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  PRINCIPALS IN MICHIGAN.

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THE CAREER ASPIRATIONS OF MALE

AND FEMALE PRINCIPALS

IN MICHIGAN

By

Lynn Cherryholmes

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ABSTRACT

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The central purpose of this study was to compare
the career aspirations held by male and female principals
in Michigan and to examine the ways aspirations are ful-
filled. In order to achieve the purpose, several tasks
were accomplished. First, several statements were created
to measure the hypotheses. An initial instrument was sub-
mitted to a panel of judges for validation. Second, a
pilot instrument was mailed to a population of forty prin-
cipals and a measure of reliability was established. A
final instrument consisting of sixty statements and demo-
graphic questions was mailed to a sample of 201 male and
female principals at elementary, middle school/ junior high
and senior high school levels identified as the target pop-
ulation. The sample represented eighty-five school dis-
tricts in fifty Michigan counties.

This study concluded that:

1. Male and female principals have similar

aspirations for future positions of even greater authority and responsibility. Aspirations increased for both sexes as chronological age increased.

2. Males and females were similar in the ways and frequency with which they announced interest in further promotion.

3. Males and females both reported the existence and influence of a mentor or benefactor who provided encouragement and support.

4. Males and females perceived similar support from central office administrators for further career advancement. Perceived support increased for both sexes as chronological age increased.

5. Males and females were similar in the extent to which they participated in informal social events of a type that can lead to career advancement.

6. Males and females both sought salary increases from their superintendents.

It was recommended that further research might study the rewards for not aspiring, as well as how the aspirations of male and female principals might differ across variables such as socio-economic status, geographic region and ethnic background.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

The Problem

One effect of the women's movement in the United States within the past decade has been the examination of various occupations, including education and school administration. Statistics generated from this examination reveal contrasting figures. Although the education profession consisted of 85 percent female teachers at the elementary level in 1974, only 21 percent of its administrators were female. At the high school level, the figure was only 2 percent, even though women comprised 48 percent of the secondary educators. Fishel and Pottker (1974) summarized the statistics and concluded that of all the men employed in elementary education, 1 in 5 is a principal or assistant principal. In contrast, of all the women in elementary education, 1 in 5 is a principal or assistant principal. One out of 13 men at the secondary level is a principal or assistant but only 1 out of 250 women in secondary education is a principal or assistant principal.[1]

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[1] Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "Women in Educational Governance: A Statistical Portrait," _Educational Researcher III_, July/August, 1974, pp. 4-7.

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Of approximately 17,000 school districts in the United States, approximately 75 were led by female superintendents in 1975. A similar administrative situation exists at the college level. It has been estimated that universities would have to hire a proportion of 50 percent women among all newly-hired people in order to reach an average of 30 percent women in administrative positions by 1990.[2]

Intensified concern about women in the labor market, increased interest in social justice, the publicity generated by the women's movement, new attitudes about sex roles and the efforts of a few school districts to move women into administrative positions have not significantly affected the national percentages of women in education administration. Indeed, the figures show a pattern of steady decline:[3]

Year	Women	Men
1928	55%	45%
1948	41%	59%
1958	38%	62%
1968	22%	78%
1973	20%	80%

[2]Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, Opportunities for Women in Higher Education, (Berkeley, California, 1973) p. 124.

[3]David Coursen, "Women and Minorities in Administration," NAESP School Leadership Digest Series No. 11, 1975, p.16.

Other statistics provide comparative information about women and men in education. Women hold only 20 percent of the master's degrees and 8.5 percent of the doctorates in education administration. The number of men entering the entire education field has been steadily increasing, although women still constituted 66 percent of the nation's public school teachers in 1973.[4]

After examining relevant data, Coursen (1975) states that of all the women working full-time in public schools, almost 96 percent are teachers, nurses or librarians. Noting that women principals are older and more experienced than men principals, Coursen asserts that a woman must be better qualified than a man if she plans to become a school administrator. Finally, of the women who are principals, fully 95 percent of them work in the elementary schools.

Studies show that women who retire from administration are frequently replaced by younger men, rather than women. The median age of all women principals rose from 51 to 56 years between 1958 and 1968, while that of men remained fairly stable at 44 years.[5]

Howard (1975) points to the increasing numbers of male teachers. Their percentage has increased in the past

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[4]National Education Association, Research Division Report, 1973-75, 26th Biennial Salary and Staff Survey of Public School Professionals, 1972-73.

[5]Coursen, "Women in Administration," p. 17.

ten years at a rate of 59 percent, as compared to 3 percent for females. Howard concurs that even though women still far outnumber men in the teaching profession, comparatively fewer of them advance into administration. Further, Howard contends, men tend to earn more and advance faster in administration than do women, even though the men have less experience. The kinds of administrative positions finally obtained by males and females are different, as well. Men are likely to hold a variety of administrative roles in their careers. Women are less likely to advance to other administrative roles beyond the principalship.

Mickish (1971) reports that men advance faster with less experience than women. She states that 67 percent of the male principals in her study had _less_ than six years of elementary classroom experience prior to promotion. This compares to the 88 percent of the female principals who were promoted _after_ six or more years of elementary teaching experience.[6] Further, Gross and Trask (1964) found that as many as 34 percent of the male principals in their study had _never_ taught in the elementary school, while only 3 percent of the women principals did not have such experience.[7]

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[6]Ginny Mickish, "Can Women Function as Successfully as Men in the Role of Elementary Principal?" Research Reports in Educational Administration, Volume II, No. 4 (Boulder, Colorado: Bureau of Educational Research, University of Colorado), p. 4.

[7]Neal Gross and Anne E. Trask, Men and Women as Elementary Principals, Final Report No. 2, Cooperative Research Project No. 853 (Boston: Graduate School of Education, Harvard University, 1964).

Schmuck (1975) maintains that women have <u>never</u> held influential positions in American schools. She agrees that women's representation as superintendents, high school principals and elementary school principals has declined throughout the country over the past ten years. However, she notes that women have always been under-represented in the management field, even though they have dominated at the classroom level since the advent of compulsory education. Schmuck states:

> . . .the concern about the decline of the species
> of women administrators masks the more important
> fact that women have never even approached parity
> with men in holding positions of formal managerial
> power in school districts.[8]

Schmuck suggests that historical shifts cannot explain fully the disparity between men and women in administrative positions. One conclusion seems indisputable: females may staff the public schools in this country but it is essentially males who administer them.

Need for the Study

What accounts for the disparity between the percentages of men and women in education administration? Researchers have suggested several possible reasons and have conducted studies to substantiate their hypotheses.

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[8]Patricia Ann Schmuck, "Sex Differentiation in Public School Administration," <u>Wanted: More Women Series</u> (Washington, D.C.: National Council of Administrative Women, 1975), p.

Career Aspirations

The effect of aspiration levels has been suggested, reflecting the belief that women are much less likely to aspire for high status careers as compared to men. If women do not aspire for high status careers, it would seem reasonable that they would not be well-represented in such careers. Research on aspiration levels and career goals has been conducted with high school students, college students and teacher populations. An example of a recent study using the teacher population was done by Dias (1976). She studied the career aspirations of male and female teachers. She noted the difficulty of separating aspirations for administrative positions and receiving encouragement for those aspirations. Dias asked,

> Do women not aspire to administration because of
> lack of encouragement and expectations on the
> part of administrators, or do administrators
> hold low expectation levels and withhold encour-
> agement from women to enter administration be-
> cause of perceived lack of inspiration on the
> part of women teachers?[9]

Dias suggests that the answer to this question is invariably linked to societal expectations for both men and women, including perceptions of a woman's role. As a result of her research, Dias concluded that although the percentage of female teachers with administrative

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[9]Sally Dias, "The Aspiration Levels of Women for Administrative Careers in Education: Predictive Factors and Implications for Effecting Change," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Educational Research Association (San Francisco, April 19-23, 1976), p. 6.

aspirations is much lower than for male teachers, a much greater percentage of women aspire to those roles than is indicated by their representation in the profession.

Since the path to higher administrative positions such as directors of curriculum areas, assistants to super-intendents, and the superintendency itself, is almost certain to include experience at the principalship levels, it seems prudent to compare men and women currently serving in this role. Do elementary principals have similar aspirations for future promotion? Do the aspirations of male and female principals differ? Research is needed to provide data on the topic of aspirations. If it could be demonstrated that women principals lacked interest in further promotion, this would help explain why so few are found in other administrative positions. If women expressed aspirations similar to those of men, then this factor would receive less credibility as an explanation for low female representation in administrative ranks.

Making Aspirations Known

As a topic related to that of aspirations, researchers have described the manner in which prospective asministrative candidates share their aspirations with others. For example, there is research to show the importance to the individual teacher in getting the attention of a superior. Interest in advancement must be known to others, especially those in positions of authority. This

requires the individual to proclaim "candidacy" even before
an opening is available. Griffiths, et al. (1965), Blood
(1966) and Greenfield (1975) studied teachers to determine
how they "announced" their candidacy. Each researcher ob-
served that candidates with high motivation to become ad-
ministrators exhibited behavior called "get the attention
of superior," or GASing. This term refers to such teacher
acts as taking responsibility for teacher-in-charge of the
lunchroom, administrator of field day, chairman of teacher
interest committee, etc., or any other opportunity for the
teacher to impress the superiors. None of the responsibi-
lities need provide extra salary but they do give increased
visibility, increased proximity to the superior and the
opportunity for recognition.

By what means do principals announce their candi-
dacy for higher positions? If men and women have similar
aspirations, are the aspirations announced in a similar
fashion? Do principals engage in GASing behaviors? It
has been suggested, but not researched, that women tend to
remain silent about their career goals, while men pursue
them openly. Without knowledge of an individual's inter-
est in advancement, superiors may mistakenly assume silence
to mean lack of aspirations. Little empirical research
has measured the behavior of principals who seek promotion.
Research is needed to provide data on this topic.

Feeling Support for Aspirations

Another area related to aspirations is the extent to which a person feels that his/her career goals are supported by superiors. The question raised earlier by Dias is central to this issue.

It has been suggested that men are more likely than women to feel support from administrative superiors for their career goals, but the topic has not been measured systematically. Do men and women perceive support related to aspirations or is it independent of aspirations? Research is needed to measure the perceived support to men and women principals for their career goals from administrative superiors. Since superiors would be in a position to assist an aspiring principal, their support would appear to be important.

Assistance from Mentors

Two other factors have been suggested as contributing influences in eventual promotion to a higher administrative position: mentors and informal social events. The mentor or "benefactor" frequently aids in the advancement of an administrator. Usually the mentor is older and in a position of authority. Most teachers who are promoted into a principalship are assisted by a mentor. The mentor recognizes the talent and ambition of the younger person and dispenses advice, takes the novice "under his wing," helps teach how things are done and socializes the one aspiring to the higher ranks. The mentor provides informal

teaching and often opens doors unknown to those who lack the benefits of such assistance. The mentor has contacts in the profession and these are shared with the aspirant.

Can both men and women principals identify a mentor who helped fashion their administrative careers? Do mentors exist just for teachers who wish promotion to the principalship, or do they continue to serve principals as they advance further in their careers? Because there are so few women in positions beyond the principalship, who serves as mentors for the aspiring female principal? Do men and women principals have mentors with the same frequency? It is suggested that women do not have mentors as frequently but that they may turn to family and friends outside education to provide counsel. No empirical data exists on this topic. Research is needed to provide data about the incidence of mentors for men and women principals.

Informal Social Events

Schmuck (1975) notes that many opportunities for administrative training exist in informal settings:

> . . .over the cold beer after the grueling meeting, during the coffee break during the day, on the golf course, in the swimming pool, or in the evening relaxing with people who share common problems and similar interest.[10]

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[10]Schmuck, "Sex Differentiation," p. 121

She maintains that women are intentionally or unintentionally excluded from this informal socialization process. Further, since so few females are represented and most school administrators are male, the informal associations tend to be exclusively male. It has also been suggested that men seem to understand the importance of such events. They recognize the importance of the settings to learn new information, to maintain or form new and helpful contacts, and to be in the proximity of others in positions of authority. This topic has not been studied systematically. Do both men and women principals recognize that informal socializing between school district administrators occurs? Do both men and women think such events are important to their career advancement? Do both participate in such events with similar frequency?

Striving for Salary Increases

One of the benefits of promotion from teacher to principal, and from principal to a superior administrative position, is that of salary increases. One need not necessarily wait to be promoted before receiving substantial wage increases, however. There are often salary variations among administrators holding the same position in the same school district, even when obvious factors such as length of experience, advance degrees held, number of teachers being supervised, etc., are taken into account.

Unless an administrator is paid according to a strict salary schedule, it is possible to improve the salary through skillful contact with the supervisor or superintendent. The business world tends to operate on such a basis. It is frequently the interaction between the employee and the employer that helps set salary figures. In the business setting it has been observed that women are much more likely to wait for their bosses to notice their efficiency and reward them accordingly with salary increases. Men are much more likely to approach the boss directly to discuss the salaries they think they deserve.

Cherryholmes (1974) found that the majority of male and female elementary principals had approached their superintendents about a wage increase at some time in the past. However, male principals were more likely to have plans to talk to the superintendent in the future about the wage increase they thought they deserved. Women were more apt to trust the superintendent to provide a satisfactory wage increase without having to approach him about it.[11]

There is a scarcity of data about the frequency with which men and women principals have discussed salary figures with their superiors and how they feel about asserting themselves to seek such increases.

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[11]Lynn Cherryholmes, "The Extent to which Women Public School Administrators Strive for Salary Increases," Michigan State University, 1974.

Purpose

The purpose of this study was to determine the differences between male and female elementary principals regarding their career aspirations and the ways they seek to fulfill those aspirations.

Research Questions and Hypotheses

Research Questions

Several broad research questions guided the research. Specific hypotheses are stated immediately following the research questions below:

Increases in Salary: Are there differences between men and women principals in the ways they seek salary increases? Are men more likely to approach the superintendent to discuss the topic openly? Are women more likely to wait to be noticed and rewarded for their work?

