work.⁷¹

In contrast to the general tone of the 1966 panel statements is an article written by John McLure just eight years later.⁷² His analysis of the decline in women administrators in education considered several other causes in addition to those already discussed.⁷³ They included:

1. Redistribution of school district size and population.
2. Disappearance of the position of dean of girls.
3. Attraction to education of larger numbers of males by larger salaries.
4. The greater appeal to men generally of the "executive image."

⁷⁰Margaret Mead, Male and Female (New York: William Morrow and Company, 1949), p. 324.

⁷¹Ibid.

⁷²John McLure, "The Case of the Vanishing Woman: Implications for the Preparation of Women in Educational Administration," UCEA Review 16 (September 1974): 6-9.

⁷³Ibid., p. 6.

More important than his analysis of the causes are McLure's recommendations to improve the ratio of women to men in educational administration.⁷⁴ Among them are:

1. Shattering the myths about the superiority of male over female administrators.
2. Developing women's aspirations to positions of leadership.
3. Building of female role models.
4. Improving the sponsorship system for women as administrators.
5. Increasing awareness of the problem with an emphasis on sex discrimination as an issue.
6. Providing appropriate administrative training models.
7. Revising instructional materials used in administrator preparation.
8. Helping women to see "the big picture" of career development.
9. Understanding and using legal tests.
10. Encouraging new research.

Summary

The purpose of this chapter was to substantiate from technical educational literature and related materials the assertions in Chapter I that there is need for further research on the career aspirations of women teachers. First discussed was a very recent newspaper case study which graphically illustrated the dilemma that

⁷⁴Ibid., pp. 7-9.

male prejudice poses for women in the professions in 1978. This story raised the question of the effect of widely disseminated accounts of sex-bias in the professions, on women's aspiration for a place in the leadership areas of the contemporary professions including education. Next considered were three historic female administrators, Cleopatra, Theodora, and Catherine II. An analysis of these ladies by a modern male commentator was examined. This study concluded through a none-too-clear analysis that the historic influence of the three women was limited. The author conceded a point, however, not always popularly accepted but relevant to this dissertation, namely that the sex of these famous women had little to do with their ascendancy to great power. He attributed their fame in each case much more to intellectual abilities which were superior to those of the famous men over whom they won dominance.

With an emphasis on statistical studies, the path of women through the history of education in the United States was traced from their first inroads into teaching in the eighteenth century to their virtual domination of the profession in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries, and finally through the precipitous diminution of female influence in U.S. education during the past four decades. The results of a considerable amount of significant testing in carefully executed studies were examined. They indicated that although women are at least equally as competent as males as educational administrators, men during recent years have been strongly aided by society's traditional discrimination against women

in the professions, in infiltrating and gaining almost total control of educational leadership positions.

Attention was then given to research conducted thus far on female aspiration to careers as educational administrators. The focus on this area of the literature was necessary because it directly leads to the rationale for the research undertaken in conjunction with this dissertation. Although some research indicates that woman's family role, particularly as a mother, does have some restraint on aspiration, and although aspiration seems to decrease as the level of job responsibility increases, the results also establish that there is a surprisingly large pool of highly motivated women in education, who do aspire to high administrative positions. Encouraging were results of research in Wisconsin which concluded that woman teachers do not subscribe to sex-stereotyped notions and their aspiration does not seem to be influenced by the fear of sex-bias.

The literature reviewed establishes the increase of awareness among women educators of educational administration possibilities. It also reveals concern by important segments of the education profession about the vanishing woman administrator. There is unanimity among the researchers on female aspiration that a great deal more research must be done in order to identify, find the cause of, and make recommendations to eliminate personal factors which negatively influence aspiration by women teachers to educational administrative positions. The succeeding chapters of this study will set forth this dissertation's response to the identified need for further testing of feminine aspirations.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

This chapter provides a description of the survey procedures and research methods used in conducting the study. The following specific areas will be described:

1. Type of study
2. Population and sampling method
3. Instrumentation
4. Collection of the data
5. Treatment of the data
6. Testable hypotheses
7. Statistical procedures

Type of Study

The main purpose of the study was to examine the career aspirations of women teachers for educational administrative positions. The specific areas of interest concern the cultural, educational, personal, psychological and the work environment factors that influence female teachers for advancement to educational management.

The study utilizes the descriptive method of research. Sax describes the goal of descriptive analysis:

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.¹

Comparisons were made among male and female teachers--each responding to the same questionnaire devised to indicate levels of administrative aspiration as well as degree and intensity of aspiration. The importance of descriptive studies provided the basis for this kind of problem analysis: "Descriptive research may also help point out the extent of a problem and indicate how serious and widespread it is."²

Population and Sampling Methods

The population used in the study consists of men and women teachers in Groups II, IV, and VI of Michigan School Districts as established by the Michigan Association of School Boards. The following list identifies the School District Groups within the organization:³

Group I --All intermediate districts

Group II --School districts with pupil membership 0-1,500

Group III--School districts with pupil membership 1,501-3,000

Group IV --School districts with pupil membership 3,001-7,500

Group V --School districts with pupil membership 7,501-15,000

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

²Ibid.

³Michigan Association of School Boards, Inc., By-Laws (Lansing: n.p., 1978), p. 2.

Group VI --School districts with pupil membership 15,001-100,000

Group VII--School districts with pupil membership over 100,000

Groups II, IV, and VI were selected for the study so that a representation of small, medium, and large districts would be definitely defined. Due to the geographic extent of the groupings, a limit was placed on the territory to be surveyed so as to control and organize the population into a measurable sample. It was rationalized that a population of small, medium, and large districts in the State of Michigan selected from a definite territory or by particular counties might well be predictive of other districts and counties in Michigan with the same size or nearly the same size student population, geographic location, and economic environment. To this end, the four counties around Michigan State University were selected as representative of school districts in Groups II, IV, and VI. The counties were: Shiawassee County, Eaton County, Clinton County, and Ingham County.

The district, classification, and active (retired teachers were not included) teacher enrollment of the above counties as of March, 1978, are shown on the following page.

The total active teacher population in these districts was 4,226.

The recent trend and interest in women teachers in administrative positions prompted the writer to contact the Michigan Education Association for implementation of the sampling procedure and to secure the names and addresses of teachers for surveying purposes.

Table 3.1.--Population of sample by district, group number, county, and teacher enrollment.

District	Group	County	Teacher Enrollment
Dansville	II	Ingham	55
Webberville	II	Ingham	45
Bath	II	Clinton	65
Fowler	II	Clinton	41
Pewamo-Westphalia	II	Clinton	47
Byron	II	Shiawassee	60
Laingsburg	II	Shiawassee	41
Morrice	II	Shiawassee	42
New Lathrop	II	Shiawassee	51
Bellevue	II	Eaton	65
Olivet	II	Eaton	65
Pottersville	II	Eaton	48
East Lansing	IV	Ingham	270
Mason	IV	Ingham	168
Okemos	IV	Ingham	175
Waverly	IV	Ingham	191
St. Johns	IV	Clinton	183
Durand	IV	Shiawassee	151
Owosso	IV	Shiawassee	225
Charlotte	IV	Eaton	176
Eaton Rapids	IV	Eaton	160
Grand Ledge	IV	Eaton	288
Holt	IV	Ingham	209
Lansing	VI	Ingham	1,505

It was decided to select every fifth name from the total population of 4,226 teachers. A sample of 800 names and addresses was secured and coded with a numerical order of 001 to 799 for mailing purposes. Two mailings were originally designed to be sent: The first 400 set of odd-numbered names would be sent as one group and a follow-up of the second 400 names of even numbers to be sent in order to balance a sparsity of reply in the first group. Such a procedure would eliminate a follow-up letter and yet secure a large enough sample for the study.

Instrumentation

The specific instrument used to gather the data necessary to fulfill the purposes of the study was a structured questionnaire developed by the researcher. The advantages of the questionnaire survey have been adequately summarized by Sax:

1. The major advantage of 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 mails in sending out the questionnaires means that a larger variety of persons can be contacted.⁴

The format of the questionnaire was of considerable importance. Claire Selltiz⁵ cites five ingredients of an answerable questionnaire:

⁴Sax, Empirical Foundations of Educational Research, pp. 214-15.

⁵Claire Selltiz et al., Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1967), pp. 237-41.

1. The questionnaire length
2. The attractiveness of the questionnaire
3. The ease with which the questionnaire can be completed and returned
4. Coding and quality printing
5. Offering the sample population an abstract of the study

These factors were taken into consideration as the instrument was being developed.

The questionnaire was based on topic areas considered to be important to the aspirational levels of women educators for administrative positions. A review of the literature pertaining to women in administrative roles and the paucity thereof was reviewed. From such a research framework, all possible questions relating to administrative aspirations were devised based further on interviews with men and women professionals who have attained administrative positions at various levels.

A multi-factor questionnaire with 207 items was formulated which encompassed 13 areas of inquiry: cultural, educational, personal, administrative task, career satisfaction, family life-style, sex-role attitudes, support systems, mobility, equal economic opportunity, social, economic, and psychological. This first draft questionnaire was then sent to all of the professional persons previously interviewed regarding suitable questions. Their task was to indicate only those items which would be most relevant to the study. From their responses an attempt was made to synthesize the 13 categories into 5 major factors: Cultural, Educational, Personal,

Psychological, and the World of Work. All 207 questions were listed under one of the major headings described. At this point, a team of professional men and women teachers from a large school district in Michigan received each of the 207 questions under each heading and selected by majority vote items most crucial for testing purposes. Their selections were then drawn into the second draft of the questionnaire, which consisted of the five major categories and the respective questions.

In order to establish face validity, the questionnaire was field tested at the Institute for Research on Teaching and their teacher collaborators at Michigan State University. Their answers, plus comments and editing, were carefully reviewed and analyzed. As a consequence, several questions were added, several were deleted, and several sentences were rephrased and ambiguous words were replaced. A final version of the questionnaire may be found in the appendix.

The revised instrument was reviewed with the Michigan State University Research Consultation Office and the writer's doctoral committee of professors. It was decided that the questionnaire was acceptable and that it should be developed into its final form.

An appropriate letter of explanation was developed to accompany the questionnaire. Each sample population received the same questionnaire during the week of April 7-14, 1978. A number coding on the outside of the return envelope was used to ensure the identification of the two groups.

The questionnaire was developed in three distinct parts:

Part I contained levels of aspiration in educational administration for which an appropriate response might be indicated:

1--I have already applied for this position.

2--I would aspire for this position.

3--It is unlikely that I would aspire for this position.

4--I would never apply for this position.

The administrative positions described were: elementary principal, secondary principal, central office staff, assistant superintendent, superintendent.

Part II contained 12 demographic items intended to indicate the various backgrounds among those sampled.

Part III contained the five major categories with selected questions for each:

Cultural Considerations--questions 1-11

Educational Factors --questions 12-21

Personal Perspectives --questions 22-31

Psychological Aspects --questions 32-42

The World of Work --questions 43-53

The Likert scale of five categories was used for response codes:

1--Strongly agree

2--Agree

3--Undecided

4--Disagree

5--Strongly disagree

Collection of the Data

The questionnaires were mailed to all members of the sample population on April 4, 1978, along with an appropriate letter and self-addressed, self-stamped envelope. (See Appendix.) The first mailing of 400 odd-numbered samples met with complications immediately, however, which eventually necessitated an attempted correction and a second entirely new mailing of the 400 even-numbered names.

At the first mailing of 400 odd-numbered names in the sample, the mailing company contracted to stamp and mail the questionnaires neglected to stamp the return self-addressed envelopes. The respondents were putting on their own stamp for reply mail. When the writer recognized the error, the mailing company attempted to correct the mistake with a letter of explanation concerning the error, and a new self-addressed, self-stamped envelope was sent to the original first 400 samples. The attempted correction did not successfully elicit sufficient returns, and therefore a new 400 sample of even-named teachers was mailed from the 800 names selected. This time the mailing was correctly maneuvered. A table listing the responses of each of the groups surveyed and the final total for the collectivity of the sample may be found on the following page.

Treatment of the Data

The responses to the questionnaires were appropriately coded and then key punched and verified by the Michigan State

University Computer Center. Number values were assigned to all items in Parts I, II, and III of the questionnaire.

Group	Number Sent	Number Returned	
		N	%
Odd-numbered names	400		
Volunteer returned envelope		107	27%
Self-addressed envelopes		46	12%
Even-numbered names	400	206	52%
Total	800	359	45%

Data analysis was accomplished using the chi square Test of Association.¹ The hypothesis test of significance was based on the .05 level with various degrees of freedom.

Testable Hypotheses

In order to ascertain whether significance existed among men and women teachers concerning their aspirations for an 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 Educational Administration

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position as an elementary principal.

¹ Items in Parts I, II, and III crossed with sex.

- Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position as a secondary principal.
- Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position on central office staff.
- Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position as assistant superintendent of schools.
- Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position as a superintendent of schools.

Part II: Demographic Data

- Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in the ages of the male and female respondents.
- Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the marital status of the male and female respondents.
- Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference between the male and female respondents and the number of children they have.
- Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference in the teaching level of the male and female respondents.
- Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference in the race of the male and female respondents.
- Hypothesis 11: There is no significant difference in the level of education of the male and female respondents.
- Hypothesis 12: There is no significant difference in the number of years teaching of the male and female respondents.
- Hypothesis 13: There is no significant difference in sibling placement in the family of the male and female respondents.
- Hypothesis 14: There is no significant difference in the educational community environment of the male and female respondents.

Hypothesis 15: There is no significant difference in the childhood sports participation of the male and female respondents.

Hypothesis 16: There is no significant difference in the number of working years of the mother of the male and female respondents.

Part III: Multiple Factors Which May Be Related to Administrative Aspirations

Cultural Considerations:

Hypothesis 17: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one's colleagues would react unfavorably if one became an administrator.

Hypothesis 18: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that men are more effective administrators than women for psychological and social reasons.

Hypothesis 19: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women are better organizers than men.

Hypothesis 20: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently.

Hypothesis 21: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that in a given task, women are more likely to ask for help, or rely on others in the face of a threat, than are men.

Hypothesis 22: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that generally women are not as dependable as men because of their biological and personal characteristics.

Hypothesis 23: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that a male spouse would be threatened by a competent, career-oriented wife.

- Hypothesis 24: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men.
- Hypothesis 25: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that men know more than women about how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators.
- Hypothesis 26: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women lack the drive to become administrators.
- Hypothesis 27: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that college women who attempt to compete with men usually do so at the expense of their popularity or social life.

Educational Factors:

- Hypothesis 28: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that welcoming women as equals into the professional management levels may tend to downgrade the teaching profession.
- Hypothesis 29: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes.
- Hypothesis 30: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women administrators have less power to make decisions than men.
- Hypothesis 31: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that it is more desirable to work for a male administrator than a female administrator.
- Hypothesis 32: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that most college courses are designed for male advancement and emphasis.

- Hypothesis 33: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one would feel uncomfortable in an educational administration class of all males.
- Hypothesis 34: There is no sex difference in the responses to the question that educational counseling enabled one to plan for advancement in a career.
- Hypothesis 35: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether female administrators have been encouraged in the aspiration for an administrative position.
- Hypothesis 36: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether most administrators in the schooling process were male.
- Hypothesis 37: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether, in a given district, both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions.

Personal Perspectives:

- Hypothesis 38: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether a woman can be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time.
- Hypothesis 39: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one needs to know a few administrators well in order to win their support for an administrative position.
- Hypothesis 40: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one may have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position.
- Hypothesis 41: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that a spouse would be upset if one had to move as a result of becoming an administrator.
- Hypothesis 42: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one's parents encouraged receiving a college degree.

- Hypothesis 43: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one planned specifically for advancement in educational administration.
- Hypothesis 44: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that what a spouse thinks about an administrative position has influence on the individual.
- Hypothesis 45: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one would be eager to become an administrator, even if moving were necessary.
- Hypothesis 46: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one personally received encouragement from the building administrator to apply for an administrative position.
- Hypothesis 47: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one has a negative image of school administrators.

Psychological Aspects:

- Hypothesis 48: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one is satisfied with present employment and would not seek an administrative position.
- Hypothesis 49: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one feels confident in most leadership positions.
- Hypothesis 50: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one would be willing to further one's education for an administrative position.
- Hypothesis 51: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether administrators in one's district would react favorably if one became an administrator.
- Hypothesis 52: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one has been in one's present position too long to seek an administrative position.

- Hypothesis 53: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one likes delegating tasks and working with people.
- Hypothesis 54: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that being an administrator would increase one's self-image.
- Hypothesis 55: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that if one applied for an administrative position, one might be a top contender.
- Hypothesis 56: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one would rather not compete for an administrative position.
- Hypothesis 57: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether administrators tend to become "out of touch" with the teaching environment.
- Hypothesis 58: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that seeking an administrative position involves too much "politics."

The World of Work

- Hypothesis 59: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that people who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles.
- Hypothesis 60: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one's present position provides too much security for one to seek an administrative position.
- Hypothesis 61: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men.
- Hypothesis 62: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that the "white male club" promotes men over women for positions in administration.

- Hypothesis 63: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one sees a position in educational administration as attainable.
- Hypothesis 64: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women.
- Hypothesis 65: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one is willing to "go for broke" in the quest for a position in administration.
- Hypothesis 66: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one considers working with children more rewarding than administration.
- Hypothesis 67: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether there is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator.
- Hypothesis 68: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether being a successful administrator is easier for men than for women.
- Hypothesis 69: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether university or college professors were helpful in seeking an administrative position.

Statistical Procedures

The Institute for Research on Teaching in the College of Education at Michigan State University assisted in recommending appropriate statistical techniques for data analysis. A staff consultant from the College of Education assisted in writing all computer programs for the data analysis. The computer programs and facilities of the Michigan State University Computer Center were used.

The statistical procedures used in the analysis of data are:

1. The chi square Test of Association.
2. The hypothesis test of significance was based on the .05 level, with various degrees of freedom.

Summary

This chapter has 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 traced, along with a description of the various parts which comprised the format of the final instrument. The procedures used to collect the data and the treatment of the data were presented. The testable hypotheses were reviewed and the statistical procedures used in the analysis of the data were discussed.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Introduction

The main purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the scarcity of women in educational administration and the administrative career aspirations of women teachers. This was done by examining and comparing the aspirations of both men and women teachers for a position in educational administration. The educational positions tested for intent were line-administrative positions within school districts. The factors considered as important influences of administrative aspirations were: cultural considerations, educational factors, personal perspectives, psychological aspects, and the world of work.

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

1. Restates each of the original hypotheses of the study and provides appropriate data and explanation for each.
2. Restates and analyzes the original hypotheses chronologically according to Parts I, II, and III of the questionnaire.

The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

Perceived Aspiration Levels of Men and Women
Teachers for an Administrative Position--
Part I of the Questionnaire

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position as an elementary principal.

This hypothesis was tested using response patterns indicating an intent to become an elementary principal. The obtained chi square of 18.99 with 3 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.1, 12 percent of the men have applied for this position and only 1 percent of the women. However, 13 percent of the men would aspire for an elementary principalship, as would 20 percent of the women.

Table 4.1.--Elementary principal.

	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
I have already applied for this position	11	12	3	1
I would aspire for this position	12	13	46	20
It is unlikely that I would aspire for this position	35	37	89	38
I would never apply for this position	36	38	96	41
Total	94	29	234	71

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position as a secondary principal.

This hypothesis was tested using response patterns indicating an intent to become a secondary school principal. The obtained chi

square of 29.76 with 3 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.2, 5 percent of the men have applied for this position and no women applied at all. Of the male respondents, 16 percent would aspire to secondary principal and 9 percent of the females.

Table 4.2.--Secondary principal.

	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
I have already applied for this position	5	5	0	0
I would aspire for this position	15	16	20	9
It is unlikely that I would aspire for this position	34	36	45	20
I would never apply for this position	40	43	157	71
Total	94	30	222	70

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position on central office staff.

This hypothesis was tested using response patterns indicating an intent to hold an administrative position in central office. The obtained chi square of 13.79 with 3 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.3, 6 percent of the men applied for such a position and no women applied at all. However, 27 percent of the men would aspire to central office positions and 20 percent of the women.

Table 4.3.--Central office.

	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
I have already applied for this position	6	6	1	0
I would aspire for this position	26	27	45	20
It is unlikely that I would aspire for this position	28	30	71	32
I would never apply for this position	35	37	106	48
Total	95	30	223	70

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position as assistant superintendent of schools.

This hypothesis was tested using response patterns indicating an intent to become an assistant superintendent of schools. The obtained chi square of 14.49 with 3 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.4, 2 percent of the men applied for such a position and no women applied at all. Of the male respondents, 14 percent would aspire to assistant superintendent, but only 7 percent of the females.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between men and women teachers and their aspiration for a position as a superintendent of schools.

This hypothesis was tested using response patterns indicating an intent to become a superintendent of schools. The obtained chi square of 21.13 with two degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.5, none

of the men or women applied for this position. Aspiration level reveals 12 percent of the men are interested in applying but only 2 percent of the women.

Table 4.4.--Assistant superintendent.

	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
I have already applied for this position	2	2	0	0
I would aspire for this position	13	14	15	7
It is unlikely that I would aspire for this position	25	27	34	16
I would never apply for this position	52	57	170	77
Total	92	29	220	70

Table 4.5.--Superintendent.