Aspirations: Are there differences between the aspirations held by male and female principals? Do men aspire more for positions of greater authority and responsibility than do women? Are women as motivated toward central office administrative positions? Are men more likely to see the principalship as a training ground for other positions?

Sharing Interest in Promotion: Do both men and women discuss their aspirations with other administrators who are in a position to offer advice and encouragement? Do women wait to be asked to apply for positions?

Assistance from Mentors: Does a mentor have a role in the professional lives of both men and women? Are men more likely to have a mentor in education? Does the family provide support for women that is supplied for men by people in administration?

Support for Aspirations: Do both men and women perceive similar encouragement from other administrators for their career advancement? Do women feel that they are encouraged to be ambitious?

Informal Social Events: Do principals perceive that informal social events play a part in the promotion process? Do men and women participate with equal frequency?

Hypotheses

The following hypotheses will be tested in this study:

Hypothesis 1: Men are more likely than women to seek salary increases.

Hypothesis 2: Men are more likely than women to aspire for positions of greater authority and responsibility.

Hypothesis 3: Men are more likely than women to communicate to others their interest in promotion.

Hypothesis 4: Men are more likely than women to have a mentor in education who encourages and helps guide their careers.

Hypothesis 5: Men are more likely than women to feel support from central office administration for their career goals.

Hypothesis 6: Men are more likely than women to engage with their colleagues in informal interactions of a type that may lead to career advancement.

Definition of Terms

In hypothesis 1: " . . . seek salary increases." is defined here as all verbal and/or written messages from the principal to the superintendent on the topic of salaries, sent in hope of obtaining a wage increase.

In hypothesis 2: " . . . aspire for positions of greater authority and responsibility . . ." is defined here as future plans or career goals in which the final occupation sought exceeds the principalship in salary, status and power. Such positions are usually in close proximity to the superintendent's office and share a similar district-wide job description. The positions include directors of various curriculum areas, deputy superintendents, personnel directors, assistants to superintendents and administrative assistants.

In hypothesis 3: " . . . communicate to others their interest in promotion." is defined here as verbal and/or written messages from the principal to other education administrators of equal or superior positions, or to professors of education, in which the principal

expresses the desire to advance to administrative positions superior to that of the principalship.

In hypothesis 4: " . . . mentor in education . . ." is defined here as a person who occupies an administrative position in education and who expresses a personal and professional interest in the career advancment of someone aspiring to a position in administration, per se, or further advancement in administration.

In hypothesis 5: " . . . support . . . for their career goals." is defined here as positive responses which are interpreted as encouragement by the principal toward future plans in education.

" . . . central office administration . . ." is defined here as a collective label used to describe all professional occupants of the superintendent's offices, including directors of curriculum, personnel, deputy superintendents, assistants to superintendents and administrative assistants.

In hypothesis 6: " . . . engage with their colleagues . . ." is defined here as participation with other school district administrators.

" . . . in informal interactions of a type that may lead to career advancement." is defined here as either spontaneous or planned social events, usually held outside the school setting during times other than administrative work hours. Included would be such informal gatherings as social invitations to private homes; joining others for

lunch; meeting socially after a school board meeting; playing sports; card games; etc. Numbers of participants may vary from two to several.

Supporting Theory

In all societies, sex typing of occupations occurs. Some occupations are considered "male" and others are known as "female." Some are not assigned to one sex or the other but are held by either male or females. Examples of "male" occupations in American society include dentists, judges, railroad conductors and airline pilots. Examples of "female" occupations include nurses, secretaries, librarians and receptionists. Salespeople are part of a category that includes both sexes.

Howard (1975) notes that only ten percent of American occupations are held by both men and women. The remainder are filled predominantly by both men or women.[12] Teaching is regarded as a "female" occupation, and this condition began during the Civil War. Prior to that time, men had been the teachers, almost without exception. The shortage of men created by the war resulted in the recruitment of women. They were willing to work for low wages and they eventually dominated the teaching field. The status of teaching shifted, partly because of the

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[12]Suzanne Howard, "Why Aren't Women Administering Our Schools? The Status of Women Public School Teachers and the Factors Hindering Their Promotion into Administration." Wanted: More Women Series," Washington D.C.: National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1975, p. 16.

willingness of females to work for low wages and they eventually dominated the teaching field. The status of teach-became low status. It was not until increasing numbers of men joined the teaching ranks at the end of World War II that salaries increased and the profession advanced in status. Now that men are more frequently represented in administrative positions than their percentage in the teaching profession would indicate, theoretical explanations may be needed to understand the disparity.

Theories of vocational choice have been advanced by researchers in several fields. Economists, for example, view the vocational choice problem as one of manpower ecomonics. Sociologists have studied the causes of occupational differentiation, worker roles in groups and the dynamics of occupational choice. Psychologists are concerned with the individual variations as well as other determinants of occupational preferences. It is from the psychologists that much of the theory regarding women in education administration originates. The importance of reference groups and societal messages about sex roles form the basis for much of the theory explaining why women do not seek administrative positions.

Insight into the phenomenon of reference groups is provided by Anderson (1965). He contends that a child's reference groups play an important role in the process of vocational development. Anderson traces the many instances in which the child see various kinds of workers and hears

about many others. The child participates in play activity and pretends to fill one of the roles to which there has been exposure. Family and peer attitudes toward these occupations are reflected in the play activities. These attitudes begin to influence the child's view of which vocations are better than others.

During adolescence and early childhood, the individual becomes aware of the realities of his/her own qualities and of the world of work. Reference groups are now more numerous and more diverse. Even in adulthood, Anderson believes, reference groups play an important role. A teacher's decision to remain in the classroom or to seek an administrative position is influenced by the closest reference group: other teachers.

Anderson reports that a potential candidate will not enter a given vocational field if any of the following conditions exist: (1) if the individual's background dictates the field to be unworthy or undesirable; (2) if his/her data sources are inadequate to provide information about the field; (3) if the individual has a negative impression of the opportunities and challenges available; or, (4) if the individual's self-image is such that he/she would feel incompetent or unable to perform in the field.[13]

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[13]Donald P. Anderson, "Recruiting Leaders for Tomorrow's Schools," The National Elementary Principal 44 (1965): 47-52.

Similarly, Uzell (1961) reports a "definite rela-
tionship between an individual's occupational aspirations
and his personal knowledge of someone who was filling the
specific occupational role."[14]

Coursen (1975) maintains that schools educate
youngsters not only by what is explicitly taught in the
classroom but also by the school's reflection of the so-
ciety at large. When the authority figure is "similar" to
the child, that person may serve as a role model or figure
for the child to observe, admire and emulate. Coursen
cautions that young girls who observe that women teach but
men administer may conclude that the arrangement is in-
evitable and not to be challenged.

Several studies have been conducted to measure the
impact of societal messages to females. Burlin (1976)
studied eleventh grade girls and asked participants to name
their "ideal occupational aspirations" and their "real oc-
cupational aspirations." The researcher found that parti-
cipants made significantly different selections of
occupations in their real than in their ideal occupational
aspirations. The majority of girls chose innovative oc-
cupations (one in which the jobs were held by less than 30
percent women) in their ideal choices, whereas in their
real choices, a minority of girls chose innovative occupa-
tions. Burlin concluded that the desire to pursue a

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[14]Odell Uzell, "Influences of Occupational Choice,"
Personnel and Guidance Journal 39 (April 1961): 668.

broader range of occupations is present in young women.
He reasoned that the girls had to have known of the range
of occupations available or they could not have selected
them as an "ideal" occupation. However, personal and
social forces appear to have limited their belief that in
"real life" these occupations could actually be pursued.

The assumption is often made that a college educa-
tion expands one's horizons in a variety of ways. Karman
(1973) studied over 1600 upperclass college women. Her
results suggest that women perceive a narrow range of
career possibilities because they are fearful of venturing
into a man's world. Karman noted that higher education had
"done little to expand women's awareness of interests be-
yond the sex stereotyped career roles."[15] Apparently, al-
though constraints are usually associated with external
societal prejudice, many women seem to have internalized
or accepted the concept of limited female capacity. Kar-
man concluded that career choices are largely a function
of learned roles, with women seeming to accept a position
of occupational inferiority.

The factors dealing with female reluctance to seek
leadership positions in education were studied by Schmuck
(1975). She advocates a dynamic explanation, reflecting
early socialization patterns in childhood training. She

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[15]Felice Karman, "Women: Personal and Environment-
al Factors in Career Choices," paper presented at the an-
nual meeting, American Educational Research Association,
New Orleans, La., 25 February-1 March 1973, p. 16.

notes that girls learn to be more docile and less asser-
tive than boys, reinforced by their differential treatment.
Boys tend to learn behaviors that lead to a mastery of the
environment; girls learn to elicit help from others to
master the environment. Schmuck states that a strong de-
pendency on other people is developed in girls, with a mo-
tivation to "please" rather than to "master."

Horner (1968) expanded upon the differences between
the behavior of boys and girls and added another dimension.
Her doctoral study measured differences between males and
females in their motivation to achieve in competitive and
non-competitive situations. Horner concluded that women
have a motive to avoid success because of fear of loss of
femininity, fear of social rejection (particularly by male
peers) and anxiety about becoming popular, unmarriageable
or lonely. Horner conceived this motive as an impediment
to women's achieving in a high status career.

The attitudes of women toward themselves center
around their self-image,[16] Holm (1970) believes. They lack
confidence because of "self-doubt" and "self-depreciation,"
and a built-in bias about the basic inferiority of women
compared to men in such things as decision-making and lead-
ership.

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[16]Jeanne M. Holm, "Employment and Women: Cinder-
ella Is Dead," National Association of Women Deans and
Counselors.

Many women see themselves as either unable to perform effectively in decision-making and leadership roles, or to be happy in such roles. Carrol (1972) adds that as long as women "feel incapable of doing the job or think they won't be happy, it is doubtful they will seek it."[17] She states that both women and men behave in ways that are perceived appropriate for their sex. The characteristics important to administration are probably neither masculine nor feminine; either sex could develop them. However, it would mean a change in our concept of "woman."

Schmuck also believes that women are the reason for their absence in administration:

> The social and psychological dynamics of being female in our society is one important causative factor leading to women's underrepresentation in school management."[18]

Finally, Hoffman (1972) summarizes the research on women's achievement:

> The failure of women to fulfill their intellectual potential has been adequately documented. The explanation for this is so plentiful that one is almost tempted to ask why women achieve at all. Their social status is more contingent on whom they marry than what they achieve; their sense of femininity and others' perceptions of them as feminine is jeopardized by too much academic and professional success; their husband's masculinity, and hence their love relationship as well as their reciprocal sense of femininity, is threatened if they surpass him; discrimination against women in graduate school admittance and the professions

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[17]Mary A. Carrol, "Women in Administration in Higher Education," Contemporary Education 43: 214-218.

[18]Schmuck, "Sex Differentiation," p. 76.

puts a limit on what rewards their performance
will receive; their roles as wives and mothers
take time from their professional efforts and
offer alternative sources of self-esteem. Per-
haps, most important, they have an alternative
to professional success and can opt out when the
going gets rough . . . but women's underachieve-
ment must have roots deeper even than these, for
the precursors of the underachieving women can
be seen in the female child."[19]

The low incidence of females in education adminis-

tration may be explained by a combination of factors.

First, women's own attitudes about themselves may act as

roadblocks to their advancement. Second, societal atti-

tudes including discriminating practices, may serve to re-

inforce the women's feelings and result in their continued

placement in non-administrative positions.

Society is now involved in the re-evaluation of

traditional sex roles and the limitations placed by sex

role stereotypes upon the opportunities for both sexes.

If traditional sex roles are modified significantly, re-

sulting in less sex-typing of occupations, both men and

women will be encouraged to explore new career opportuni-

ties.

Overview

A discussion of the problem to be investigated be-

gins the first section of Chapter I. A description of

the declining representation of women in education

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[19]Lois Wladis Hoffman, "Early Childhood Experi-
ences and Women's Achievement Motives," Journal of
Social Issues 28: 129-130.

administration and the factors which may be related to this decline are included. The need for further research is found in the second section. The particular contributions this study will make to an understanding of the problem are explained in the second section, as well. The purpose of this study is explained in section three. Several broad research questions are included in fourth section. The final hypotheses to be tested in this study and a definition of terms are provided in the fourth section, as well. An elaboration of the theory upon which this research is based is found in the fifth section.

A review of the pertinent literature is presented in Chapter II. Included as major categories are the factors most frequently cited as reasons for the decline of women in administration. These include: (1) studies comparing the capabilities of male and female principals; (2) studies investigating discrimination toward female principals by school superintendents, administration and school boards; (3) studies comparing the additional training and graduate degrees held by males and females in education; (4) studies concerned with the career aspirations and motivations of women in education; and (5) studies focusing on the encouragement from other administrators toward women to enter the field. The implications of the literature and research reviewed in this chapter are summarized and their relationship to this research is described.

A description of the research design used in this study is found in Chapter III. The chapter is divided into three sections. The first section includes a discussion of methods used to investigate attitudes and a description of the use of attitude scales. Also included is an explanation of the manner in which the instrument used in this particular study was developed. Methods used to establish validity and reliability for the instrument are explained. The second section of Chapter III is devoted to the method followed to select a sample population for study. The third section of this chapter concerns the statistical analysis model to be used. A final list of the six hypotheses and their corresponding null hypotheses concludes Chapter III.

An analysis of the results is the focus of Chapter IV. The six hypotheses are presented, in order, with accompanying tables and appropriate information. Specific information regarding the rejection or acceptance of each hypothesis is provided.