	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
I have already applied for this position	0	0	0	0
I would aspire for this position	11	12	5	2
It is unlikely that I would aspire for this position	23	25	29	13
I would never apply for this position	58	63	186	85
Total	92	30	220	70

Table 4.6 summarizes the data regarding administrative intent between men and women respondents.

Table 4.6.--Results of tests looking for significant differences between males and females on intent to become an administrator.

Administrative Position	Test of Null Hypothesis
Elementary principal	R ^a
Secondary principal	R
Central office	R
Assistant superintendent	R
Superintendent	R

^aR = rejected.

Determined Demographic Characteristics
of Men and Women Respondents--
Part II of the Questionnaire

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference in the ages of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "What is your age?" The obtained chi square of 10.16 with 3 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.7, 74 percent of the males were ages 20 to 39, whereas 64 percent of the women were in that age bracket.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference in the marital status of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "What is your marital status?" The obtained chi square of 3.71 with 5 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no

differences in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The majority of both men and women were married or married with children.

Table 4.7.--What is your age?

Age	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
20-29	25	23	76	30
30-39	54	51	85	34
40-50	19	18	50	20
Over 50	9	8	41	16
Total	107	30	252	70

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference between the male and female respondents and the number of children they have.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "How many children do you have?" The obtained chi square of 8.25 with 3 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.8, 36 percent of the men had no children and 40 percent of the women. Of those respondents with children, 55 percent of the men had from two to four and 41 percent of the women had that number of children.

Table 4.8.--How many children do you have?

Number of Children	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
None	38	36	100	40
One	8	8	37	15
Two-four	58	55	102	41
Five or more	2	2	12	5
Total	105	30	251	70

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference in the teaching level of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "What is your present teaching level?" The obtained chi square of 55.14 with 5 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.9, 28 percent of the men teach pre-school to grade six and 59 percent of the women. At high school level, on the other hand, 45 percent were men and only 19 percent women.

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference in the race of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "What is your racial group?" The obtained chi square of 5.34 with 5 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no differences in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The majority of men and women respondents were Caucasian.

Table 4.9.--What is your present teaching level?

Teaching Level	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Pre-school	0	0	9	4
K-3	6	6	88	35
4-6	24	22	49	20
7-9	28	26	42	17
10-12	48	45	48	19
Other	1	9	15	6
Total	107	30	251	70

Hypothesis 11: There is no significant difference in the level of education of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "What level of education have you completed?" The obtained chi square of 6.76 with 3 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no differences in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Men and women respondents grouped evenly in the four listed categories.

Hypothesis 12: There is no significant difference in the number of years teaching of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "How many years have you been teaching?" The obtained chi square of 7.34 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no differences in the responses of men and women.

Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Men and women respondents grouped evenly in the four listed categories.

Hypothesis 13: There is no significant difference in sibling placement in the family of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the question: "What was your sibling placement in your family?" The obtained chi square of 5.56 with 5 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in responses of men and women teachers. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Men and women respondents grouped evenly in the four listed categories.

Hypothesis 14: There is no significant difference in the educational community environment of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the statement: "Identify the educational community in which you are now teaching." The obtained chi square of .38 with 2 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no differences in responses of men and women teachers. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Men and women respondents grouped evenly in the four listed categories.

Hypothesis 15: There is no significant difference in the childhood sports participation of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "Did you actively participate in sports as a youth?" The obtained chi square of 16.95 with 3 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.10,

48 percent of the men participated in both team and individual sports and 32 percent of the women. Of those who did not participate in any sports, 17 percent were men and 37 percent were women.

Table 4.10.--Did you actively participate in sports as a youth?

Type of Participation	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Team	25	24	43	17
Individual	12	11	34	13
Both team and individual	51	48	81	32
Did not participate	18	17	94	37
Total	106	30	252	70

Hypothesis 16: There is no significant difference in the number of working years of the mother of the male and female respondents.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following question: "How many years did your mother work during your growing years? Either full or part time." The obtained chi square of 10.81 with 3 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.11, 37 percent of the men and 54 percent of the women indicated their mothers did not work at all. Of the respondents whose mothers worked from six years to all the time, 44 percent were male and 32 percent were female.

Table 4.12 summarizes the data regarding demographic characteristics of men and women respondents.

Table 4.11.--How many years did your mother work during your growing years? Either full or part time.

Number of Years	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
0	40	37	136	54
1-5	20	19	36	14
6-10	23	22	49	20
All	24	22	30	12
Total	107	30	251	70

Table 4.12.--Results of tests looking for significant differences between males and females on the demographic variable.

Question	Test of Null Hypothesis
What is your age?	R ^a
What is your marital status?	NR ^a
How many children do you have?	R
What is your present teaching level?	R
What is your racial group?	NR
What level of education have you completed?	NR
How many years have you been teaching?	NR
What was your sibling placement in your family?	NR
Identify the educational community in which you are now teaching.	NR
Did you actively participate in sports as a youth?	R
How many years did your mother work during your growing years? Either full or part time.	R

^aR = rejected; NR = not rejected.

Perceived Multiple Factors Which May Be Related to
Administrative Aspirations of Men and Women
Teachers--Part III of the Questionnaire

Cultural Considerations

Hypothesis 17: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one's colleagues would react unfavorably if one became an administrator.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "My colleagues would react unfavorably if I became an administrator." The obtained chi square of 1.88 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 68 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 18: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that men are more effective administrators than women for psychological and social reasons.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "For psychological and social reasons, men are more effective administrators than women." The chi square of 56.13 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.13, 82 percent of the women and 43 percent of the men disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.13.--For psychological and social reasons, men are more effective administrators than women.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	10	9	4	2
Agree	28	26	26	10
Undecided	22	21	16	6
Disagree	28	26	102	41
Strongly disagree	18	17	104	41
Total	106	30	252	70

Hypothesis 19: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women are better organizers than men.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Women are better organizers than men." The obtained chi square of 30.03 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.14, 60 percent of the men disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement and only 44% of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed.

Hypothesis 20: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently.

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 chi square of 18.36 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis

was rejected. As shown in Table 4.15, 61 percent of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement and only 43 percent of the men.

Table 4.14.--Women are better organizers than men.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	1	9	26	10
Agree	10	9	64	25
Undecided	32	30	50	20
Disagree	43	40	91	36
Strongly disagree	21	20	21	8
Total	107	30	252	70

Table 4.15.--Women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	3	2	3	1
Agree	17	16	51	20
Undecided	40	38	45	18
Disagree	35	33	122	49
Strongly disagree	11	10	29	12
Total	106	30	250	70

Hypothesis 21: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that in a given task, women are more likely to ask for help, or rely on others in the face of a threat, than are men.

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 chi square of 4.06 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 51 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 22: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that generally women are not as dependable as men because of their biological and personal characteristics.

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 chi square of 27.77 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.16, 86 percent of the males and 94 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 23: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that a male spouse would be threatened by a competent, career-oriented wife.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "A male spouse would be threatened by a competent, career-oriented wife." The obtained chi square of 2.04 with 4

degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Of the total responses, 71 percent of the males and females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.16.--In general, I consider women not as dependable as men because of women's biological and personal characteristics.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	1	9	0	0
Agree	6	6	5	2
Undecided	9	8	11	4
Disagree	54	51	76	30
Strongly disagree	37	35	160	64
Total	107	30	252	70

Hypothesis 24: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men." The obtained chi square of 11.8 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.17, 69 percent of the men and 64 percent of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.17.--Women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	1	9	5	2
Agree	20	19	72	29
Undecided	11	10	13	5
Disagree	51	48	86	34
Strongly disagree	23	21	75	30
Total	106	30	251	70

Hypothesis 25: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that men know more than women about how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators.

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 chi square of 9.95 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.18, 47 percent of the males and 62 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 26: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women lack the drive to become administrators.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Women lack the drive to become administrators." The obtained chi square of 5.47 with 3 degrees of freedom was not

significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 75 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.18.--Men know more than women about how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	2	2	4	2
Agree	28	26	57	23
Undecided	27	25	34	14
Disagree	31	29	104	41
Strongly disagree	19	18	53	21
Total	107	30	252	70

Hypothesis 27: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that college women who attempt to compete with men usually do so at the expense of their popularity or social life.

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 chi square of 6.90 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Specifically, 69 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.19 summarizes the data for the statements under the Cultural Considerations of Part III of the questionnaire.

Table 4.19.--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 ^a
For psychological and social reasons, men are more effective administrators than women.	R ^a
Women are better organizers than men.	R
Women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently.	R
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.	R
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

^aR = rejected; NR = not rejected.

Educational Factors

Hypothesis 28: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that welcoming women as equals into the professional management levels may tend to downgrade the 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 obtained chi square of 24.00 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.20, 90 percent of the males and 96 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.20.--Welcoming women as equals into the professional management levels may tend to downgrade the teaching profession.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	0	0	2	8
Agree	3	3	1	4
Undecided	8	8	8	3
Disagree	53	50	76	30
Strongly disagree	43	40	165	66
Total	107	30	252	70

Hypothesis 29: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes." The obtained chi square of 10.41 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.21, 42 percent of the men and 62 percent of the women strongly agreed or agreed with this statement.

Table 4.21.--Students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	13	12	40	16
Agree	36	34	115	46
Undecided	28	26	37	15
Disagree	26	24	46	18
Strongly disagree	4	3	13	5
Total	107	30	251	70

Hypothesis 30: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that women administrators have less power to make decisions than men.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Women administrators have less power to make decisions than men." The obtained chi square of 3.72 with 4 degrees of

freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 80 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 31: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that it is more desirable to work for a male administrator than a female administrator.

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 chi square of 21.47 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.22, 66 percent of the women and only 42 percent of the men disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.22.--I feel more comfortable working for a male administrator than a female administrator.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	6	6	11	4
Agree	31	29	34	14
Undecided	24	23	40	16
Disagree	32	30	92	37
Strongly disagree	13	12	72	29
Total	106	30	249	70

Hypothesis 32: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that most college courses are designed for male advancement and emphasis.

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 chi square of 3.82 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Specifically, 51 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 33: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one would feel uncomfortable in an educational administration class of all males.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I would feel uncomfortable in an educational administration class of all males." The obtained chi square of 3.83 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 67 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 34: There is no sex difference in the responses to the question that educational counseling enabled one to plan for advancement in a career.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Educational counseling enabled me to plan for advancement in my career." The obtained chi square of 6.03 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses

of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Specifically, 76 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 35: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether female administrators have been encouraged in the aspiration for an administrative position.

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 chi square of .40 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of the men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 73 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 36: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether most administrators in the schooling process were male.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Most administrators in my schooling process were male." The obtained chi square of .87 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of the men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show 82 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 37: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether, in a given district, both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "In our district, both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions." The obtained chi square of 6.70 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 64 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Table 4.23 summarizes the data for the statements under Educational Factors of Part III of the questionnaire. (See p. 97.)

Personal Perspectives

Hypothesis 38: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether a woman can be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time.

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 chi square of 11.18 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.24, 88 percent of the women agreed or strongly agreed and 86 percent of the men.

Hypothesis 39: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one needs to know a few administrators well in order to win their support for an administrative position.

This hypothesis was tested using the 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 chi square of 4.73 with 4 degrees of freedom was not

significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show even percentages for all responses, with 33 percent agree and 30 percent undecided.

Table 4.23.--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 ^a
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.	NR ^a
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 an educational administration class of all males.	NR
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.	NR
Most administrators in my schooling process were male.	NR
In our district, both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions.	NR

^aR = rejected; NR = not rejected.

Table 4.24.--A woman can be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	22	21	86	34
Agree	70	65	135	54
Undecided	10	9	23	9
Disagree	3	3	8	3
Strongly disagree	2	2	0	0
Total	107	30	252	70

Hypothesis 40: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one may have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "I have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position." The obtained chi square of 13.98 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.25, 68 percent of the males and 55 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 41: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that a spouse would be upset if one had to move as a result of becoming an administrator.

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 chi square of 7.69 with

4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 46 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.25.--I have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	5	5	21	8
Agree	9	9	59	24
Undecided	19	18	34	14
Disagree	57	48	100	40
Strongly disagree	22	20	37	15
Total	106	30	251	70

Hypothesis 42: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one's parents encouraged receiving 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 chi square of 16.10 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.26, 89 percent of the women and 79 percent of the men agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Table 4.26.--In my home, I was encouraged to get a college degree.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	43	41	157	62
Agree	40	38	58	27
Undecided	4	4	3	1
Disagree	11	10	14	6
Strongly disagree	8	8	10	4
Total	106	30	262	70

Hypothesis 43: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one planned specifically for advancement in educational administration.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I have planned specifically for advancement in educational administration." The obtained chi square of 8.45 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show 76 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 44: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that what a spouse thinks about an administrative position has influence on the individual.

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 chi square of 1.00 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in

the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 49 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 45: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one would be eager to become an administrator, even if moving were necessary.

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 chi square of 12.93 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.27, 75 percent of the women and 63 percent of the men disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.27.--I would be eager to become an administrator, even if I had to move somewhere else.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	5	5	6	2
Agree	16	15	12	5
Undecided	19	18	45	18
Disagree	31	29	90	36
Strongly disagree	36	34	99	39
Total	107	30	252	70

Hypothesis 46: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one personally received encouragement from the building administrator to apply for an administrative position.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I have personally received encouragement from an administrator in my building to apply for an administrative position." The obtained chi square of 25.63 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.28, 40 percent of the men agreed or strongly agreed with this statement and only 17 percent of the women. On the other hand, 80 percent of the women disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement, and only 45 percent of the men.

Table 4.28.--I have personally received encouragement from an administrator in my building to apply for an administrative position.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	15	14	14	6
Agree	37	26	28	11
Undecided	6	6	7	3
Disagree	38	36	121	48
Strongly disagree	20	19	81	32
Total	106	30	251	70

Hypothesis 47: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one has a negative image of school administrators.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "I have a negative image of school administrators." The obtained chi square of 3.32 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show that 55 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.29 summarizes the data for the statements under Personal Perspectives of Part III of the questionnaire. (See p. 104.)

Psychological Aspects

Hypothesis 48: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one is satisfied with present employment and would not seek an administrative position.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "I am satisfied with my present employment and would not seek an administrative position." The obtained chi square of 10.94 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.30, 71 percent of the women and 57 percent of the men agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Table 4.29.--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 ^a
I feel I need to know a few administrators well in order to win their support for an administrative position.	NR ^a
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.	R
I have planned specifically for advancement in educational administration.	NR
What my spouse thinks about an administrative position has an influence on me.	NR
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 building to apply for an administrative position.	R
I have a negative image of school administrators.	NR

^aR = rejected; NR = not rejected.

Table 4.30.--I am satisfied with my present employment and would not seek an administrative position.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	23	22	91	36
Agree	39	35	89	35
Undecided	22	21	27	10
Disagree	17	16	33	13
Strongly disagree	6	6	12	5
Total	107	30	252	70

Hypothesis 49: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one feels confident in most leadership positions.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "I feel confident in most leadership positions." The obtained chi square of 8.54 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show that 76 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

Hypothesis 50: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one would be willing to further one's education for an administrative position.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "I would be willing to further my education for an administrative position." The obtained chi square of 12.54 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis

was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.31, 59 percent of the women and 41 percent of the men disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.31.--I would be willing to further my education for an administrative position.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	9	8	19	8
Agree	26	24	44	18
Undecided	28	26	40	16
Disagree	25	23	103	41
Strongly disagree	19	18	46	18
Total	107	30	252	70

Hypothesis 51: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether administrators in one's district would react favorably if one became an administrator.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "Administrators in my district would react favorably if I became an administrator." The obtained chi square of 5.30 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 39 percent of the respondents agreed with this statement, but 47 percent were undecided.

Hypothesis 52: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one has been in one's present position too long to seek an administrative position.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "I have been in my present position too long to seek an administrative position now." The obtained chi square of 1.36 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show that 80 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 53: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one likes delegating tasks and working with people.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "I like delegating tasks and working with people." The obtained chi square of 4.17 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 75 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 54: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that being an administrator would increase one's self-image.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "Being an administrator would increase my self-image." The obtained chi square of .67 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and

women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show that 53 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 55: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that if one applied for an administrative position, one might be a top contender.

This hypothesis was tested using the responses to the following statement: "If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender." The obtained chi square of 20.27 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As shown in Table 4.32, 52 percent of the males agreed or strongly agreed with this statement, but only 32 percent of the females. Overall, 66 percent of the respondents were undecided about the statement.

Table 4.32.--If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	7	7	19	8
Agree	48	45	59	24
Undecided	34	32	86	34
Disagree	16	15	67	27
Strongly disagree	2	2	19	8
Total	107	30	250	70

Hypothesis 56: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one would rather not compete for an administrative position.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I would rather not compete for an administrative position." The obtained chi square of 14.48 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.33, 62 percent of the women and 50 percent of the men agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Table 4.33.--I would rather not compete for an administrative position.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	12	11	67	27
Agree	42	39	87	35
Undecided	23	22	28	11
Disagree	23	22	48	19
Strongly disagree	7	7	19	8
Total	107	30	249	70

Hypothesis 57: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether administrators tend to become "out of touch" with the teaching environment.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Administrators tend to become "out of touch" with the teaching environment." The obtained chi square of 3.97 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the

responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show that 71 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 58: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that 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 chi square of 3.88 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 59 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with the statement.

Table 4.34 summarizes the data for the statements under Psychological Aspects of Part III of the questionnaire. (See page 111.)

The World of Work

Hypothesis 59: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that people who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles.

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 chi square of 15.60 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.35, 65 percent of the men and 49 percent of the women agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Table 4.34.--Results of tests looking for significant differences between males and females on Psychological Aspects.

Statement	Test of Null Hypothesis
I am satisfied with my present employment and would not seek an administrative position.	R ^a
I feel confident in most leadership positions.	NR ^a
I would be willing to further my education for an administrative position.	R
Administrators in my district would react favorably if I became an administrator.	NR
I have been in my present position too long to seek an administrative position now.	NR
I like delegating tasks and working with people.	NR
Being an administrator would increase my self-image.	NR
If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender.	R
I would rather not compete for an administrative position.	R
Administrators tend to become "out of touch" with the teaching environment.	NR
Seeking an administrative position involves too much "politics."	NR

^aR = rejected; NR = not rejected.

Table 4.35.--People who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	15	14	22	9
Agree	59	55	100	40
Undecided	15	14	81	32
Disagree	16	15	43	17
Strongly disagree	2	2	6	2
Total	107	30	252	70

Hypothesis 60: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that one's present position provides too much security for one to seek an administrative position.

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 chi square of 2.92 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show that 55 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 61: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men.

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 chi square of 10.68

with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.36, 57 percent of the women and only 40 percent of the men agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Table 4.36.--Men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	5	4	32	13
Agree	39	36	110	44
Undecided	27	25	45	18
Disagree	28	26	55	22
Strongly disagree	8	8	9	4
Total	107	30	251	70

Hypothesis 62: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that the "white-male club" promotes men over women for positions in administration.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "The 'white-male club' promotes men over women for positions in administration." The obtained chi square of 5.65 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Specifically, results showed 42 percent of the respondents agreed but 30 percent were undecided.

Hypothesis 63: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one sees a position in educational administration as attainable.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I see a position in educational administration as attainable for me." The obtained chi square of 22.59 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.37, 68 percent of the males agreed or strongly agreed and only 41 percent of the females. On the other hand, 39 percent of the females disagreed or strongly disagreed and only 19 percent of the men.

Table 4.37.--I see a position in educational administration as attainable for me.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	12	11	17	7
Agree	51	51	85	34
Undecided	14	13	49	20
Disagree	15	14	77	31
Strongly disagree	5	5	20	8
Total	107	30	248	70

Hypothesis 64: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question that men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Men are more often chosen for an administrative position

than women." The obtained chi square of 9.26 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.38, 72 percent of the men agreed or strongly agreed and 75 percent of the women.

Table 4.38.--Men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	9	8	48	19
Agree	68	64	140	56
Undecided	19	18	30	12
Disagree	8	8	28	11
Strongly disagree	3	3	5	2
Total	107	30	251	70

Hypothesis 65: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one is willing to "go for broke" in the quest for a position in administration.

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 chi square of 3.67 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show that 86 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 66: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether one considers working with children more rewarding than administration.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "I consider that working with children is more rewarding than administration." The obtained chi square of 7.67 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 72 percent of the respondents agreed or strongly agreed with this statement.

Hypothesis 67: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether there is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "There is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator." The obtained chi square of 10.54 with 4 degrees of freedom was significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. As is shown in Table 4.39, 54 percent of the males disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement and only 36 percent of the women.

Hypothesis 68: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether being a successful administrator is easier for men than for women.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "Being a successful administrator is easier for men than for women." The obtained chi square of 6.42 with 4 degrees of

freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. The results show that 55 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.39.--There is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator.

Response	Male		Female	
	N	%	N	%
Strongly agree	5	5	11	4
Agree	16	15	57	23
Undecided	28	26	92	37
Disagree	49	46	76	31
Strongly disagree	8	8	13	5
Total	106	30	249	70

Hypothesis 69: There is no significant sex difference in the responses to the question of whether university or college professors were helpful in seeking an administrative position.