A summary begins Chapter V, describing briefly the research undertaken in this study. Following this is a listing of the major findings or conclusions of the data analysis. These findings are integrated with the research theory in the next section of Chapter V, which is devoted to a discussion of that topic. A final section contains suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Introduction

Chapter II is divided into two major sections. Reviews of literature and research in five categories are found in the first section. The categories are: (1) comparisons of male and female capabilities as principals; (2) discrimination toward female principals; (3) additional training and graduate degrees held by males and females in education; (4) studies focusing on the career aspirations of women and their apparent lack of interest in administration; and, (5) encouragement from other administrators toward men and women entering the administrative field. A final category provides information relative to the status of men and women principals in Michigan and a discussion of salary figures.

The second section of Chapter II is devoted to a discussion of the implications of the research and literature reviewed in the first section, and their relationship to this particular research.

A summary completes the chapter.

<u>Literature Review</u>

<u>Comparisons of Male and Female</u>
<u>Capabilities as Principals</u>

Studies which compare male and female achievement levels begin long before the subjects reach adulthood. Considerable public school testing in academic achievement, for example, has been conducted for many years. From such research, several outcomes have been consistent over the years and across the country. Girls tend to learn to read at an earlier age than boys. They also score higher than boys on standardized achievement tests administered in the early school years. By the onset of adolescence, however, the trend has usually reversed. By high school, boys tend to score higher on achievement tests than do girls and they also tend to remain for more years of schooling than do girls. The number of males who enter college exceeds that for females and the numerical differences between the sexes grows even larger by the time graduate school is reached.

Although there have been many studies focusing on the school achievement levels of males and females as students, there have been comparatively few studies measuring the performance of men and women as school administrators. The differences between the administrative styles of men and women principals was researched by Grobman and Hines (1956). They designed a study to sort out successful principals, based on the assumption that high frequency of the use of the democratic process was

desirable. The result was that women principals ranked significantly ahead of men as democratic leaders, at least as perceived by the teachers who worked for them.

A similar finding was reported in another study by Wiles and Grobman (1955). Principals were asked to respond to a checklist of fifty-five key situations frequently encountered by school principals. The researchers categorized the responses into the following types of leadership styles: autocratic, demographic, and laissez-faire and concluded that women ranked significantly ahead of men as democratic principals.

Similar results were reported by Gross and Trask (1964). The Gross and Trask study compared men and women elementary principals on a number of variables, such as personal background, time of career decision, educational values and reactions to specific managerial responsibilities. The researchers hypothesized that women principals would induce more professional performance from the teachers in their schools than men. The hypothesis was upheld when an analysis showed that this was not a function of the principal's age or the staff's experience.

Extending the hypothesis further, Gross and Trask predicted that in those schools where the teachers performed in a more professional manner, the students would do better academically; therefore, schools run by women principals would produce more capable students. This prediction was upheld, as well, and the finding was

statistically sustained across socioeconomic levels and in all subclassifications of data by region, size of city, size of school, and mean age of staff. Although the researchers generalized from a population of 189 (98 men and 91 women), they felt confident in the major finding that women elementary principals gave a superior performance relative to men.

Other researchers have examined attitudes toward the administrative style of principals. In his research of the attitudes of education graduate students toward female and male principals, Milanovich (1966) found that an overwhelming majority of students indicated a preference for men principals, whether or not they had actually worked for principals of both sexes. Among the reasons given:

> . . . male principals were described as being more democratic, more sympathetic, more understanding, more pleasant, more congenial, more relaxes and more personally interested in their teachers. Many students further claimed that the men are not as critical, allow more freedom to teachers, do not supervise as much, do not get excited as easily and can be approached and influenced more easily. An equal number of students pictured women principals as being too autocratic, too demanding, too critical, too particular, too moody, too emotional and too "nosy." Moreover, they criticized the women for giving too much concern to petty matters, for supervising too much and for being too deeply involved in their work.[1]

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[1]Anthony Milanovich, "Gentlemen Before Ladies?" New York State Education 54 (Spring 1966):18-19.

Contradictory findings were reported by Hoyle (1969). A group of teachers in this survey rated female and male principals equal in ability and similar in personal qualities. Moreover, women teachers preferred women principals more often than did men teachers. However, men teachers who had taught in schools administered by women were more favorable to women principals. The only men who disapproved of women principals were those who had taught only under men.

The research does seem to indicate that women and men perform administrative duties with somewhat different styles. In an elaborate study, Hemphill et al. (1962) sampled 232 elementary principals. The researchers developed a complicated set of simulated materials and projective techniques dealing with a hypothetical school. The final strategy was to give principals an "in-basket" filled with a variety of memos and letters dealing with both routine and crisis situations. The principals were to make actual responses to these in-basket items. Additional instruments, such as tests of ability, interests and personality, were also given to the subjects. Finally, the opinions of teachers and superiors on the performance and ability of these principals were collected.

The researchers used a scoring system for the projective techniques. Forty categories were developed and composite scores were calculated. Factor analysis was used to probe the relationship of the different variables

of the study. When principals were evaluated by teachers and superiors, both groups revealed somewhat negative responses toward the male principals and generally positive responses toward the female principals. There were specific categories in which women excelled as they dealt with the in-basket situations. Women were better at "exchanging information," "maintaining organizational relationships," and "responding to outsiders." Men were better at "complying with suggestions made by others" and "analyzing the situation."

When teachers rated the different categories, they placed more value on those in which the performance of women exceeded that of men. The researchers concluded that,

> in general, the differences between men and women
> in their performance on in-basket problems is that
> the women involved teachers, superiors and out-
> siders in their work, while the men tended to make
> final decisions and take action without involving
> others.[2]

Others have searched the literature to determine the differences between the capabilities of men and women principals. According to the members of the New York State Commission on the Quality, Cost of Financing of Elementary and Secondary Education (reported in Lyon and Saario, 1973):

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[2]John K. Hemphill et al., Administrative Performance and Personality (New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1962), p. 333.

. . . nothing (in our studies) has convinced us that males are inherently superior to females as educational administrators and we view the de facto discrimination as totally unjustifiable.[3]

The research cited seems to indicate that there is little evidence to claim superiority for either men or women administrators. Schmuck concludes:

. . . if achievement criteria were the primary factor in the selection of individuals to fill administrative positions, women would not be such a distinct minority as administrators.[4]

Discrimination Toward
Female Principals

Scientific data on the incidence and operation of deliberate job discrimination against women in education administration has been difficult to obtain. There are a few notable exceptions to this generalization, however. In a doctoral study on attitudes toward women as administrators, Taylor (1971) found that, all other things being equal, male superintendents were not likely to hire women as administrators. Half the school systems Taylor studied in Connecticut did not encourage women to train or apply for administrative positions. Analysis of the data in this

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[3]Catherine Dillon Lyon and Terry N. Saario, "Women in Public Education: Sexual Discrimination and Promotions." Phi Delta Kappan 55 (October 1973):120.

[4]Patricia Ann Schmuck, "Sex Differentiation in Public School Administration," Wanted: More Women Series. Washington, D.C.: National Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1975, p. 54.

study revealed that the only factor which appeared to have any significance on the hiring process was that of sex. The other variables, such as age, type of position, length of experience, and size of school district, were not significant. Taylor also concluded that teachers were more favorably inclined toward women principals than were either superintendents or school board members.

One of the studies which supports Taylor's work was conducted by Way (1976). This dissertation compared the background, career expectations, and aspirations of men and women public school administrators. A total of 327 elementary and secondary principals and federal program specialists participated in the study. The data revealed that there were differences in the constraints on career progress as perceived by the respondents. A greater proportion of male school administrators indicated lack of training, education, or experience as constraints. Sex discrimination was perceived as a career progress constraint by a greater proportion of female administrators.

> Some supervisors also feel that a kind of locker-room comaraderie is essential to the proper functioning of an administrative "team." Whether or not this has any basis in fact, if a man thinks it is important, he will be reluctant to hire a woman who might not work well with "the boys."[5]

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[5]David Coursen, "Women and Minorities in Administration," NAESP School Leadership Digest, Series No. 11 (1975), p. 22.

Other writers have described the way in which views of traditional women's roles affect thinking. In a position paper sponsored by the Office of Education (DHEW) Niedermayer (1974) concludes:

> Patterns of discrimination are supported by a complex of traditions; sexism in society is reflected in education, which, in turn, assures the continuation of these patterns. Biased selections may be made not so much out of evil intentions as out of a belief that women want certain positions rather than others, out of a misguided desire to protect them from stresses that they are believed unwilling or unsuited to handle, and out of acceptance of many myths about a woman's proper place and role.[6]

Niedermayer also notes that men _and_ women often share many of the stereotypes that affect the preferences of those who select administrators. Among the potent myths Niedermayer describes are: women are too emotional; they do not want to work for other women; they are too passive to be leaders; or conversely they become too aggressive and 'unfeminine' in positions of power.[7]

Niedermayer concludes:

> Marriage and child-bearing is central to the stereotyping of women. However, notions of roles and family patterns are changing. Fewer women are staying home, and some men are opting for a share of child-raising. Even more important, not all women marry; not all married women have children. Yet, individual choices and variations are ignored and are prejudiced because of class stereotype.

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[6]Gretchen, Niedermayer, Women in Administrative Positions in Public Education: A Position Paper (Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Recruitment Leadership and Training Institute, 1974), p. 24.

[7]Ibid., p. 25.

> Stereotypes can also become self-fulfilling prophecies: some women themselves accept them as necessary. . . . There is no point in blaming people for their attitudes. Men and women share many of the stereotypes that affect the preferences of those who recruit, screen and hire administrators.[8]

Job discrimination against women in education administration has as its base the belief that women are not suitable for the demands of the position. Leadership in education has been sex-typed as a male occupation. Insight into the effects of sex-typing in the professions is provided by Theodore (1971). Those occupations in which males are concentrated tend to be more highly professionalized than those in which females are concentrated, and are therefore more prestigious. Theodore maintains that male and female professions are stratified on the occupational continuum according to how the sexes are ranked in society. She notes:

> The male and female professions have historical derivations in which the two sexes have been segregated according to certain characteristics ascribed by the culture to masculine and feminine roles and to the degree of importance attached to their central role functions.[9]

Theodore explains that in the early development of the professions physical strength, endurance and intellectual superiority were considered essential characteristics

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[8]Ibid., p. 26.

[9]Athena Theodore, "The Professional Woman: Trends and Prospects" in The Professional Woman. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Schenkman Publishing Co., Inc., 1971, p. 4.

for the successful performance of the economic roles.

Females were seldom allowed to attend training schools or

to work outside the home in paid positions and males were

able to keep the professions to themselves. The segregated

male professions were seldom invaded by female individuals.

In a similar manner, the female professions

developed as logical extensions of the traditional role

functions of females in society. These tended to be family

tasks requiring nurturing, socializing, and helping. Most

professions considered suitable for women had some over-

lapping functions, a fair measure of meniality and

drudgery, and little financial reward as compared to male

professions.

Broverman et al. (1972) investigated sex-role

stereotypes by designing a questionnaire which asked

respondents to list all the characteristics, attributes,

and behaviors on which they thought men and women differed.

Approximately 100 men and women enrolled in three under-

graduate psychology classes supplied the data. All items

which occurred twice on the list were included in a final

questionnaire. Using this instrument, the researchers

gathered responses from 599 men and 383 women, ages 17 to

60, married and single, with educational backgrounds

ranging from elementary school to graduate school. Even

though the current sex-role definition in American society

appears more fluid than in previous decades, the

researchers reported:

. . . our own findings to date confirm the existence of pervasive and persistent sex-role stereotypes.[10]

These stereotypes reflect the belief that men and masculine characteristics are more valued in this society than are women and female characteristics. The existing stereotypic differences between men and women are approved of and even idealized by large segments of American society. Broverman et al. add:

> Women are perceived as relatively less competent, less independent, less objective and less logical than men; men are perceived as lacking inter-personal sensitivity, warmth and expressiveness in comparison to women. Moreover, stereotypically masculine traits are more often perceived to be desirable than are stereotypically feminine characteristics.[11]

Bem (1973) states that differential treatment of the sexes starts as early as two days of age: mothers touch, speak and hover more over girl infants than they do boys. The differential treatment continues: boys are encouraged to be aggressive, competitive, and independent, whereas girls continue to be rewarded, especially by their fathers, for being passive and dependent. Little boys climb trees and get dirty; little girls are expected to stay in the yard and keep clean. The sexes are usually given different kinds of toys and their play behavior is different.

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[10]Inge Broverman et al., "Sex Role Stereotypes: A Current Appraisal," Journal of Social Issues 28 (February 1972):64.

[11]Ibid., p. 75.

As children grow older, a different kind of sex-
role training is introduced. Boys are encouraged to take
more of an interest in math and science but girls get a
very different kind of encouragement. Bem concludes:

> Socialization of the American male has closed off
> certain options for him, too. Men are discouraged
> from developing certain desirable traits such as
> tenderness and sensitivity just as surely as women
> are discouraged from being assertive and "too
> bright."[12]

While it is true that many of these socialization
and child-raising practices have been openly questioned in
the 1970s, it is also a fact that women who now qualify
for education administration were raised under conditions
similar to those described above. Bem acknowledges:

> It is frequently argued that a 21 year old woman
> is perfectly free to choose a career if she cares
> to do so. No one is standing in her way. But
> this argument conveniently overlooks the fact
> that our society has spent 20 long years carefully
> marking the woman's ballot for her. . . . Society
> has controlled not her alternatives but her
> motivation to choose.[13]

Bem notes the passage of significant legislation
such as the Equal Rights Amendment, approved by both
houses of Congress in 1972. However, she cautions,

> Even if all discrimination were to end tomorrow,
> nothing very drastic would change. . . . Job
> discrimination does not, by itself, help us to

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[12]Sandra L. Bem, _Training the Woman to Know Her
Place: The Social Antecedents of Women in the World of
Work_ (Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania State Depart-
ment of Education, Bureau of Pupil Personnel Services,
1973), p. 8.