This hypothesis was tested using responses to the following statement: "My university or college professors assisted me in seeking an administrative position." The obtained chi square of 1.96 with 4 degrees of freedom was not significant, indicating no difference in the responses of men and women. Therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected. Overall, 87 percent of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed with this statement.

Table 4.40 summarizes the data for the statements under The World of Work of Part III of the questionnaire.

Table 4.40.--Results of tests looking for significant differences between males and females on the World of Work.

Statement	Test of Null Hypothesis
People who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles.	R ^a
My present position provides too much security for me to seek an administrative position.	NR ^a
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.	NR
I see a position in educational administration as attainable for me.	R
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.	NR
I consider that working with children is more rewarding than administration.	NR
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 professors assisted me in seeking an administrative position.	NR

^aR = rejected; NR = not rejected.

Summary

Chapter IV has presented the analysis of data in an attempt to:

1. Assess the results of the hypotheses tested concerning perceived aspiration levels of men and women teachers for an administrative position.
2. Analyze the results of the hypotheses tested concerning perceived demographic characteristics of the men and women respondents.
3. Analyze the results of the hypotheses tested concerning perceived multiple factors which influence administrative aspirations of men and women teachers.

Data analyses of the chi square, Test of Association were used in the assessment of each of the hypotheses. The hypothesis test of significance was based on the .05 level for all tests of association.

A summary of the hypotheses can be found on the following pages of the text:

1. Administrative Aspirations, pp. 131-133.
2. Demographic Characteristics, pp. 133-135.
3. Cultural Considerations, pp. 135-137.
4. Educational Factors, pp. 137-139.
5. Personal Perspectives, pp. 139-140.
6. Psychological Aspects, pp. 140-141.
7. The World of Work, pp. 141-142.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this final chapter a summary of the purposes, limitations, literature, and design of the study is presented first. The conclusions generated from analysis, followed by interpretations and recommendations for further research and administrative practice, conclude the chapter.

Summary

Purpose of the Study

The central purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between the scarcity of women in educational administration and the administrative career aspirations of women teachers. The study was designed to explore whether or not multi-factors such as culture, educational climate, personal perspectives, psychological aspects, and the world of work may have an influence on women teachers in their aspirations for a position in educational administration.

Limitations of the Study

1. The investigation was conducted in a specific geographic area in the State of Michigan: school districts grouped as II,

IV, and VI by the Michigan Association of School Boards in Lansing, Michigan.

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

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

4. The descriptive nature of the study represents a limitation, inasmuch as it only describes what is perceived to be true--not necessarily what is true.

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

Review of the Literature

The literature relating to the purpose of this study was reviewed in seven major sections. The sections and the major findings were as follows:

1. A recent incident illustrating some problems of women in contemporary professions. A citation of a front-page article in the New York Times provided the basis of an incident of masked male sex-bias against a professional woman, exhibited in a court room, by an officer of the court and apparently tolerated by the presiding judge. The major conclusion of this section supports the basis of this study

and is far from encouraging to women who aspire to leadership roles in any profession, whether law or education.

2. A review of women in history. The work of Sidney Hook was discussed in terms of such outstanding women as Cleopatra, Theodora, and Catherine II. Hook analyzes the influence and power play of intelligence, beauty, and sexual appeal in their lives. His assessment stresses the much greater significance of intelligence over beauty as qualities of famous women leaders. His view is set in contrast throughout the dissertation to the views of some male educators who downgrade female intellectual capabilities and promote sex-bias in U.S. education.

3. A review of women in U.S. education. The historical background of women in U.S. educational systems was traced. Statistics related by Taylor, Howard, and Seaton illustrated the rise to dominance and decline of women in positions of power in the U.S. educational profession. Other statistics tended to forecast the virtual extinction of the administrative woman in U.S. education. Thus the question was introduced as to whether the woman educator may in the future go the way of the buffalo into extinction.

4. A review of women in educational administration. Several studies were examined which supported the conclusion that women in educational administration are equally as competent as their male counterparts. The Florida Study conducted by Grobman and Hines and the NAEP Study for the Virginia Association of Elementary School Principals demonstrated specific areas of female administrative strength. Ester and Fishel and Pottker concur through similar findings

that although women may be few in educational administration, their leadership abilities are of at least as high a quality generally as those of men.

5. A review of women and sex-bias in educational leadership.

Findings of previous studies support the conclusion that sex-bias infects nearly every aspect of U.S. education. It is most clearly demonstrated in: the administrator selection process; the balance of men and women role-models; the composition of faculty at the elementary and secondary levels; sex-role stereotyping in terms of classes, programs, and activities; and finally in the ultimate control of the administration of public schools. Some consideration was given to the recommendations by researchers for programs and policies that must be initiated to end discriminatory employment practices.

6. A review of women's aspirations in the educational profession. The studies of McMillen, Diaz, and Landon supported an apparent increase of awareness among women educators of educational administration possibilities. There seemed to be conclusive evidence, in fact, that more women teachers are expressing the intent to pursue an administrative career, the questions of discrimination and sex-bias notwithstanding. A survey of continued research in this area was outlined. Also discussed were programs of financial and other assistance by public and private organizations to women in their quest for administrative educational positions.

7. A review of women's diminishing role in educational leadership. Social role stereotyping of women who aspire to become educational administrators was discussed. The attitudes of the 1960s, which considered as taboo female desires to mix professional careers with family responsibility, were contrasted with the recent trend to shatter the old myths about women's exclusive role as wife, mother, and companion in the home. It was concluded, based on the literature, that positive, swift action was essential to develop women's aspirations to positions of leadership.

Design of the Study

In order to test the hypotheses of this study, it was deemed necessary to develop an instrument relating to the aspirations of women for positions in educational administration. The Administrative Aspirations Questionnaire was, therefore, constructed. It was largely a product of lengthy interviews with trained personnel who have previously done formal and informal research on women in leadership positions. The questionnaire was designed to determine those multiple factors which teachers perceive as barriers to obtaining educational administrative positions.

The population of the study consisted of the men and women teachers in Groups II, IV, and VI of the Michigan School Districts as defined by the Michigan Association of School Boards in Lansing. However, only the four counties of Clinton, Eaton, Ingham, and Shiawassee were selected for population source.

A systematic random sample of 400 men and women teachers was drawn from each of the three groups and computerized by personnel

of the Michigan Education Association. A letter explaining the purposes of the study was mailed to each of the 400 selected respondents. The data were analyzed with the assistance of the Institute for Research on Teaching at Michigan State University. The instruments were punched on computer data cards and analyzed using the chi square Test of Association. The .05 level of significance with various degrees of freedom was selected as the critical region of rejection in the analyses.

Findings

Part I: Perceived Aspiration Levels of Men and Women Teachers for an Administrative Position

1. Significant differences exist in the aspirations of males and females for, and action to obtain, an elementary principalship. More men than women sampled had applied for this position (12 percent men to 1 percent women), while a higher percentage of women than men said they would aspire to become an elementary principal (20 percent women to 13 percent men). The men seemed to implement their desire to become elementary principals at a much higher rate than did women.

2. Significant differences exist in the aspirations of males and females for, and action to obtain, a secondary principalship. Five percent of the men tested had applied, but none of the women tested had applied. Only 9 percent of the women would aspire for the position, while 16 percent of the men would so aspire.

3. Significant differences exist in the aspirations of males and females for, and action to obtain, a position in central

office. While more males tested tended to apply (6 percent men to no women), an almost equal number of females would aspire for central office positions (27 percent of men to 20 percent of women).

4. Significant differences exist in the aspirations of males and females for the position of assistant superintendent of schools. Two percent of the males tested applied, but no females applied. While 14 percent of the men would aspire to be an assistant superintendent, only 7 percent of the females would so aspire.

5. Significant differences exist in the aspirations of males and females for the position of superintendent of schools. While none of the males or females tested actually had applied, more males would aspire than women (12 percent men to 2 percent women).

Part II: Perceived Demographic Characteristics of Men and Women Respondents

1. There are no significant differences in the marital status, race, level of education, number of years teaching, sibling placement, or identification of teaching community. Male and female respondents tended to group into equivalent categories.

2. Significant differences exist in the age level of the respondents. The majority of males tested were 39 years of age or younger (74 percent). A lesser majority of females were in the same age group (64 percent).

3. Significant differences exist in the number of children male and female respondents had. Males tested had a higher percentage of families consisting of two or more children (55 percent), and

females varied between two or more children (41 percent) and none at all (40 percent).

4. Significant differences exist in considering the present teaching level of male and female respondents. Males clustered at the high school level (45 percent), as opposed to a much smaller percentage of women in high school (19 percent).

5. Significant differences exist in considering sports participation as a youth by the male and female respondents. A higher percentage of males participated in team and individual sports (48 percent) than did females (37 percent).

6. Significant differences exist in considering the number of years the mothers of the male and female respondents worked. A higher percentage, a majority, of females (54 percent) indicated that their mothers did not work at all during their growing years. A minority percentage of the male respondents (37 percent) indicated their mothers did not work at all during their growing years. The mothers of fewer women respondents (32 percent) than men (44 percent) worked part of the specified time.

Part III: Perceived Multiple Factors
Which May Be Related to Administra-
tive Aspirations of Men and
Women Teachers

Cultural Considerations.--Significant differences exist in the responses of males and females to 6 of the 11 questions under Cultural Considerations.

1. More men than women agreed that men are more effective administrators than women (35 percent men, 12 percent women). More women than men, however, agreed that women are better organizers than men (35 percent women, 18 percent men).

2. Higher percentages of women than men disagreed with the idea that women are less independent in work habits (61 percent women, 43 percent men), the idea that women are not as dependable as men (94 percent women, 86 percent men), and the idea that men know more about how to seek and obtain administrative jobs (62 percent women, 47 percent men).

3. Quite interesting, however, is the disagreement of a higher percentage of men than women with the idea that women have a lower level of achievement motivation (69 percent men, 64 percent women).

Educational Factors.--Significant differences exist in the responses of males and females in three of the questions under Educational Factors.

1. A higher percentage of women than men disagreed with the idea that women in management positions downgrade the teaching profession (96 percent women, 90 percent men) and with the idea that they would be more comfortable working for a male administrator (66 percent women, 42 percent men).

2. A higher percentage of women than men agreed that students who never experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations or values that move beyond traditional stereotypes (62 percent women, 46 percent men).

Personal Perspectives.--Significant differences exist in the responses of males and females in five of the questions under Personal Perspectives.

1. A greater percentage of women than men strongly agreed that a woman can be both a successful administrator and happily married (34 percent women, 21 percent men). In the combined percentage of strong agreement and agreement, however, the women had a smaller majority (88 percent women, 86 percent men). A higher percentage of women agreed that they were encouraged in the home to get a college degree (89 percent women, 79 percent men). A higher percentage of men, however, agreed that they were encouraged by an administrator to apply for an administrative position (40 percent men, 17 percent women).

2. Male respondents more than female disagreed that family responsibilities would keep them from seeking an administrative position (68 percent men, 55 percent women). A higher percentage of women disagreed with the idea of moving to become an administrator (75 percent women, 63 percent men).

Psychological Aspects.--Significant differences exist in the responses of males and females in four of the questions under Psychological Aspects.

1. A higher percentage of women disagreed with the idea of furthering their education for an administrative position (59 percent women, 41 percent men).

2. A higher percentage of women agreed with the idea of being satisfied with present employment and being unwilling to seek an administrator job (71 percent women, 57 percent men) and with the idea of being unwilling to compete for an administrative position (62 percent women, 50 percent men).

3. Male respondents in a higher percentage indicated the feeling they might be top contenders for administrative positions if they applied (52 percent men, 32 percent women).

The World of Work.--Significant differences exist in the responses of males and females in five of the questions under the World of Work. With the following two questions, a higher percentage of men agreed than did women:

1. More men than women agreed that people who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles (69 percent men agreed, 49 percent women). More men than women also saw a position in educational administration as attainable for them (68 percent men agreed, 41 percent women).

2. A higher percentage of men disagreed with the idea that there is too much competition in trying to become an administrator (54 percent men, 36 percent women).

3. In response to two questions, women agreed in a higher percentage than did men. More women than men agreed that men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men (57 percent women, 40 percent men). A slightly higher percentage of women agreed that men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women (75 percent women, 72 percent men).

Conclusions

General

1. The findings of this study support the conclusions of McMillen discussed in Chapter II, that as the responsibility of the administrative position increased, the aspiration level of women educators decreased.

2. Nothing in the data of this study, however, is found to support Diaz's conclusion that a higher percentage of women in relation to their total number in education aspire to administrative positions than do men. Nor do the data here lend much support to Landon's optimistic statement that "there exists a substantial pool of women teachers who have expressed an intent to pursue careers in the field." That only five applications for any type of administrative position were registered by women in the hundreds of responses to individual items in the questionnaire would seem to indicate that at least in the implementation, women's aspirations may be much less than other studies estimated. None of the female respondents had applied for a secondary school principalship. Even in unimplemented aspiration--which could include flights of fancy about ultimate success in their chosen profession--only one in five of the female respondents aspired even for elementary principalships or central office staff positions. Less than one in ten aspired to be a secondary principal and female aspiration to be assistant superintendent or superintendent was in the range of less than 1 in 20.

3. Although this study set out to analyze female aspiration, a resultant by-product which should be noted in passing may be

as significant as the lack of feminine desire to be educational leaders. A much higher percentage of males than females implemented aspirations for administrative jobs by applying for them. The very low level of male unimplemented aspirations, however, was surprising. A greater percentage of women actually aspired to be elementary principals. From the relatively high aspiration for safe positions as central office administrators to which about one out of four men aspired, the desire of men to obtain other administrative positions fell off precipitously to the point where only 12 percent of the respondents were inclined to seek superintendencies. It can thus be concluded from these test results that a very small percentage of all teachers, whether male or female, has much ambition to leave the classroom to become educational policy makers. Based on Part III results from the questionnaire, about three-quarters of women respondents and nearly two-thirds of male respondents would be unenthused by the offer of an administrative position if it would require them to move. About six out of ten women and four out of ten men appear to be unwilling to further their education to become administrators. At a time when the world is daily becoming a more complex and dangerous place in which to live and demands have increased for far greater sophistication in educational policy, the apparent apathy of U.S. classroom teachers toward contributing policy leadership should be a source of major concern to the American people. The political, military, and economic crises which today crowd the

education crisis off the front pages will accelerate at an alarming rate in the future if U.S. educational institutions are allowed to decay. If, as this study seems to indicate, about 80 percent or more of male teachers and a considerably higher percentage of female teachers have no ambition to fill any type of administrative job, the policy level of U.S. education is being deprived of some of the best brain power in the profession. It seems evident that one problem must be the very nature of administrative positions, which in the social conflicts of the times are placing almost impossible demands on education leaders. Although it is not in the scope of this study to deal with that problem, it is, indeed, appropriate to mention it inasmuch as it is brought into passing focus by this research.

4. Significant demographic data resulting from this research support some conclusions of the studies outlined in Chapter II. Those data reinforce the NEA statistics indicating that the majority of males are in the high schools and the majority of females are in the elementary schools. The higher the level of education, the greater the preponderance of males becomes. Schmuck's thesis that men in a "female" occupation must continually strive to validate their self-worth seems to be supported by the consolidation of men at the more prestigious levels of the educational system. Supporting that theory in this study is the fact that the single area in which women top the male percentage in aspiration for administrative posts is for elementary principalships (20 percent women, 13 percent men).

5. Younger men seem to be increasing in the ranks of educators in public schools. This study's data indicate that 74 percent of the males surveyed were 39 years old or younger, as contrasted with 64 percent of the women respondents. These statistics would seem to predict that these young males will in the future occupy, merely on the basis of age alone, more administrative positions than women.

6. This study's data gave no indication that the responsibility of having children lessened the desire of teachers to become administrators. While a sizable majority of males and females had one or more children, a good majority of men and women disagreed with item 24 of Part III, that they had too many family responsibilities to seek an administrator position. The rising trend toward shared family responsibility seems to have eased the concern of women teachers about the idea of some educational researchers that the U.S. social milieu's stress on the fundamental role of the woman as mother and wife inhibits them from becoming administrators.

7. Hennig and Jardim¹ proposed the interesting theory that attitudes and skills learned through childhood participation in team and individual sports affect men's adult aspiration for management positions. These data indicate that 62 percent of female and 88 percent of male respondents participated in some kind of sports during youth. These very large percentages have no correlation, however,

¹Margaret Hennig and Ann Jardim, The Managerial Woman (Garden City, N.Y.: Anchor Press/Doubleday, 1977), p. 23.

with the small percentages of both men and women with management aspirations.

8. Although this study failed to establish any relationship between role models of working mothers and the aspirations of either men or women, it is interesting that significantly more mothers of male teachers worked than mothers of females (63 percent mothers of males, 46 percent mothers of females).

Cultural Considerations

1. Several items in Part III of the questionnaire dealing with perceived multiple factors seem to be related to both male and female managerial aspiration. Under Cultural Considerations, men's and women's views of the other sex's managerial ability are revealing. About three times as many men as women believed that men are more effective administrators than women (35 percent men to 12 percent women). Since more than a third of male respondents espoused this idea and since men are for the most part in control of the mechanisms whereby new administrators are selected, some bias in the selection process would seem to be indicated. On the other hand, about a third of the females (35 percent women, 18 percent men) sampled believed women to be better organizers than men, so sex bias may not be unique to the male. The female response to these two questions seems to show a trend toward women rejecting the sex-type stereotyping which views men as superior to women in leadership roles. It also seems to indicate that women are becoming more open to other women serving in administrative jobs.

2. Some bias carries through to the male view of women's independence as workers, inasmuch as only 43 percent of men disagreed with the idea that women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently (61 percent women disagreed).

3. Noteworthy, however, is a higher percentage of women agreeing with the idea that women work less independently (21 percent women, 16 percent men). These responses might reflect a view of independence as not being an entirely desirable managerial quality. It will be recalled that Seawell and Canady cited test results indicating that women principals worked more cooperatively with faculty committees than male principals. This was obviously viewed as being desirable managerial conduct.

4. An overwhelming majority of both male and female respondents rejected the statement that women are not as dependable as men (94 percent women, 86 percent men). The fact, however, that 15 percent of the men questioned, as opposed to 2 percent of the women, agreed with the idea seems to point to the type of bias previously observed.

5. Although the mentor concept and support system is frequently cited in the literature as working against women, significantly more women than men disagreed with the proposition that men more than women know how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators (62 percent women disagreed, to 47 percent men). Some women may have interpreted the statement as disparaging feminine ingenuity. In any case, in response to a later question 40 percent men, as opposed to only 17 percent women, said they had

received encouragement from an administrator to apply for an administrative position. While there is no direct conflict in these two sets of responses, they would seem to signal the fact that if men do not have more know-how on how to get a position than women, they do seem to get more help along the way from those who have already made it in the system.

6. A positive note was struck by the male respondents when they dissented in a higher percentage than women from the statement that women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men (69 percent males disagreed, 64 percent females). Cultural socialization, it would seem, has broken down enough barriers to elevate male regard for women's motivation to attain career goals similar or identical to those of men. If the data of this study are indicative, men appraise women's achievement motivation higher than women themselves do. The very act of men viewing women as equals in any competitive aspect should automatically, if it were known to women, raise their own perception of their capability to compete with men.

Educational Factors

1. Women respondents to this section registered overwhelming dissent from the idea that women's acceptance as equals in educational management may downgrade the profession. A large majority of men also disagreed (96 percent women disagreed, 90 percent men).

2. While a large majority of women rejected the idea that they would feel more comfortable working for a male administrator,

a surprisingly large minority of men did also (66 percent women disagreed, 42 percent men).

3. That four out of every ten men would feel equally comfortable working for a man or a woman reinforces the earlier-noted increased acceptance by men of women as equals in the profession. It would perhaps be revealing to sample an all-female group on their perception of the degree to which men accept them as equals in the profession, and then sample an all-male group on how they actually regard women in this respect. The data of this study suggest that women might seriously underestimate their acceptance, and this miscalculation may negatively influence their aspiration toward administrative positions. That nearly seven out of ten women reject the idea that they feel more comfortable working for a male reinforces earlier indications of a probable increase of acceptance of women administrators by women themselves.

4. Again, male respondents registered a high degree of acceptance (46 percent agreed) of the idea that students who do not experience women in leadership positions are not likely to develop aspirations that move beyond the traditional stereotypes. Women accepted the idea in even a higher percentage (62 percent agreed). This seems to be a chicken-and-egg situation. If the current shortage of women in educational leadership roles restricts aspirations of female students for administrative jobs, where does one start to correct the situation? In response to a later question in this section, large majorities of both men and women respondents indicated that most administrators in their school process were male.

This male monopoly, by its very presence, seems to seriously inhibit what few programs there are to attract women to educational administration.

Personal Perspectives

1. Some of the responses in this section were discussed above. Women more than men, if the sample is valid, are unwilling to move in order to fill an administrative position (75 percent women would tend not to move, as opposed to 63 percent men).