[13]Ibid., p. 11.

understand why so many women "choose" to be secre-
taries or nurses rather than executives or
physicians. . . . Discrimination frustrates
choices already made; something more pernicious
perverts the motivation to choose.[14]

Bem adds that outcomes will not necessarily be
equal once sex-role stereotyping and discrimination are
eliminated. There will probably not be an equal number of
men and women found in each and every occupation. What
will occur, she envisions, is the widest possible variation
in outcomes, reflecting the wide range of individual
differences among people, regardless of their sex.

Additional Training and Advanced Degrees in Education Administration

There is little doubt that men hold more graduate
degrees in education administration than do women.
Shirley McCune (1975) reports that women hold 20 percent
of all the master's degrees and only 8.5 percent of the
doctorates in education administration.[15] She concludes
that the figures suggest the existence of sex discrimina-
tion in the education profession and at the university
level where necessary training occurs.

Data collected by the National Center for Education
Statistics reveal that men outnumber women as enrollees in

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[14]Ibid., p. 4.

[15]Shirley McCune, "Introduction," in Why Aren't
Women Administering Our Schools? by Suzanne Howard,
Wanted: More Women Series (Washington, D.C.: National
Council of Administrative Women in Education, 1975).

education administration at the graduate level. Aggregate U.S. data, taken in the fall of 1973, show that a total of 28,648 individuals were enrolled in education administration graduate courses. Table 2.1 shows that of those students enrolled in the first year of the graduate program, 26 percent were women. At the second year of the graduate program, women numbered only 22 percent.

Table 2.1.--Students Enrolled for Advanced Degrees in
Education Administration, by Level of Enroll-
ment, Sex of Student, Attendance Status--
Aggregate U.S. Fall 1973.*

	Full Time	Part Time	Totals	
First Year Students				
Men	2,217	9,733	11,956	(74%)
Women	676	3,532	4,208	(26%)
Second Year Students				
Men	2,545	7,151	9,696	(78%)
Women	617	2,177	2,794	(22%)

*Taken from Curtis O. Baker and Agnes Wells, National Center for Education Statistics, Students Enrolled for Advanced Degrees Fall 1973 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974), pp. 24, 55, and 81.

Men also outnumber women in actual degrees conferred in education administration. Table 2.2 reflects the number of Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctor's degrees given in 1974-75. During that year, women earned 26 percent of

Table 2.2.--Bachelor's, Master's, and Doctor's Degrees in Education Administration
Conferred in Institutions of Higher Education--Aggregate U.S., 1974-75.*

Bachelor's Degrees Requiring 4 or 5 Years			Master's Degrees			Doctor's Degrees (Ph.D., Ed.D., etc.)		
Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women	Total	Men	Women
7	2	5	10,604	7,873	2,731	1,315	1,094	221
(100%)	(29%)	(71%)	(100%)	(74%)	(26%)	(100%)	(83%)	(17%)

*Taken from Curtis O. Baker and Agnes Wells, National Center for Education
Statistics, Earned Degrees Conferred 1974-75 Summary Data (Washington, D.C.: U.S.
Government Printing Office, 1977), pp. 159-61.

the Master's Degrees and 17 percent of the Doctor's Degrees in education administration.

Enrollment in education administration graduate courses at Michigan State University for spring term, 1978, follow:[16]

Master's Degree		Doctor's Degree	
males	females	males	females
83 (65%)	45 (35%)	62 (82%)	14 (18%)

While men outnumber women at both the master's and doctor's level, women are better represented at the master's level (35%).

The enrollment in education administration at Michigan State University can be compared to total College of Education figures for spring term, 1973, which follow:

Master's Degree		Doctor's Degree	
males	females	males	females
537 (39%)	827 (61%)	415 (58%)	299 (42%)

Women outnumber men at the master's level when the total enrollment for the college of education is considered. At the doctor's level, however, men again represent the majority.

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[16]Data provided by Office of Graduate Affairs, College of Education, Michigan State University, May 1978.

Howard (1975) suggests that advanced degrees may
be a key to administrative appointments. Some writers
suggest that men are favored as applicants into graduate
programs. Others argue that fewer women apply for and
complete graduate programs in education administration.
For whatever reasons, there are fewer women who show an
interest in this advanced work.

In one panel discussion (Broadhead et al., 1966)
a member asked:

> What opportunities does the woman enrolled in a
> university class in education administration have
> when she completes a master's degree program?
> Will the fact that she is a woman automatically
> eliminate her from consideration for administra-
> tive employment? What does reality tell her about
> the mathematical odds she faces?[17]

Lyon and Saario (1973) contend that men have two
alternative routes to administrative positions. The first
route involves remaining in a school system and gradually
advancing through the ranks. For women, this route poses
a dilemma, as Dale (1973) describes it:

> Personal observations by many women seem to suggest
> that hard work and dedication by men educators
> result in promotions, recognition and dollars. For
> women, the reward is often a certificate for faith-
> ful service.[18]

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[17]Herbert Rudman, quoted in a panel discussion in
Broadhead et al., "Going the Way of the Buffalo?" The
National Elementary Principal 45 (May 1966):11.

[18]Charlene Dale, "Women Are Still Missing Persons
in Administrative and Supervisory Jobs," Educational
Leadership 31 (February 1973):125.

Since men are more likely to be chosen to advance
through the ranks via route one, only the second route
remains as a reasonable alternative to women. The second
route requires a graduate degree but makes possible a
return to the district at a higher entry point. Lyon and
Saario state that this route is not successfully attracting
women. The authors note that women are not even moderately
well-represented in education administration graduate pro-
grams or in financial aid programs. Lack of recruitment
for women in university graduate programs is cited by the
authors as a contributing factor.

Career Aspirations of Women and Their Apparent Lack of Interest In Administration

There is comparatively little empirical research
exploring the apparent lack of interest in women toward
administration. Schmuck (1975) has written on the topic
of the search for administrative positions. She notes
that most female administrators have not sought their
positions; they were persuaded to take them. Furthermore,
she adds, when offered a position with responsibility and
influence, many women

> . . . betrayed their beliefs in their own inferi-
> ority: they said, "Who, me?"[19]

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[19]Patricia Ann Schmuck, "Sex Differentiation in
Public School Administration," Wanted: More Women Series
(Washington, D.C.: National Council of Administrative
Women in Education, 1975), p. 45.

Moreover, Schmuck suggests that most women do not formulate their career plans very well. Many women believe in a vague way that they will do something different "someday," but they do not refine their goals further. In contrast, Schmuck believes, men are encouraged, expected, and even pressured to be upwardly mobile and professionally successful. Women do not have the same expectations and many do not break away from the conformity mold, she concludes.

Other researchers have turned their attention to the apparent lack of interest in females to declare themselves as administrative candidates. Niedermayer (1974) notes that school systems face the difficulty of distinguishing between female teachers who wish to make teaching their final goal and those individuals who prepare themselves for administrative work and seek the challenge of additional responsibilities.

Horner's work may suggest an explanation for the failure of women and declare themselves as candidates. Horner (1968) investigated the differences between young adult males and females in their motivation to achieve in both competitive and non-competitive situations. Horner concluded that women achieved at high levels in non-competitive situations but dropped in performance once competitive elements were introduced. This was especially true when females were competing against males. The performance of males did not change significantly between

competitive and non-competitive situations. Horner researched the feelings of women in competitive situations and concluded that women have a motive to avoid or fear success. The women frequently feared a loss of femininity, expressed a concern about social rejection (particularly by male peers) and had anxiety about becoming unpopular, unmarriageable, or lonely if they were too successful. Horner conceived this motive as a barrier to female achievement in high status careers.

One study which supports Horner's research was conducted by Gilmore (1975). In her study of achievement in women, she found that age was a significant factor. Gilmore used a questionnaire and projective data from women whose ages ranged from 18 to 50 years to study the relationships of need achievement and motives to avoid success. The results showed that the level of need achievement was significantly related to chronological age. The older the woman, the less importance she gave to sex-role standards of achievement and the less she feared success. In addition, college educated women were found to have higher levels of need achievement than non-college educated women. Women of upper and upper-middle class status also showed more fear of success than did women of middle and lower class status.

Niedermayer maintains that interest cannot be measured solely on the number of female candidates who apply for administrative positions. What she calls a

"chilling effect" may be in operation; that is, a foregone conclusion by potential women aspirants that it is useless to apply because the position will be given to a male.

Even if it is true that a "chilling effect" does discourage many potential female candidates from administration, and given that women generally avoid male-dominated occupations, it is still a fact that some individuals do seek careers in fields where females are the exception. This has attracted the interest of researchers. Trigg and Perlman (1974) investigated social influences on woman's career choices. Data were collected via mailed questionnaires from college applicants in two career fields: traditional (nursing and medical rehabilitation) and non-traditional (medical and dental). Analysis of the results indicated that, as compared to women entering a traditional field, women entering a non-traditional field: (1) considered being married and having children less important; (2) perceived non-traditional careers as compatible with the satisfaction of social and marital needs; and, (3) had a boyfriend who was supportive and tolerant of a non-traditional career. Trigg and Perlman concluded that the attitudes of significant others toward various careers might be as important as specific individuals who had served as role models to the women.

Encouragement from Other Administrators Toward Men and Women Entering the Administrative Field

What about differences between men and women with regard to the "in-house" encouragement for their entry into administration? Howard (1973) notes that administrators often rely on informal, social modes to recruit people. She suggests that this places women at a disadvantage with men in terms of the kinds of informal contacts which may be necessary to insure advancement and promotion. Howard believes that women are unable to take advantage of the "buddy system" since so few other influential women are available to act as "buddies."

Schmuck (1975) elaborates on this point. She describes the way in which men are groomed for administrative positions:

> Advice from an "old hand" is one of the most important means of socialization in any profession; it is here that the aspirants learn the common language and learn the off-the-cuff solutions to problems. Women are intentionally or unintentionally excluded from this informal socialization process. It is primarily the males who are the school administrators and the informal associations tend to be with other males.[20]

When school district personnel anticipate an administrative opening, it is natural for them to consider potential candidates from within the district. The male

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[20]Schmuck, "Sex Differentiation in Public School Administration," p. 121.

superintendent and the other administrators look for recruits: those teachers who emerge as leaders from among the entire group of teachers. Schmuck believes that men may not consciously think about suggesting a female for a position because there are so many male role models; and women teachers do not entertain the idea of becoming an administrator because they do not have female role models to emulate.

Epstein (1971) agrees that entry into the upper echelons of many professions is most commonly gained through the protege or mentor system. The system operates both to train personnel for certain specialties and to assure the continuation of leadership. Epstein particularly notes the interplay between the "master" and the "apprentice" as part of the protege system. At certain levels in the professions, such a relationship and the "in" that it represents are necessary in order for the newcomer to learn the job.

However, the close relationship between sponsor-protege, so necessary to the eventual success of the novice, may be resented by others. The relationship may be particularly restrictive to female advancement. Noting that most executive positions are held by men, Epstein suggests that the sponsor may have mixed feelings about accepting a woman as protege. Although the professional man might not object to a female assistant, he may not prefer her as a candidate. Other role partners--husband,

father, and children--may have diffident and suspicious feelings about the relationship between the sponsor and the protege.

The factors dealing with promotion were studied and reported by Valverde (1974). His research was confined to the initial promotion from teacher to principal, in which a social system of higher status (school administrators) selected new members (teachers) from a lower status social system. Valverde collected data by open-ended interviews and data analysis. His study clarified how the school organization uses socialization in the sponsor/protege practice of a succession.

Valverde notes that the sponsor not only models the norms for the protege but also attempts to channel the protege's informal learning to maximize group allegiance. The sponsor frequently provides an "administrator's perspective" to the aspirant and represents the norms and values of administration to the novice.

Valverde describes the functions of the sponsor:

sanctions: The sponsor must ratify the protege through the school district's formal procedures. These consist of references, written evaluations and recommendations.

advice: The sponsor provides counsel to the protege while training is taking place.

protection: The sponsor shields the protege. This is preventative help so that the initiate does not antagonize superiors.

exposure: The sponsor gives training experiences to the protege so that he gets visibility in various leadership roles.

A sequence of events occurs in the sponsor/protege relationship. First, the sponsor spots a potential candidate. This step is called identification. It is both conscious and subconscious, since the sponsor tends to look for people who resemble his own personal characteristics, professional attitude and behavior. Next comes the announcement: the teacher must declare an interest in administration. This can be accomplished by a simple verbal announcement or the volunteering for extra assignments. The third event, adoption, is always initiated by the sponsor in informal conversation. There is an informal understanding between the sponsor and the candidate that the sponsor will support the candidate. Not all candidates are sponsored, even when they have declared their candidacy. Sponsors usually confine their support to one or two candidates in a one-to-two year period.

The fourth step, training, enables the candidates to learn about administration through demonstration lessons, teacher workshops, setting up schedules and committee leadership. The final stage, advancement, is culminated by transfer of the candidate to another school, a transfer to a special administrative training school (such as found in large school districts) or to a district consulting job.

Valverde notes that if minorities and women do not overtly announce their candidacy, sponsorship is not likely to develop. He emphasizes that "getting the

attention of the superior" is necessary. Simply expressing interest in wanting to become an administrator is not enough. Valverde notes that women and minorities are rarely sponsored by either men or women principals. Certain personal qualities stereotypic of women were perceived by the sponsors in Valverde's study as reasons for so few women being selected as proteges: women are too emotional; the job is too demanding physically; and, women don't have the necessary drive. Some understanding of the reasoning for the attitude of the sponsors is explained by the anticipated success of the protege. Sponsorship hinges on a candidates probability of success. The sponsor needs reassurance that the protege will make it successfully as an administrator. The protege must be an acceptable candidate, not only to the sponsor, but to other administrators, as well. Sponsors take certain pride in the eventual placement of their proteges. If a protege cannot be placed, the belief is that the sponsor, as well as the protege, has suffered in credibility.

As a result of his study, Valverde concludes that women place themselves at a disadvantage by assuming that performing their assigned duties extremely well is sufficient evidence for being identified as a potential administrator. They must openly seek promotion to administration and be perceived as aspiring. Women are more likely to assume they will be spotted and invited into administrative ranks.

Valverde also surmises that sponsors and other significant administrators have the misconception that women have personal and professional disabilities. Therefore, sponsors do not identify women for selection. This results in more training and harder requirements for women. An unhappy conclusion can occur:

> . . . if numerous obstacles are placed for jumping it is not difficult to comprehend why an office seeker will ultimately lose the necessary drive to continue the climb.[21]

Women as Education Administrators In Michigan

In addition to information and data contained in the literature, data regarding the status of women public school administrators were sought. Notable was the lack of such data from sources one might reasonably expect to collect or organize such information. The Michigan Department of Education, for example, was unable to provide extensive comparative data on males and females with regard to either salaries or job assignments. Although there were no state summaries available, the Department of Education does provide individual school district information relative to job assignment by sex and salary by sex.

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[21]Leonard A. Valverde, Succession Socialization: Its Influence on School Administrative Candidates and Its Implication to the Exclusion of Minorities for Administration, Final Report (Washington, D.C.: National Institute of Education (DHEW), 1974), p. 145.

A sample school district summary is reflected in Tables 2.3 and 2.4.

It is difficult to extend the information contained in Tables 2.3 and 2.4 to make judgments about sex and salary. Although Table 2.3 reveals that two females and two males are employed as elementary principals by this particular school district, it is impossible to determine the exact salaries of those individuals. The only information provided in Table 2.4 is mean salary by sex and mean salary by district. Without additional information, it is difficult to judge whether the differences are non-discriminating to women, that is, a reflection of such things as differences in years of experience, advance degrees held, number of teachers supervised, number of weeks worked and quality of job performance; or discriminating, that is, a difference explained by sex and no other variable.

Data were also taken from tables contained in a 1975-1976 Michigan Elementary Principal Association salary summary. The information shows that of the 2,106 elementary principals included in the salary survey, 1,678 (79.6%) were male and 428 (20.3%) were female (see Table 3.5). If the population included in the survey is a representative sample of the entire population of elementary principals in Michigan, then the percentages are quite consistent with national figures cited in Chapter I.

Table 2.3.--Michigan Department of Education Professional
Personnel Job Assignment by Sex, 1975-76
(Okemos Public Schools).*

Assignment	Male		Female		Total
	N	%	N	%	
Superintendent	1	100			1
Assistant Superintendent					
Finance or Business	1	100			1
Instruction					
Plant and Facilities					
Employed Personnel	1	100			1
Research					
Principal, Secondary	2	100			2
Principal, Elementary	2	50	2	50	4
Asst. Principal, Sec.	2	66.7	1	33.3	3
Asst. Principal, Elem.					
Consultant, Special Area					
Consultant, Elementary					
Consultant, Secondary					
Coordinator, Sub. Area					
Supervisor, Elementary					
Supervisor, Secondary					
Spec. Education Director	1	100			1
Consult. St.-Fed. Prog.					
Community Sch. Director	1	100			1
Director, Voc. Education					
Director, Data Processing					
Director, Transportation					
Director, Adult Education					
Supervisor, Spec. Educ.					
Totals	11	78.6%	3	21.4%	14

*From micro-fiche provided by the Michigan Department of Education. Each public school district is summarized in a similar manner.

Table 2.4.--Michigan Department of Education Professional
Personnel Salary Level by Sex, 1976-77 (Okemos
Public Schools).*

| Salary Level | Administrators | | | | Total |
| | Male | | Female | | |
	N	%	N	%	
Less than 5,000					
8,000-9,999					
10,000-11,999					
12,000-13,999					
14,000-15,999					
16,000-17,999	2	100			2
18,000-19,999	3	75	1	25	4
20,000-21,999	1	33.3	2	66.7	3
22,000-23,999	1	100			1
24,000-25,999	2	100			2
26,000-27,999	1	100			1
28,000-29,999					
30,000-34,999	1	100			1
35,000-39,999					
40,000-44,999					
45,000-49,999					
50,000+					
Totals	11	78.6	3	21.4	14
Mean Salary	22,258		20,569		21,896

*From micro-fiche provided by the Michigan Department of Education. Each public school district is summarized in a similar manner. However, there is no further analysis of the data. Nor is there any state-wide summary of salary by sex.

Very little state-wide analysis on comparative
salaries is available, with an exception in the cases of
sex and age summaries. Table 2.5 contains this summary,
but it would be meaningless to analyze this summary data
further. Sex may or may not be a contributing factor to
salary earned. Until other variables, such as those
suggested as cautions about Tables 2.3 and 2.4, can be
held constant, further comparisons between male and female
principals' salaries would produce questionable results.

Taylor (1972) reports that the national average
salary for approximately 80,000 male school administrators
in 1972 was $13,625 but female administrators received an
average of almost $5,000 less.[22] No analysis was conducted
to determine the relationship of variables other than sex,
however.

Implications of the Literature

Much of the literature reviewed in the previous
section reflects sex-role differences between men and
women. It seems likely that the attitudes and prejudices
with which sex-roles are defined in this society are the
outcomes of several influences. They include: (1) child-
hood training, with special emphasis one parental

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[22]Suzanne S. Taylor, "Educational Leadership: A
Male Domain?" Phi Delta Kappan 2 (October 1972):124-28.

Table 2.5.--State of Michigan Elementary Principal Salaries by Sex, 1975-76.*

Salaries	Male		Female		Total
	N	%	N	%	
27,500 + over	92	73.0	34	26.9	126
25,500-27,499	200	82.3	43	17.7	243
23,500-25,499	379	79.5	98	20.5	477
21,500-23,499	306	77.9	87	22.1	393
19,500-21,499	308	83.2	62	16.8	370
17,500-19,409	226	76.1	71	23.9	297
15,500-17,499	122	84.1	23	15.9	145
13,500-15,499	35	85.4	6	14.6	41
13,499 + under	10	71.4	4	28.6	14
Totals	1678	79.6%	428	20.3%	2106

*Data taken from tables in the 1975-1976 Salary Analysis (East Lansing, Michigan: Professional Welfare Commission of the Michigan Association of Elementary School Principals, 1976).

expectations, in which different messages are given to male and female offspring; (2) the values of society-at-large, where males have been the traditional leaders and protectors of the family and nation, while women support and nurture this effort; (3) the belief that serious careers and the traditional role of wife and mother must be incompatible; and, (4) the notion that those exceptional women who do manage to become leaders somehow risk a loss of femininity. These have as their origin the theory described in Chapter I.

Although the study of women as education administrators has attracted attention only recently and although there is not yet a great abundance of empirical research on this topic, two major implications seem clear. First, contemporary social/political movements have focused upon societal values and expectations with regard to sex-roles and the function of women in society. Although there has been considerable critical inspection of sex roles and some modification of traditional expectations of both sexes in the 1970s, there is evidence that expectations for men and women differ, and the basic characteristics ascribed to men and women are different, as well. No matter what the population under study, the research overwhelmingly confirms that different qualities are ascribed to men and women. The effect of those qualities on school leadership, and the sex preferred in a leader because of those qualities, varies within the literature. With just one

exception in all the studies reviewed, the sexes are viewed differently in terms of leadership style, personal characteristics and performance effectiveness. Apparently the variations between the sexes, rather than differences between individuals, sex unspecified, is believed by most people.

Second, the perceived differences between men and women are held and perpetuated not only by men but by women, as well. Further, a woman apparently believes in the disparity between the sexes not only as it applies to other women when compared to men, but to herself.

When women are taught over the years in ways both explicit and subtle that men are more suited for certain roles, they may accept that such differences not only exist but are "fitting." It is a logical and rational sequence: given, men and women have different characteristics; given, men have characteristics more suited to leadership; given, women are not men; therefore, women do not have the characteristics suited to leadership.

The net effect, if a woman regards herself as typical, is likely to be a basic acceptance that only men possess leadership qualities. Believing she lacks such qualities, the woman may not develop the aspirations and expectations for herself in leadership roles that are more evident in men.

The question of aspirations is central to this project. The differences, if any, in regard to aspirations

of men and women principals will help explain the disparity in numbers, not only at the building principalship level, but in higher administrative positions, as well. Both original career goals and future career plans are measured in this study.

This project also answers several other questions directly related to aspirations, that is, how men and women actually fulfill their career goals. Early research suggests that women not only seem to hold lower aspirations than do men, they also appear to be less certain about the "rules" of being further promoted. One significant piece of literature reported earlier showed that women presently serving as school administrators frequently had been asked to apply for the position they held. Personal ambition and aspirations apparently had little influence on their appointment; rather, it was recognition by others that the individual possessed the necessary qualities of leadership. This factor is crucial, for the one consistent element in every study on the topic of succession or promotion to the principalship was the announcement of candidacy. Apparently men understand this very well, but it is less certain that women appreciate the importance of asserting interest in promotion. This project measures the extent to which men and women think it is important to announce candidacy for further promotion.

Closely related to aspirations and the announcement of candidacy is the support of other administrators. It

seems clear that only the most persistent of individuals would continue expressing interest in promotion without some peer encouragement. Such encouragement may be given routinely to competent male principals, since, (1) it is not unreasonable to expect men to aspire for higher positions, and (2) the peers giving the encouragement are most likely to be other males, given the present sex ratio. However, a woman may not experience the same kind of support, even though she is equally competent. Her interest in promotion, if it is announced, may seem such a contradiction to sex-role standards as to make peers uncertain about offering support. If her interest in promotion is <u>unannounced</u>, it is likely that peers will conclude there is no further aspiration. This project provides information about the perceptions of men and women principals regarding the support of others toward career goals.

Significant support from one colleague, especially one older and in a position equal to or exceeding the aspirant in status, can indicate the presence of a mentor or sponsor. Although research consistently stresses the value of a sponsor/protege relationship, it has not been investigated with principals as the population. This project furnishes information about the past and present influence of mentors or sponsors and the extent to which they have assisted in the promotion of men and women principals to their present positions.

The use of social occasions as useful tools in
promotion efforts is also investigated in this project.
It has been suggested that informal social occasions help
by allowing the candidate the chance to become socialized
into the norm of the higher status group. The literature
is not empirical in nature, however, and little is known
about this topic.

One final area, that of salaries, is included for
investigation. While statistics reveal that men are
typically paid more money than women, no other research has
been conducted to determine what effect the efforts of the
individual principal may have on a final salary figure.
The population for study was deliberately selected from
those school districts in which, according to the most
recent data available, salaries were determined on some
kind of "individual" basis. Only in such situations would
it be possible for the principal to influence the amount
of salary. This project provides information about the
incidence of past contacts between the principal and the
superintendent on the topic of salaries, the attitudes of
principals toward those contacts, and their plans for
future contacts.

Summary

The review of literature and research formed the
first section of this chapter. A summary of the major

findings is organized according to the headings used in the first section.

Comparisons of Male and Female Capabilities: Several studies measured the leadership styles of men and women principals and the reaction of teachers to those styles. Research shows that men and women may function with quite different styles. In most instances, women tend to score higher as democratic leaders. There is no consistent agreement as to the reaction of teachers toward the different styles. In some studies, teachers indicate a preference for male leaders; in other studies, a preference for females is documented. Only one study attempted to relate leadership style to student academic outcomes. Women were favored but the study has not been duplicated.

Discrimination Toward Female Principals: Research shows that prejudice may exist toward female principals. Both superintendents and school board members are biased in favor of males. Women principals cite prejudice as a major factor constraining their career advancement; men did not cite this as a factor. Certain myths surround women and they tend to be judged by standards different from those for males. Sex-role stereotypes exist for both men and women. However, the traits ascribed to males are perceived as more desirable.

Additional Training and Advanced Degrees: Statistics confirm the assertion that women hold fewer graduate degrees in education administration than do men.

Men not only account for a higher percentage of enrollees at the graduate level, they are granted more degrees, also. Researchers point out the advantage an advance degree provides to a candidate; nevertheless, women are not well-represented in graduate programs.

Career Aspirations and Interest in Administration: Although there is not an abundance of literature on the topic of aspirations, it appears that women do not formulate career plans and strive for promotions as much as men. In addition, women may not inform their school districts of their interest in administration. The apparent lack of interest in women to compete for administrative positions may be explained by a need to avoid success. Other researchers blame the lack of interest on the realization by women that positions will automatically be filled by men.

Encouragement from Administration: It is suggested in the literature that women teachers may not benefit from the informal contacts and associations with administrators that may lead to eventual promotion. Male administrators may automatically choose male teachers to groom for openings. Few men or women administrators seem to choose women as proteges, one of the most effective of all relationships leading to administrative placement. Women may also depend on others to notice their talents and to promote them to administration. Men tend to be assertive about seeking advancement.

<u>Women as Education Administrators in Michigan</u>:
Statistical data on salary and positions held by sex in
the state of Michigan were included in the final portion
of the first section. Very few state summaries are avail-
able; individual school district summaries are provided
by the State Department of Education. The percentage of
men and women serving as principals in Michigan is com-
parable to national figures.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The methods of research used to complete this study
will be described in three major sections in this chapter.
First, the procedures used in development of an attitudinal
scale will be detailed. These procedures involve (1) devel-
oping statements for each of six hypotheses; and, (2) estab-
lishing a measure of test validity and reliability for the
instrument.

Second, the techniques utilized in selection of a
sample of Michigan's elementary principals will be explained.
The way in which the data was gathered will be described.

Third, the statistical models used to analyze the
data will be explained. A statement of the hypotheses de-
veloped for this study concludes the chapter.