2. Even more significantly, only 17 percent women, contrasted with 40 percent men, received encouragement from an existing administrator to apply for an administrative job. The odds piled up by their unwillingness to move, on the one hand, and their lack of encouragement from a mentor, on the other, put women at a great disadvantage as far as getting into leadership jobs is concerned. Without either personal motivation from within or a mentor pull from the external environment, conquest of the "system" which leads to the top is unlikely, to say the least.

3. It is of only small consolation to learn from the study's results that women more than men are encouraged in the home to get a college degree (89 percent women, 79 percent men). A dissertation could be devoted to the reason for this encouragement. Why do women's families want them to go to college? Perhaps many families in the late 1970s may want to prepare women for a career, rather than exclusively for marriage.

4. As noted earlier, a change in trend may be indicated by the surprising majority of both men and women disagreeing that family

responsibilities are an obstacle to their seeking an administrative position (68 percent men disagreed, to 55 percent women).

5. An even greater sign of the times finds 86 percent of all male respondents, as opposed to 88 percent women, agreeing that a woman can be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time. Are women aware of the change in men's attitudes toward their pursuing a career? The continued low degree of feminine aspiration for educational leadership careers does not indicate that women have kept up with male attitudes. When women start to realize that men will accept a career woman as a marriage mate, they will understand that they no longer have to choose between a career and marriage.

Psychological Aspects

1. This section is very telling in its indication that women clearly do not aspire to administrative educational jobs as frequently as men do. The reasons seem to be: that women are more satisfied with their present employment (71 percent women, 57 percent men); are less willing to further their education (59 percent women, 41 percent men); are less confident that they would be top contenders (52 percent men are confident, but only 32 percent women); or simply would rather not compete for an administrative position (62 percent women to 50 percent men).

2. Answers to some questions always raise many more questions seeking answers. Why are women more contented in the classroom? Why do they shy away from further education? Obviously they do not view themselves as top contenders and are not really interested in the

competition. Why not? It is logical to suppose that they do not like to lose and their experience has been that they lose to men when they compete.

The World of Work

1. Women register less cynicism concerning whether administrators are often asked to compromise their principles. About seven in ten men said they were, but only about five in ten women agreed. Perhaps the fact that there are many more men than women in administrative jobs lends more authority to the male opinion.

2. The realities of the employment arena seem to reinforce the female opinion that they are at a serious disadvantage when competing with men. Women in higher numbers agreed that men advance faster in administration simply because they are men (57 percent women, 40 percent men) and that men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women (75 percent women, 72 percent men).

3. In addition, almost seven out of ten men agreed that an administrative position was attainable for them, while only about four out of ten women agreed.

4. A higher percentage of men than women disagreed with the idea that there is too much competition in trying to become an administrator. The total of the study certainly bears out the fact that there is remarkably little competition by either sex for leadership jobs. The state lottery motto of one state is, "You have to enter to

win." This is equally true of women and educational administrative jobs. As fewer women compete, fewer women win. As fewer women win, an even fewer number are willing to compete. Unless women chalk up some victories, they will soon abandon the field entirely to the men.

Summary of Conclusions

The research results point to many negative factors:

1. Women's aspirations decrease as the responsibilities of the administrative job increase.
2. Only a small percentage of women apply for administrative jobs.
3. A surprisingly small percentage of classroom teachers, male or female, aspire to be administrators.
4. Large majorities of men and women would not be willing to move for an administrative position.
5. Large percentages of both men and women would not further their education to aspire for leadership jobs.
6. Without the example of successful female administrators, female students are unlikely to be future aspirants for administrative jobs.
7. The virtual male monopoly on administrative positions seems to be intimidating to women and inhibits feminine aspirations.
8. The female perception that there are unfair odds against them discourages them from seeking administrative jobs.

There are, however, some positive indications:

1. Although some male bias against women seems to persist, it is probably decreasing and men's acceptance of women in the profession seems to be increasing.
2. There are indications that female teachers are becoming increasingly more willing to accept their sisters in administrative roles.
3. There is strong evidence that men are becoming more accepting of the fact that women can be successful as wives and mothers while at the same time succeeding in an educational leadership job.
4. Results from this study indicate that women, too, seem to be more aware that family responsibilities are not incompatible with successful careers in educational administration.

Recommendations

This dissertation began with a commentary on the women's conference at Houston. It is appropriate that the section on recommendations should return to that meeting to find the source of power to implement suggestions that will be made here. It is all well and good to say "school boards should" and "state and county governments should" and "universities should" provide the impetus for increasing the number of female administrators in education. The simple facts are that for the most part school boards, districts, and universities have done very little along these lines and they will not do anything

in the future unless they feel pressure from those most concerned, namely women themselves.

Since the vast majority of women teachers seem to have no interest in administrative positions, the burden for promoting female leadership falls squarely upon that group of females and males who have already made the grade in educational administration. This group is certainly composed of highly intelligent, industrious, determined women and men who refused to take no for an answer when they first encountered the bars to educational administration. They cannot now accept no as answer for their women confreres who are so discouraged with the slight possibility of success that they are unwilling even to compete. To change feminine attitudes requires commitment and funding to sponsor necessary programs. The Houston conference indicates there is, indeed, money available to promote female interests. It is the clear responsibility of women and men educational leaders to recruit enough teachers to attend and make an impact on women's meetings such as the one at Houston. With the backing of all the women who are uniting to promote women's rights in general, the rights of women teachers will be promoted. It is important to write dissertations like this one on the subject, but women and men educational leaders must also make their presence felt in a practical way.

In this connection, plans are now being laid for a cabinet-level department of education in the federal government which will provide dozens of high administrative jobs for educational leaders.

Women educational administrators should be seeking out themselves and supporting one another to fill these jobs. They should, moreover, be identifying and supporting men who are enlightened enough to understand U.S. education's serious need for talented female leadership if the formidable challenges of the last quarter of this century are to be met, in the most effective manner.

It is recommended that:

1. A crash program to educate, motivate, encourage, and recruit women teachers to compete for administrative positions should be undertaken.

Women teachers should be provided with and made aware of well-funded educational career tracks, delineated and assured avenues of advancement, job training, and carefully thought-out mentor mechanisms which support them at every turn in the difficult road leading to leadership jobs.

Skilled promoters should be enlisted to reverse some of the currently held female attitudes toward their status in their profession. Sympathetic and articulate men should provide evidence concerning the change in male attitudes toward career women in the profession. Meetings to promote the woman administrator should include husbands and male friends. Discussions of shared responsibility in marriage should be emphasized. Although research must back and substantiate these promotions, research works, no matter how scholarly and persuasive, are of little value if they do not serve as guides to constructive

action. Teachers must be provoked, challenged, encouraged, and inspired to assume more responsibility.

Women who hold it must reexamine the view--largely a rationalization for inactivity--that a switch from the classroom is a compromise which will put them out of touch with students. They should see administration as it is, if properly practiced by industrious, involved, innovative people--an avenue not only to personal and professional growth but to those seats of power in which they can well do students more good with a single imaginative decision than they might by months in a classroom.

2. Internships for women under educational administrators at all levels should be massively increased and sophisticated.

These internships should be filled by the best classroom teachers who are recruited even if they have not registered aspiration for administrative jobs. In addition to continued full salaries, bonuses should be paid to motivate teachers to leave the classroom for a semester or two and sample life and work in high leadership offices. These teachers will not only bring an infusion of new, practical ideas to the educational bureaucracy, but they will gain effective, practical experience which in many instances will awaken or enhance aspiration for full-time positions. Funding internships is expensive but not nearly as expensive as continuing to lose feminine talent to leadership positions.

3. An organized effort by current female administrators should be mounted to promote female visibility.

Female presence at administrative meetings, workshops, discussions, luncheons, and decision-making activities creates an unofficial pressure group. Adeptness at articulating policy suggestions by unofficial groups not infrequently results in invitations to members of these groups to share administrative responsibilities.

4. Every possible device should be enlisted to motivate women to support each other.

That women who have "made it" should reach down to assist other women up the administrative ladder has already been emphasized. A sense of pride in their womanhood should, however, be instilled in all female teachers. Consciousness of their common interests, and the artificial limitations which the external environment has placed on them as a sex, will quickly increase their support of each other in the same way that the American labor movement united the working men earlier in this century. The leadership for such a program must again come from the successful female administrator and the small group of female aspirants. A special task of stimulating emulation falls to those successful female administrators who are successful wives and mothers as well.

5. Women teacher pressure groups should strive to force school boards, school districts, and other education control centers to mount affirmative action programs to recruit and appoint female education administrators.

The Bakke decision, while disallowing racial quotas in medical schools, strongly backed affirmative action. If such

programs are desirable to right past racial injustices, they should be equally desirable to right past injustices toward women educators. The political power of women that pushed the Equal Rights Amendment so far can be utilized toward attaining a number of other goals, including that of bringing a reasonable balance between men and women educational administrators based on their strength in numbers in the profession. Well-funded internships, as described above, could be one mechanism used by school boards and districts to bring more women into administration. The equity employed by school boards in making appointments to administrative positions should be carefully monitored by women teacher groups and biased board members should be identified and forced out of their positions. Strong commitments to sexual equality should be extracted from those seeking places on school boards. Women's political influence should be used to make school board members live up to their promises. It is particularly important for pressure groups to ensure that women are not receiving only traditional staff positions in central office, e.g., director or curriculum specialist. There should be strong, well-funded programs to encourage and hire women in line power positions, such as assistant superintendent, superintendent, and secondary principal. The word "encourage" here is crucial. A lack of women applicants may not always mean a total lack of interest but rather a lack of confidence that women have any chance of being hired as line administrators. Those line and building administrators already in a district should be mandated to seek out, identify, and cultivate those women who demonstrate leadership

talents and to alert them to possible openings in the district. Finally, school boards and districts should evaluate the pay scale for men and women administrators and ensure equivalent pay based on equivalent position, regardless of sex. They should also evaluate the administrative positions themselves, examining the tasks and work hour scheduling. Possible women applicants should not conclude that administrative positions are traditionally male-oriented, geared toward long periods away from home life, or requiring typically masculine physical feats unconventional for women. These unreasonable factors discourage all applicants, but especially women.

6. Women pressure groups should use political and other influence to force colleges and universities to promote strong campaigns to attract women to take programs at both the graduate and undergraduate levels in educational administration.

Institutions of higher education must provide career counseling for women in educational administration at much earlier stages of career development. An administrative career should be fostered at the stage where personal development will not be sacrificed for women.

Administrative course work specifically designed for the woman administrator should deal, among other things, with such realities as the formal and informal network and specifically the "old boy" communication system regarding promotions and appointments. Efforts should be made to prepare women administrators for the financial and legal aspects of the administration of schools as

well as curriculum development. Leading universities should house in-service workshop programs for those women who are actual and/or potential candidates for administrative office. Federal and state grants should be obtained to train and place women in administrative positions through the state's educational system. Finally, universities should themselves hire women in the higher administrative branches of university office so that adequate role-models are provided for the woman administrator and to further balance sexual representation in line positions of university administrations.