Developing the Test Instrument

Approaches and Assumptions

There are three major approaches to the investiga-
tion of attitudes. In some research, the observance of
overt behavior may be the most appropriate method. In
others, direct questioning of attitudes held about a given
topic can be used to gather information. However, neither

the method of direct questioning nor the observation of behavior are appropriate to this study. Both are inconvenient as methods to measure large groups of people. Few researchers have the time and facilities to note in detail the behavior of all the individuals identified as the population of interest. Further, both methods lack a means of assessing the degree of affect or feeling individuals may hold. Instead, both methods yield somewhat crude classifications of attitudes.

Interest in a convenient measure of attitudes led to the development of the third approach, attitude scales. Attitude scales can be used with large groups and they provide an assessment of the degree of affect held by individuals.

Thurstone[1] was a pioneer in the development of psychological scaling methods and his definition of attitudes survives today: "Attitudes are the degree of positive or negative affect associated with some psychological object."[2] Psychological object can mean any symbol, phrase, slogan, person, institution, ideal or idea toward which people can differ with respect to positive or negative affect. The

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[1]L.L. Thurstone and E.J. Chave, The Measurement of Attitude, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1929.

[2]L.L. Thurstone, "Comment," American Journal of Sociology 52 (1946): 39-50.

terms "affect" and "feelings" are similar in meaning and are often used interchangably in the literature.

An attitude scale consists of a number of items that have been edited or selected according to certain criteria. The items included in the attitude scale are called statements. A statement can be anything that is said about a psychological object.

Thurstone reasoned that an individual who has as- sociated positive affect or feeling with some psychological object is said to <u>like</u> that object or to have a favorable attitude toward the object. In contrast, an individual who has associated negative feelings with the same psychological object is said to <u>dislike</u> that object or to have an unfav- orable attitude toward the object. One of the major assump- tions in the construction of attitude scales is that there will be some differences in the <u>belief</u> and the <u>disbelief</u> systems of those with favorable attitudes and those with unfavorable attitudes toward some psychological object. <u>Beliefs</u> can be defined as all statements relating to a psy- chological object that a persons agrees with or accepts. <u>Disbelief</u> means all statements about the object that a per- son disagrees with or rejects. There is also a third group of statements that a person may neither accept nor reject; these are statements about which a person is undecided, doubtful or neutral.

The set of statements are accompanied by a Likert-type scale reflecting a psychological continuum from least to most favorable of equal intervals. It is assumed that the agree and disagree responses made by a person are a function of the degree of affect associated with the psychological object identified in the statement.

Development of Statements

An attitude scale was devised to gather information for this research. In order to develop statements for the study, each hypothesis was examined to note the elements central to the relationships stated in the hypothesis. Several statements were drafted and revised for each hypothesis. Factual statements were discarded, since they do not measure attitude. Statements that appeared ambiguous were also eliminated.

Finally, four or five statements that appeared to be the most appropriate for each hypothesis were chosen for inclusion in a validity check. A total of five hypotheses and twenty-three statements were included in the trial instruments of validation purposes.

Validation of Statements

Researchers who investigate attitudes often find it necessary to invent indirect means to measure psychological properties. One of the necessary characteristics of any test, including attitudinal rating scales, is the validity of the instrument. One common definition of validity is

that a valid test or instrument measures what it is intended to measure.[3] Without a measure of validity and some reassurance of what is being measured results would be doubtful.

There is no single measure of validity appropriate to all instruments. As many as four major types of validity have been identified by a joint committee of the American Psychological Association, the American Educational Research Association and the National Council on Measurements Used in Education:[4] predictive, concurrent, content, and construct. Predictive and concurrent validation are very similar; they differ only in time dimension. Both are characterized by prediction to an outside criterion and by checking a measurement against some outcome, either now or in the future.

Construct validation is concerned with the theory behind a test, theoretical constructs and empirical testing of the hypothesized relations. Content validation is the representativeness or adequacy of the substance of an instrument. Content validation answers whether or not the test content is representative of the universe of content

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[3]Fred Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1964, 444.

[4]"Technical Recommendations for Psychological Tests and Diagnostic Techniques," Psychological Bulletin 51 (1954) Supplement, 201-238.

of the property being measured. Any property has a theo-
retical universe of content, consisting of all that might
be said or observed about the property.

Theoretically, an ideal test high in content valid-
ity would contain a random sample of this universe. In
reality, precise content validity is difficult to confirm.
Practically, however, it is possible to obtain a reasonable
degree of content validity by systematic study. Experts or
other "competent" judges study each item for its relevance
to the property being measured. Specific directions for
making judgments are provided to the judges and a method
for pooling independent judgments is used.

Content validation for the trial instrument was
selected as the appropriate measure in this research.
Validity was established for the statements through use of
a panel of five judges with expertise in education, educa-
tion administration, and testing and measurement (Appendix
C). Initial contact with each judge described the process
to be used. A packet of information (Appendix D) was mailed
to each panel member.

Each packet contained a cover letter and written
instructions; a statement of each hypothesis and brief back-
ground information; a definition of terms used in the hy-
potheses; twenty-three proposed statements; and a rating
form. Judges were to compare the elements of each hypothe-
sis to the proposed statements, rating each statement as

"appropriate" or "inappropriate" to the hypothesis for which it was designed.

Validity was established for twenty-two of the original twenty-three statements by using the classifications made by the judges on the rating forms. Validity was defined as agreement by four of the five judges as to the appropriateness of each item; items on which at least four judges could not agree were discarded.

Several additional statements were suggested by judges for consideration. These were added to the original statements. One additional hypothesis was created, as well, following suggestions from validation judges. This became hypothesis six; several statements designed to measure the new hypothesis were generated by the researcher in the same manner as the original twenty-three statements. Additional demographic questions were added to the instrument and some renumbering of the original statements resulted in a first draft instrument of sixty-three separate items.

Reliability of Instrument

The term reliability has been used to describe the consistency or dependability of a test instrument. Originally, reliability was defined as the extent to which two applications of the same instrument or of very similar instruments under comparable conditions produce the same results.

There are various reliability operations which reflect the gradual development and differences in the context in which the idea of reliability has been used. Concern with reliability began during a time in which ability or achievement tests were assumed to measure relatively fixed characteristics. As instruments were developed to measure more dynamic characteristics, such as attitudes, it was recognized that (1) the characteristic the instrument was designed to measure might change over time; and that (2) other characteristics in addition to the one intended for measurement could influence the instrument.

The three aspects of reliability that have been used most frequently are stability, equivalence and homogeneity; each aspect involves the use of different methods.[5] Stability is determined on the basis of the consistency of measures on repeated applications. Test-retest procedures are frequently used to estimate the stability of a measure. Fluctuations and inconsistencies can be due to genuine change or to unreliability of the measuring instrument. A stability coefficient indicates the test's ability to reflect relatively enduring differences among individuals in those characteristics that affect the measure.

Equivalence concerns the extent to which different researchers using the same instrument measure the same

[5]Claire Selltz et al, Research Methods in Social Relations, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1976, 182-191.

the same individuals at the same time - or different instru-
ments used by the same investigator on the same individuals
at the same time - yield consistent results. Often alter-
nate forms of a test are administered at the same time to
provide equivalence information.

Homogeneity is determined by internal analysis of
responses to items within a single test. Homogeneity cen-
ters on the internal consistencies of a measure. It is used
when there is no plan for repeated measurement. An original
method used to compute homogeneity was known as equivalent
halves. Each "half" of a test was typically formed by as-
signing odd-numbered questions to one half and even-numbered
questions to the other half. The correlation between scores
on the two parts was considered an estimate of the equiva-
lence coefficient for half the test. Additional computation
provided an estimate of the coefficient for the whole test.

An interest in the comparison of random halves,
rather than equivalent halves, has led to the development
of new methods. The Kuder-Richardson formula 20 gives an
average split half correlation for all possible ways of
dividing the test into two parts. This provides a co-
efficient of equivalence for the entire test.

The Kuder-Richardson #20 formula is suitable for
dichotomous data only. A formula equivalent to the Kuder-
Richardson was developed for data that is not in dichotomous
form. This formula is called Cronbach's alpha. It was

developed as a further refinement of the SPSS (Statistical
Package for the Social Sciences), the computer program used
to analyze the results in this research. The Cronbach's
alpha formula

$$a = \frac{k}{k-1} \left(1 - \frac{\Sigma\, {}_i s_i{}^2/k}{s^2{}_T} \right) = \frac{k}{k-1} \left(1 - \frac{\bar{s}^2}{s^2{}_T} \right)$$

where a = alpha

k = number of items

$s_i{}^2$ = the variance of the measuring instrument

$\bar{s}\,^2$ = the average item variance

was used to determine reliability coefficients for the
instrument.

Selection of Reliability Population

Forty principals were selected as participants in
the reliability measure: twenty female elementary principals
and twenty male principals. Of the twenty male principals,
ten were elementary and ten were secondary principals.

Since all female elementaary principals working in
Michigan school districts identified as "target" districts
were to be included in the final population for this study,
it was necessary to select female participants for the re-
liability measure from other districts. A 1977-78 list of
Michigan school districts and their administrators was

consulted.[6] Female elementary principals were selected
from a total of thirteen different school districts. Male
participants were selected from among districts identified
as "target" districts and from other school districts, as
well. Male principals were selected from a total of ten
school districts. There was a total of twenty school dis-
tricts in eleven counties represented in the reliability
sample population (Appendix F). None of the forty reli-
ability population participants were to be included in the
final population study.

Instrument (Appendix E) were mailed to the forty
participants in the reliability population on March 24,
1978. Thirty-three instruments were completed and returned.
This constitutes a return of 82.5 percent.

Reliability Coefficients

Reliability coefficients were established for ques-
tions measuring the hypotheses. The results are reported
in Table 3.1. Each hypothesis is identified by number.
The questions measuring the particular hypothesis are iden-
tified by number and a corrected item total correlation
figure is provided. The number of cases, mean and standard
deviation are reported for each hypothesis. Reliability
coefficients are listed as alpha figures.

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[6]*Michigan Education Directory and Buyers Guide,
1977-1978,* Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Education Directory,
1977.

Table 3.1.--Reliability Results for Pilot Instrument

Hypothesis Number	Question Number	Corrected Item Total Correlation
One	1	.14001
	2	.42194
	3	.62529
	4	.21616
	5	.36201
	6	.32435
	7	.42589
	8	.73588
	9	.71776
	10	.40040
	11	.10546

N = 19 $\bar{x}$ = 30.15789   standard deviation = 7.04953

Alpha = .75892

Two	12	.66754
	13	.80564
	14	.03978
	15	.81060
	16	.78514
	17	.84726

N - 33 $\bar{x}$ = 20.72727   standard deviation = 5.26351

Alpha = .83979

Three	18	.15700
	19	.36639
	20	.04753
	21	.09091
	22	.40332
	23	.29522

N = 33 $\bar{x}$ = 21.3333   standard deviation = 2.97560

Alpha = .44201

Table 3.1 continued

Hypothesis Number	Question Number	Corrected Item Total Correlation
Four	24	.80035
	25	.53359
	26	.79229
	27	.27292
	28	.45085
	29	.67250
	30	.53562

N = 32   x̄ = 14.84375   standard deviation = 4.90628

Alpha = .82804

Five	31	.57643
	32	.55263
	33	.16211
	34	.66697
	35	.68156
	36	.24985

N = 31   x̄ = 20.96774   standard deviation = 3.45913

Alpha = .72207

Six	37	.33357
	38	.18306
	39	.75770
	40	.60298
	41	.47684
	42	.29582

N = 32   x̄ = 14.0000   standard deviation = 3.39829

Alpha = .68778

Table 3.2. Status of original questions on pilot instrument (hypothesis information)

Hypothesis Number	Original Question Number	Final Status	Final Question Number
One	1 - 11	Retained	1 - 11
Two	12 - 17	Retained	12 - 17
Three	18 - 23	Retained	18 - 23
Four	24 - 30	Retained	24 - 30
Five	31 - 36	Retained	31 - 36
Six	37 - 39	Retained	37 - 39
	40	Deleted	
	41	Deleted	
	42	Deleted	

Table 3.3. Status of original questions on pilot instrument (demographic information)

Original Question Number	Final Status	Final Question Number
43	Retained	40
44	Retained	41
45	Retained	42
46	Retained	43
47	Retained	44
48	Retained	45
49	Retained	46
50	Retained	47
51	Retained	48
52	Retained	49
53	Retained	50
54	Retained	51
55	Retained	52
56	Retained	53
57	Retained	54
58	Retained	55
59	Retained	56
61	Retained	57
62	Retained	58
64	Retained	59
65	Deleted	
66	Retained	60

final question #34: "The central office administrators have either been non-commital or discouraging about my career advancement."

pilot question #35: "The central office administration encourages me to advance in my career."

final question #35: "The central office administrators are presently encouraging me to further my career."

Two demographic questions were altered:

pilot question #59: Age: _____

final question #56: Check your age:

31 and under	31-40	41-50	51-60	60 and over

pilot question #62: Number of years in administration: ____ (count the current school year)

final question #58: Number of years in administration: (count the current school year)

2 or less	3-9	10-16	19-23	24 or more

Sampling Methodology

The population of interest in this study consists of elementary principals in the public schools of Michigan. One factor received consideration in the selection of school districts from which to choose the sample: how administrator salaries were determined in the district. Each public school district in Michigan has been categorized into one of

several methods of establishing administrator salaries.[8]

According to a 1970-71 salary survey,[9] a total of 118

public school districts in Michigan determined administrator

salaries on an "individual" basis.[10]

"Individual" is a method of setting administrative

salaries that is quite distinct from a salary schedule. In

the case of "individual," the superintendent has consider-

able flexibility in setting administrative salaries. In

turn, there is the opportunity for the administrator to in-

fluence the superintendent regarding salary increases. In

most instances, the final figure is a compromise among

variables such as: what the superintendent believes the ad-

ministrator is worth; what the budget will allow; and what

the administrator believes he/she deserves.

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[8]Salary Committee of the Professional Standards
Commission, 1970-1971 Salary Survey, East Lansing, Michi-
gan: Michigan Association of Elementary School Principals,
1971.

[9]Methods of determining administrator salaries were
included for the last time in the 1970-1971 Salary Survey
but this information has been deleted from all annual salary
surveys subsequent to that year. Further, no recent data on
this topic has been gathered by other sources, such as the
Michigan Department of Education, the Michigan Education
Association and Michigan Association of School Administra-
tors.

[10]Other methods of establishing administrator sala-
ries included fixed salary schedules; salaries set by the
school board; salaries set by negotiation units; salaries
determined by the teachers' salary schedule plus a fixed
percentage; salaries determined by an Ad Hoc salary com-
mittee; salaries set by the superintendent or school board
independent of administrator consultation.

These 118 school districts became "target" districts from which the sample would be selected.[11]

The researcher consulted a 1977-1978 list of Michigan school districts and their administrators.[12] From those target school districts in which administrator salaries had been determined on an individual basis in the 1970-1971 school year, the population of principals was identified.

The population was divided into homogeneous subparts or strata of men and women. The entire female population totaling sixty-seven elementary principals was included in the study. A random sample of sixty-seven elementary and sixty-seven secondary principals was taken from the male stratum, making a total of 201 principals selected to provide data for this research. The 201 principals represented eighty-five different school districts in fifty Michigan counties (Appendix G).

Questionnaires (Appendix A) were mailed to the 201 participants on April 26, 1978. A follow-up letter (Appendix B) was mailed on May 4, 1978. One hundred forty-five questionnaires were completed and returned. This constitutes a return of seventy-two percent. Thirteen

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[11]Anticipating that since 1970-1971 some school districts might have altered the way in which administrator salaries are determined, a special response form was developed (see page 2, Appendix F). The response form allowed the respondent to confirm the manner in which administrator salaries are set in the district.

[12]Michigan Education Directory and Buyers Guide, 1977-78, Lansing, Michigan: Michigan Education Directory, 1977.

questionnaires contained incomplete information regarding sex and other demographic information about the respondent. These were eliminated, resulting in a total of 132 completed questionnaires for analysis.

Statistical Analysis

The chi-square (x^2) formula,

$$x^2 = \frac{(f_o - f_e)2}{f_e}$$

where x^2 = chi square

f_o = frequency obtained

f_e = frequency expected

was used to analyze the data and test the hypothesis.

Chi-square is a statistical technique used to test hypotheses. It is a measure of the departure of obtained frequencies from the frequencies expected by chance. Provided there is some way of knowing what the chance expectations are, and provided the observations are independent, x^2 can always be computed. The greater the obtained frequencies deviate from the expected frequencies, the larger will be the x^2.

When the computed x^2 is large, it does not mean that the relationship between the variables being investigated is strong, since x^2 does not measure whether there is a relationship which is not likely to be due to chance. A large value for x^2 means that the null hypothesis can be

rejected with confidence and that a relationship exists between the variables.

The x^2 formula can be used with various population distributions. For this reason, x^2 is called a distribution-free or nonparametric technique. The formula can also be used with nominal, ordinal or interval data. Because of these characteristics, the x^2 technique is frequently used by social scientists.[13]

Values of 5, 4, 3, 2 and 1 were assigned to each of the five possible responses respectively. The Strongly Agree received a value of five while the Strongly Disagree received a value of one. In cases where the question was phrased as a negative relationship to the hypothesis, the values assigned to the five possible responses were reversed.

A "p" value of .05 or less was the level of significance used to test the null hypotheses in this study.

Statement of Hypotheses and Corresponding Null Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1:

Men are more likely than women to seek salary increases.

H_1:

There is no significant difference between men and women in seeking salary increases.

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[13]Herman J. Loether and Donald G. McTavish, Inferential Statistics for Sociologists, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1974, 218.

Hypothesis 2:

Men are more likely than women to aspire for positions of greater authority and responsibility.

H_2:

There is no significant difference between men and women in their aspirations for positions of greater authority and responsibility.

Hypothesis 3:

Men are more likely than women to communicate to others their interest in promotion.

H_3:

There is no significant difference between men and women in communicating to others their interest in promotion.

Hypothesis 4:

Men are more likely than women to have a mentor in education who encourages and helps guide their careers.

H_4:

There is no significant difference between men and women in having a mentor in education who encourages and helps guide their career.

Hypothesis 5:

Men are more likely than women to feel support from central office administration for their career goals.

H_5:

There is no significant difference between men and women in the feeling of support from central office administration for their career goals.

<u>Hypothesis 6:</u>

Men are more likely than women to engage with their colleagues in informal interactions of a type that may lead to career advancement.

H_6:

There is no significant difference between men and women in the engaging with colleagues in informal interactions of a type that may lead to career advancement.

Summary

The research design for this study has been decribed in Chapter III. The investigation of attitudes was explained in the first section of this chapter. The three approaches used to gather information about attitudes include observance of overt behavior and direct questioning. Neither of these methods can be used efficiently with large numbers and both yield crude classification of feelings. A third method, that of attitude scales, was developed to overcome the deficiencies noted above. Thurstone, an early pioneer in the creation of attitude scales, reasoned that responses to the scale statements reflected positive or negative feelings held by the respondent toward the psychological object in the statement. An attitude scale was used to gather data in this study.

In order to create an attitude scale, the researcher developed a number of statements for each of five hypotheses. The purpose was to include in each statement the same elements expressed in the hypothesis. A tentative instrument

containing twenty-three statements was prepared for validation purposes.

A panel of five judges, representing expertise in education, administration and measurement, served as validators. The validation sought by the researcher was content validation. The experts studied each of the twenty-three statements to determine its relevance to the property being measured. Appropriate rating forms were provided to the panel members. Agreement by four of the five judges was necessary; all but one statement was judged valid. Panel members suggested additional statements and one more hypothesis. These were included in the instrument for the next process, that of reliability.

Reliability of an instrument to be administered just once can be established by internal analysis. A formula equivalent to the Kuder-Richardson 20 was selected as the appropriate analysis for reliability. Forty principals, including twenty females and twenty males, were chosen to serve as a reliability population. Twenty school districts in eleven Michigan counties were represented by the forty participants. Reliability instruments were mailed in March 1978. Reliability coefficients were established for the questions measuring each hypothesis. Certain items were revised for the final instrument.

The selection of the final sample was described in the second section of Chapter III. The population of interest consists of elementary principals in Michigan public

schools. Using data from the most recent salary schedule to indicate how administrative salaries are determined, the researcher identified 118 school districts that use an "individual" method to make salary determinations. This refers to annual meetings in which a school district superintendent confers privately with each principal to discuss salary figures. This approach is distinct from other situations in which negotiation units, ad hoc salary committees, an administrative salary schedule or the superintendent and/or school board set salary figures without consultation with the principal.

From a current listing of all Michigan school districts and their administrators, the researcher identified the population for the study. A total of sixty-seven elementary female principals are employed in the 118 districts. The entire population was included for study. A random sample of elementary male principals and secondary male principals was taken from the same 118 school districts. The complete population totaled 201.

The statistical models chosen to analyze the final data were described in the third section of Chapter III. A chi-square (x^2) test was used to test the hypotheses. The chi-square test measures the departure of obtained frequencies from the frequencies expected by chance. A "p" value of .05 or less was the level of significance used to test the null hypotheses in this study.

A final list of the six hypotheses and their corresponding null hypotheses completed this chapter.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF RESULTS

Introduction

Chapter IV presents the findings gathered from the returned questionnaires and the subsequent data analysis. The reliability of the final instrument is presented in the first section of this chapter. Included is a discussion of the retention and deletion of questions, based upon the reliability coefficients.

The second part of this chapter is devoted to an analysis of each hypothesis. Statistical data is provided and information about the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis is included.

A final summary concludes the chapter.

Reliability of Final Instrument

Reliability coefficients were established for the questions measuring each of the six hypotheses. A total of 131 questionnaires were included in the reliability analysis.

The reliability coefficients are reported in Table 4.1. Each hypothesis is identified by number. Each question measuring the particular hypothesis is identified by number and a corrected item total correlation figure is

Table 4.1.--Reliability results for final instrument

Hypothesis Number	Question Number	Corrected Item Total Correlation
One	1	.02354
	2	.13516
	3	.11596
	4	.03288
	5	.47354
	6	.17730
	7	.33856
	8	.43126
	9	.22758
	10	.00631
	11	.00219

N = 80 $\bar{x}$ = 29.88750   standard deviation = 4.72267

Alpha = .43509

Two	12	.71304
	13	.82644
	14	.19822
	15	.77299
	16	.83501
	17	.84996

N = 131 $\bar{x}$ = 18.55725   standard deviation = 5.92279

Alpha = .88451

Three	18	.20131
	19	.09617
	20	.16664
	21	.40776
	22	.49152
	23	.51097

N = 130 $\bar{x}$ = 21.04615   standard deviation = 3.35465

Alpha = .55775

Table 4.1 continued

Hypothesis Number	Question Number	Corrected Item Total Correlation
Four	24	.58353
	25	.46053
	26	.26616
	27	.14948
	28	.50092
	29	.53700
	30	.58799

N = 131 $\bar{x}$ = 14.85496   standard deviation = 3.68599

Alpha = .72886

Five	31	.63786
	32	.61137
	33	.26864
	34	.48991
	35	.40075
	36	.40579

N = 131 $\bar{x}$ = 21.03817   standard deviation = 3.41581

Alpha = .72788

Six*	37	
	38	
	39	
	40	
	41	
	42	

*Program would not compute.   See explanation in text.

provided. The number of cases, mean and standard deviation are also reported for each hypothesis. Reliability coefficients are listed as alpha figures.

The alpha figures for the final instrument differ from those of the pilot instrument. Table 4.2 compares the alphas for all reliability measures. Alpha figures increased in the final measure for hypotheses two, three and five; they decreased for hypotheses one and four. The differences may be due to sampling variability.

The researcher selected those questions with the highest correlation for final chi-square analysis. The minimum level used to determine selection varied with each hypothesis. In the case of hypothesis one, only questions with a corrected item total correlation of .22758 or higher were selected; hypothesis two, .71304 or higher; hypothesis three, .40776; hypothesis four, .46053 or higher; and hypothesis five, .40075 or higher. In the case of the sixth hypothesis, six different items on the pilot instrument had formed a scale. On the final data, there were a sufficient number of non-responses to items 40, 41 and 42 to drop those items. The remaining three items (37, 38, 39) for the final sample failed to constitute a scale.

Table 4.3 lists the questions selected for x^2 analysis. A total of twenty-five questions were selected for further analysis.

Table 4.2.--Comparison of alpha figures for pilot, final instrument and selected final questions.

Hypothesis	Alpha, Pilot Instrument	Alpha, Final Instrument	Alpha, Final Selected Questions
One	.75892	.43507	.60564
Two	.83967	.88451	.92989
Three	.44201	.55775	.71705
Four	.82804	.72886	.78110
Five	.72207	.72788	.74444
Six[*]	.68778		-.67350

*Program would not compute. See explanation in text.

Table 4.3.--Questions selected for inclusion in x^2 analysis.

Hypothesis	Question Numbers	
One	5, 7, 8, 9	(4)
Two	12, 13, 15, 16, 17	(5)
Three	21, 22, 23	(3)
Four	24, 25, 28, 29, 30	(5)
Five	31, 32, 34, 35, 36	(5)
Six	37, 38, 39	(3)
Total		25

Statistical Analysis

Before beginning the chi-square analysis, an index figure from one to five was computed for each questionnaire for each of the six hypotheses. The index figure reflects the mean score of all statements measuring the particular hypothesis. This technique was used to collapse the responses into categories necessary for anaylsis. The following scale determined the index figure assigned:

    equal to or greater than 1.0 and less than 1.5 = 1
    equal to or greater than 1.5 and less than 2.5 = 2
    equal to or greater than 2.5 and less than 3.5 = 3
    equal to or greater than 3.5 and less than 4.5 = 4
    equal to or greater than 4.5 and
    equal to or less than 5.0 = 5

The index figures one through five reflected a continuum of least to most favorable attitudes toward the hypothesis. The figures for each hypothesis were then correlated with variables of sex, age, years of experience, annual income, level of administration and size of school district.[1] In cases where obtained frequencies were very low or zero, further collapsing was done to four, three or two categories. Descriptive labels, rather than index

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[1]Index figures for variables were as follows:
sex: male = 1; female = 2
level: elementary = 1; middle school/jr.hi = 2; high school = 3
age: 30 and under = 1; 31-40 = 2; 51-50 = 3; 51-60 = 4; 60 and over = 5
annual income: $16,999 and under = 1; $17,000-$20,499 = 2; $20,500-$23,999 = 3; $24,000-$27,499 = 4; $27,500 and over=5
years of administrative experience: 2 or less = 1; 3-9 = 2; 10-16 = 3; 17-23 = 4; 24 or more = 5
size of school district: 999 and less = 1; 1,000-1,999 = 2; 2,000-2,999 = 3; 3,000-3999 = 4; 4,000-5,999 = 5; 6,000-8,999 = 6; 9.000-12,999 = 7; 13,000-16,999=8; 17,000 and over = 9.

figures, are used in all tables in this chapter. The results for each hypothesis are presented separately.

Hypothesis One

The following null hypothesis was tested for statistical significance:

H_1: There is no significant difference between men and women in seeking salary increases.

Table 4.4 presents summary data of the questions measuring activity in seeking salary increases. The x^2 of zero with one degree of freedom has a probability of 1.000 which does not allow the rejection of the null hypothesis. It appears that women do not seek salary increases significantly less than do men. The control variables of age, amount of administrative experience, size of school district and actual annual income were introduced in subsequent analyses. No significant differences were found.

Hypothesis Two

The following null hypothesis was tested for statistical significance:

H_2: There is no significant difference between men and women in their aspirations for promotions of greater authority and responsibility.