Suggestions for Further Research

The following areas for further study are suggested:

1. Replicate this study using women already in administrative positions and attempt to identify those areas which were personally and professionally most significant in obtaining an administrative position.

2. Replicate this study and add specific economic/time factor questions regarding number of months actually on the job as opposed to summer months free of teaching. Also, an analysis of administrative salary schedules computed on the basis of months worked might be contrasted to a teacher's salary schedule computed in the same way.

3. Replicate this study using female administrators and attempt to ascertain how many had a mentor and then make a comparison

of the possible advantages enjoyed by those females who had a mentor with those who did not.

4. Select a dozen or so women teachers who responded to this dissertation's questionnaires and interview them to ascertain why they did not aspire for the various levels of administration.

5. Construct a study to determine why and how districts which have an unusually large number of women in line positions of administration attracted the women administrators. The level of administrative aspiration for their female teachers could also be examined as a part of this study.

6. Construct a study which would compare male attitudes toward female administrators with female perceptions of what male attitudes toward female administrators are.

7. Replicate this study to determine whether male and female members of educational associations have a positive or negative view of the association's leadership and how this view influences their aspirations to leadership roles in these associations.

8. Construct a study to determine specifically whether local university and school district hiring committees have and follow through on the Affirmative Action Policy in terms of trying to recruit women.

APPENDIX

ADMINISTRATIVE ASPIRATIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

General Directions: This questionnaire is designed to obtain the opinions and feelings of the teachers of local Michigan school districts concerning their administrative aspirations. Aspiration is a term 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 or school systems be identified.

After reading each item in Part III, indicate the extent of agreement with your point of view on each item by circling the appropriate response selected.

- RATING SCALE:**
- 1 -- Strongly Agree
 - 2 -- Agree
 - 3 -- Undecided
 - 4 -- Disagree
 - 5 -- Strongly Disagree

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 for this position.
- 3 -- It is unlikely that I would aspire for this position.
- 4 -- I would never apply for this position.

Level of Aspiration

- _____ A. Elementary Principal
- _____ B. Secondary Principal
- _____ C. Central Office Staff
- _____ D. Assistant Superintendent
- _____ E. Superintendent

PART II

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA

Answer each of the following questions:

1. What is your age?
☐ a. 20-29
☐ b. 30-39
☐ c. 40-50
☐ d. over 50
2. What is your marital status?
☐ a. single
☐ b. married
☐ c. married with children
☐ d. widowed/divorced with children
☐ e. divorced without children
☐ f. separated
3. How many children do you have?
☐ a. 0
☐ b. one
☐ c. two-four
☐ d. five or more
4. What is your present teaching level?
☐ a. Pre-School
☐ b. K-3
☐ c. 4-6
☐ d. 7-9
☐ e. 10-12
5. What is your racial group?
☐ a. Native American
☐ b. Black
☐ c. Asian American
☐ d. Caucasian
☐ e. Latino(a)
☐ f. Other
6. What level of education have you completed?
☐ a. Doctorate
☐ b. Graduate hours beyond Master's
☐ c. Master's degree
☐ d. Bachelor's degree
7. How many years have you been teaching?
☐ a. first year
☐ b. 1-5
☐ c. 6-10
☐ d. 11-15
☐ e. 15 or more
8. What was your sibling placement in your family?
☐ a. youngest child
☐ b. second youngest to middle
☐ c. middle child
☐ d. middle to second oldest
☐ e. oldest child
☐ f. only child
9. Identify the educational community in which you are now teaching:
☐ a. urban
☐ b. suburban
☐ c. rural
10. Did you actively participate in sports as a youth?
☐ a. team
☐ b. individual
☐ c. both team and individual
☐ d. did not participate
11. How many years did your mother work during your growing years? Either full or part time.
☐ a. 0
☐ b. 1-5
☐ c. 6-10
☐ d. all
12. What is your sex?
☐ a. male
☐ b. female

PART III

DIRECTIONS: Circle your response to each item.

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Cultural Considerations					
1. My colleagues would react unfavorably if I became an administrator.	1	2	3	4	5
2. For psychological and social reasons, men are more effective administrators than women.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Women are better organizers than men.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Women are more likely to seek proximity to others than to work independently.	1	2	3	4	5
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
6. In general, I consider women not as dependable as men because of women's biological and personal characteristics.	1	2	3	4	5
7. A male spouse would be threatened by a competent, career-oriented wife.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Women generally have a lower level of achievement motivation than men.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Men know more than women about how to seek and obtain opportunities to become administrators.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Women lack the drive to become administrators.	1	2	3	4	5
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
Educational Factors					
12. Welcoming women as equals into the professional management levels may tend to downgrade the teaching profession.	1	2	3	4	5
13. 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
14. Women administrators have less power to make decisions than men.	1	2	3	4	5
15. I feel more comfortable working for a male administrator than a female administrator.	1	2	3	4	5
16. In my college career, most college courses were designed for male advancement and emphasis.	1	2	3	4	5
17. I would feel uncomfortable in an educational administration class of all males.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Educational counseling enabled me to plan for advancement in my career.	1	2	3	4	5
19. There have been female administrators who have encouraged me to seek an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Most administrators in my schooling process were male.	1	2	3	4	5
21. In our district, both men and women are encouraged to apply for administrative positions.	1	2	3	4	5
Personal Perspectives					
22. A woman can be a successful administrator and happily married at the same time.	1	2	3	4	5
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
24. I have too many family responsibilities to seek an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
25. My spouse would be upset if we had to move because I was selected as an administrator.	1	2	3	4	5
26. In my home, I was encouraged to get a college degree.	1	2	3	4	5
27. I have planned specifically for advancement in educational administration.	1	2	3	4	5

	Strongly Agree	Agree	Undecided	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
28. What my spouse thinks about an administrative position has an influence on me.	1	2	3	4	5
29. I would be eager to become an administrator, even if I had to move somewhere else.	1	2	3	4	5
30. I have personally received encouragement from an administrator in my building to apply for an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
31. I have a negative image of school administrators.	1	2	3	4	5

Psychological Aspects

32. I am satisfied with my present employment and would not seek an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
33. I feel confident in most leadership positions.	1	2	3	4	5
34. I would be willing to further my education for an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Administrators in my district would react favorably if I became an administrator.	1	2	3	4	5
36. I have been in my present position too long to seek an administrative position now.	1	2	3	4	5
37. I like delegating tasks and working with people.	1	2	3	4	5
38. Being an administrator would increase my self-image.	1	2	3	4	5
39. If I applied for an administrative position, I feel I might be a top contender.	1	2	3	4	5
40. I would rather not compete for an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
41. Administrators tend to become "out of touch" with the teaching environment.	1	2	3	4	5
42. Seeking an administrative position involves too much "politics."	1	2	3	4	5

The World of Work

43. People who are at administrative levels are often asked to compromise their principles.	1	2	3	4	5
44. My present position provides too much security for me to seek an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5
45. Men advance faster in administration with less experience simply because they are men.	1	2	3	4	5
46. The "white-male club" promotes men over women for positions in administration.	1	2	3	4	5
47. I see a position in educational administration as attainable for me.	1	2	3	4	5
48. Men are more often chosen for an administrative position than women.	1	2	3	4	5
49. I am willing to "go for broke" in my quest for a position in administration.	1	2	3	4	5
50. I consider that working with children is more rewarding than administration.	1	2	3	4	5
51. There is just too much competition in trying to become an administrator.	1	2	3	4	5
52. Being a successful administrator is easier for men than for women.	1	2	3	4	5
53. My university or college professors assisted me in seeking an administrative position.	1	2	3	4	5

Thank you for your assistance in our efforts to improve education. Please return this form in the pre-addressed and stamped envelope to:

Francine Fisher 4848 Westwood Drive Port Huron, Michigan 48060
--

4848 Westwood Dr.
Port Huron, MI 48060
April 3, 1978

Ladies and Gentlemen:


This letter is an invitation for you to participate in a study considering the factors that are important in aspiring to educational administrative positions. The study is being conducted to determine the relative difference, if any, in the administrative aspirations of men and women teachers.

The purpose is to obtain information upon which to assess the perceived lack of aspiration of women at the administrative levels of education. 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 educational leadership.

The meaningfulness of the survey depends greatly on a reply from every teacher surveyed. Your answers will remain strictly confidential.

Please answer the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the stamped addressed envelope. A return by April 19 would be very much appreciated.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Francine Fisher". The signature is fluid and elegant, with a large loop at the beginning of the first name.

Francine Fisher
Doctoral Candidate
Michigan State University

Enclosure

4848 Westwood Dr.
Port Huron, MI 48060
April 10, 1978

Ladies and Gentlemen:

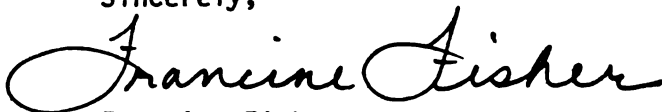
This letter is an invitation for you to participate in a study considering the factors that are important in aspiring to educational administrative positions. The study is being conducted to determine the relative difference, if any, in the administrative aspirations of men and women teachers.

The purpose is to obtain information upon which to assess the perceived lack of aspiration of women at the administrative levels of education. 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 educational leadership.

The meaningfulness of the survey depends greatly on a reply from every teacher surveyed. Your answers will remain strictly confidential.

Please answer the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the stamped addressed envelope. A return by April 21 would be very much appreciated.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Francine Fisher". The signature is fluid and elegant, with a large loop at the beginning of the first name.

Francine Fisher
Doctoral Candidate
Michigan State University

Enclosure

April 24, 1978

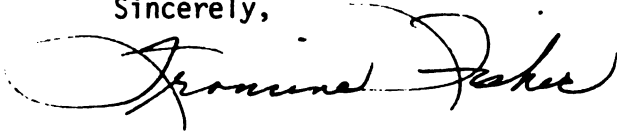
Ladies and Gentlemen:

At long last the questionnaire which you so generously gave time to help me devise is complete. Copies have gone to a random sample of four hundred men and women teachers around the area of Michigan State University. The results should prove interesting.

I am very grateful to each of you for your suggestions and contributions to the research on this dissertation. If you wish a review of the results when the dissertation is complete, just let me know and I will be happy to oblige.

Thank you again for your efforts to promote women in educational administrative positions.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script, reading "Francine Fisher". The signature is written in dark ink and is positioned below the word "Sincerely,".

Francine Fisher

4848 Westwood Drive
Port Huron, MI 48060
(313) 984-3076

BIBLIOGRAPHY

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