Table 4.5 presents summary data of the questions measuring aspirations for further promotion. The x^2 of 3.828 with 2 degrees of freedom has a probability of .147 which does not allow the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Table 4.4.--Activity in seeking salary increases by sex.

Amount of Activity	Sex		Row Total
	Male	Female	
Low	23 (79.3%)	9 (75%)	32
High	6 (20.7%)	3 (25%)	9
Column Total N =	29	12	41

$x^2 = .01237$ $df = 1$ $P = .9114$

Table 4.5.--Aspirations for further promotion by sex.

Intensity of Aspirations	Sex		
	Male	Female	
			Row Total
Low	28 (31.8%)	13 (30.2%)	41
Medium	33 (37.5%)	10 (23.3%)	43
High	27 (30.7%)	20 (46.5%)	47
Column Total N =	88	43	131

x^2 = 3.826   df = 2   P = .147

Apparently women do not aspire significantly less than men for positions of greater authority and responsibility.

Other relationships to aspirations were investigated. Table 4.6 presents summary data regarding aspirations for further promotion by age. The x^2 of 21.8682 with 4 degrees of freedom has a probability of .0002. There are significant differences in the amount of aspirations as a function of age. Forty-nine percent of the respondents forty years of age and younger had low aspirations as compared to 13.5 percent of the respondents fifty-one years of age and over. High aspirations increased with age, ranging from a low of 14.3 percent in the forty and under group to a high of 59.5 percent in the fifty-one years of age and over group.

Table 4.7 summarizes aspirations for further promotion by age, controlling for sex, males. The x^2 of 12.1359 with 4 degrees of freedom has a probability of .0164. There are significant differences in aspirations by age when controlling for sex. The pattern is similar to that noted in Table 4.3. Aspirations appear to increase with age for males. It is lowest in the forty years of age and under group and highest in the fifty-one years of age and over category.

Table 4.8 summarizes aspirations for further promotion by age, controlling for sex, females. The x^2 of 9.8564 with 4 degrees of freedom has a probability of .0429. A similar pattern of increasing aspirations as age increases holds true for females as well as males. Aspirations are

Table 4.6.--Aspirations for further promotion by age.

Intensity of Aspirations	Age			
	40 years and under	41 to 50 years	51 and over	Row Total
Low	24 (49.0%)	12 (26.7%)	5 (13.5%)	41
Medium	18 (36.7%)	15 (33.3%)	10 (27.0%)	43
High	7 (14.3%)	18 (40.0%)	22 (59.5%)	47
Column Total N =	49	45	37	131

$$x^2 = 21.8682 \quad df = 4 \quad P = .0002$$

Table 4.7.--Aspirations for further promotion by age, controlling for sex, males.

Intensity of Aspirations	Age			
	40 and under	41 to 50 years	51 and over	Row Total
Low	18 (47.4%)	7 (22.6%)	3 (15.8%)	28
Medium	15 (39.5%)	11 (35.5%)	7 (36.8%)	33
High	5 (13.2%)	13 (41.9%)	9 (47.4%)	27
Column Total N =	38	31	19	. 88

$$x^2 = 12.1359 \qquad df = 4 \qquad P = .0164$$

Table 4.8.--Aspirations for further promotion by age, controlling for sex, females.

Intensity of Aspirations	Age			Row Total
	40 and under	41 to 50 years	51 and over	
Low	6 (54.5%)	5 (35.7%)	2 (11.1%)	13
Medium	3 (27.3%)	4 (28.6%)	3 (16.7%)	10
High	2 (18.2%)	5 (36.7%)	13 (72.2%)	20
Column Total N =	11	14	18	43

$$x^2 = 9.8564 \qquad df = 4 \qquad P = .0429$$

lowest in the youngest age group, forty years of age and younger, and highest in the most advanced age group, fifty-one years of age and older. However, the percentage of females with high aspirations in the fifty-one years of age and older group (72.2%) exceeded that of males in the same age group (47.4%).

One other variable proved significant. Table 4.9 contains summary data regarding aspirations for further promotion by sex, controlling for annual income up to $23,999. The x^2 of 8.4209 with 2 degrees of freedom has a probability of .0148. The aspirations of females appear to exceed that of males when controlling for annual income. Females in the salary category up to $23,999 had higher aspirations than males. Only 18.8 percent of the males were in the high aspirations category, as compared to 60 percent for females.

Hypothesis Three

The following null hypothesis was tested for statistical significance:

H_3: There is no significant difference between men and women in communicating to others their interest in promotion.

Table 4.10 presents summary data of questions measuring the extent to which men and women principals communicate to significant others their interest in promotion.

Table 4.9.--Aspirations for further promotion by sex,
controlling for annual salary up to $23,999.

Intensity of Aspirations	Sex		Row Total
	Male	Female	
Low	5 (31.3%)	5 (33.3%)	10
Medium	8 (50.0%)	1 (6.7%)	9
High	3 (18.8%)	9 (60.0%)	12
Column Total N =	16	15	31

$x^2 = 8.4209$ df = 2   P = .0148

Table 4.10.--Communicating interest in further promotion by sex.

Amount of Communication	Sex		Row Total
	Male	Female	
Seldom	6 (6.8%)	5 (11.6%)	11
Moderate	52 (59.1%)	25 (58.1%)	77
Considerable	23 (26.1%)	7 (16.3%)	30
Frequent	7 (8.0%)	6 (14.0%)	13
Column Total N =	88	43	131

$$x^2 = 3.0733 \qquad df = 3 \qquad P = .3805$$

The x^2 of 3.0733 with 3 degrees of freedom has a probability of .3805 which does not allow the rejection of the null hypothesis.

The control variables of age, amount of administrative experience, size of school district and amount of annual income were introduced in subsequent analysis. Significant differences were found between males and females when controlled for income in one category ($20,500 to $23,999). Table 4.11 presents summary data on this topic. The x^2 of 8.8541 with 3 degrees of freedom has a probability of .0313. A total of 62.5 percent of the males in the income bracket $20,500 to $23,999 communicate their interest in further promotion to a slight degree. This compares to 50 percent for females who communicate their interest to a slight degree. No males were in the highest category of communicating interest in promotion; however, 25 percent of the females communicate their interest in promotion at this level. The small population of eight females included in this particular analysis discourages generalization of the results, however.

Hypothesis Four

The following null hypothesis was tested for statistical significance:

H_4: There is no significant difference between men and women in having a mentor in education who encourages and helps guide their career.

Table 4.11.--Communicating interest in further promotion
by sex, controlling for annual salary
($20,500 to $23,999)

Amount of Sharing with Others	Sex		Row Total
	Male	Female	
Low	3 (9.4%)	1 (12.5%)	4
Slight	20 (62.5%)	4 (50.0%)	24
Moderate	9 (28.1%)	1 (12.5%)	10
High	0 (0.0%)	2 (25.0%)	2
Column Total	N = 32	8	40

$$x^2 = 8.8741 \quad df = 3 \quad P = .0313$$

Table 4.12 presents summary data of the questions measuring the existence of a mentor. The x^2 of 3.013 with 2 degrees of freedom has a probability of .8601 which does not allow the rejection of the null hypothesis. Control variables of age, amount of administrative experience, size of school district and actual income were introduced in subsequent analyses. No significant differences were found for any of these control variables.

Hypothesis Five

The following null hypothesis was tested for statistical significance:

H_5: There is no significant difference between men and women in the feeling of support from central office administration for their career goals.

Table 4.13 presents summary data of questions measuring the support felt by men and women from central office administration for career goals. The x^2 of 5.0884 with 3 degrees of freedom has a probability of .1654 which does not allow the rejection of the null hypothesis.

Control variables of age, amount of administrative experience, size of school district and annual salary were introduced as control variables in subsequent analyses. Of these four variables, three were significant. Table 4.14 presents summary data for perceived support for further promotion by age. The x^2 of 18.238 with 6 degrees of freedom has a probability of .0057. Sixty-five percent of the individuals in the forty years of age and under category

Table 4.12.--Existence of mentor by sex.

Degree of Assistance and Influence from Mentor	Sex		
	Male	Female	Row Total
Low	11 (12.5%)	4 (9.3%)	15
Medium	54 (61.4%)	27 (62.8%)	81
High	23 (26.1%)	12 (27.9%)	35
Column Total	N = 88	43	131

$$x^2 = .3013 \quad df = 2 \quad P = .8601$$

Table 4.13.—Amount of perceived support for further
promotion by sex.

Amount of Support Perceived by Principal	Sex		Row Total
	Male	Female	
Low	5 (5.7%)	5 (11.6%)	10
Slight	50 (56.8%)	20 (46.5%)	70
Moderate	31 (35.2%)	14 (32.6%)	45
High	2 (2.3%)	4 (9.3%)	6
Column Total N =	88	43	131

$x^2 = 5.0884$ df = 3   P = .1654

Table 4.14.—Amount of perceived support for further promotion by age.

Amount of Support Perceived by Principal	Age			Row Total
	40 years and under	41 to 50 years	51 years and over	
Low	7 (14.3%)	3 (6.7%)	0 (0.0%)	10
Slight	32 (65.3%)	24 (53.3%)	14 (37.8%)	70
Moderate	9 (18.4%)	16 (35.6%)	20 (54.1%)	45
High	(2.2%)	(4.4%)	(8.1%)	6
Column Total N =	49	45	37	131

$$x^2 = 18.238 \qquad df = 6 \qquad P = .0057$$

perceived slight support and 18.4 percent perceived moderate support. Approximately 38 percent of the individuals in the fifty-one years of age and over category felt slight support from central office administration for further promotion; 54 percent felt support at a moderate level. It appears there is a trend of increased perceived support as age increases.

Table 4.15 summarizes perceived support by sex, when controlled for years of experience in the seventeen to twenty-three years category. The x^2 of 6.678 with 2 degrees of freedom has a probability of .0355. There are significant differences between males and females for perceived support for further promotion when controlling for years of experience. Slightly more than seventy-one percent of the males with seventeen to twenty-three years of experience perceived moderate support; no women scored in the moderate category. Whereas none of the males perceived high support for further promotion, fifty percent of the females felt support at the high level. Because of the very small population of seven males and four females in this analysis, caution must be exercised when extending the results.

Table 4.16 summarizes perceived support by sex, controlling for annual salary in the $20,500 to $23,999 category. The x^2 of 13.6363 with 3 degrees of freedom has a probability of .0034. Apparently males and females perceive significantly different levels of support from central office administration for further promotion when principals

Table 4.15.--Amount of perceived support for further
promotion by sex, controlling for years
of experience (17-23 years).

Amount of Support Perceived by Principal	Sex		
	Male	Female	Row Total
Slight	5 (71.4%)	0 (0.0%)	5
Moderate	2 (28.6%)	2 (50.0%)	4
High	0 (0.0%)	2 (50.0%)	2
Column Total N =	7	4	11

x^2 = 6.6785   df = 2   P = .0355

Table 4.16.—Amount of perceived support for further
promotion by sex, controlling for annual
salary ($20,500 - $23,999)

Amount of Support Perceived by Principal	Sex		Row Total
	Male	Female	
Low	0 (0.0.%)	1 (12.5%)	1
Slight	20 (62.5%)	2 (25.0%)	22
Moderate	12 (37.5%)	3 (37.5%)	15
High	0 (0.0%)	2 (25.0%)	2
Column Total N =	32	8	40

x^2 = 13.6363   df = 3   P = .0034

are in the annual income level of $20,500 to $23,999.
Males perceived support in the middle categories (slight
and moderate) only; none perceived low or high support. Fe-
males perceived support at all four levels with a high of
37.5 percent in the moderate category and 25 percent in the
slight and high support levels. The small population of
eight females involved in this analysis suggests caution as
the extention of the results.

Hypothesis Six

Because a scale could not be constructed due to in-
sufficient data, hypothesis six could not be measured.

Other Findings

It has been suggested that secondary principals as-
pire more for positions of greater authority and responsi-
bility than do elementary principals. This rationale has
been used to explain the high representation of former
secondary principals in central office positions. In order
to test this relationship, the aspirations of male elemen-
tary principals were compared to those of male secondary
principals. There were no significant differences between
the aspirations of the two groups in this study.

Statistical analysis was performed on two final
statements in the questionnaire. The first analysis com-
pared responses to statement #48: "I've made sure that many
people know I'm interested in advancement," which is a
measure of "proclamation" for further promotion. There were

no significant differences between males and females. Control variables of years in administration and size of school district were introduced. There were still no significant differences between the sexes. Apparently females proclaim their candidacy as much as do males.

The second comparison was between male and female responses to statement #53: "I haven't decided on my future plans yet," which is a measure of planning for career advancement. It has been suggested in the literature that women are vague about future plans, whereas men are more definite. There were no significant differences between males and females regarding this statement. Control variables of years of experience and size of school district were introduced. There were still no significant differences between the sexes. Apparently females are no less uncertain about their future plans than are males.

Summary

The results of the research were presented and analyzed in Chapter IV.

The first section of the chapter contained information relative to the reliability of the final instrument. Reliability coefficients for each question were reported. Alpha figures for each hypothesis were included. The alpha figures for the final instrument differed from those of the pilot instrument. Those for two hypotheses increased in value for the final instrument but decreased in the remaining four hypotheses.

The basis for the selection of questions to undergo x^2 analysis was also included in the first section. A total of twenty-eight questions, representing those with the highest reliability coefficients, were chosen for further analysis.

The statistical analysis for each of the six hypotheses was contained in the second portion of Chapter IV. Details were provided to explain the creation and collapsing of categories for individual responses. A summary of the results for each hypothesis follows:

Hypothesis one: The null hypothesis was confirmed. There were no significant differences between men and women in seeking salary increases. The introduction of control variables age, amount of administrative experience, size of school district and actual income did not produce significant difference, either.

Hypothesis two: The null hypothesis was confirmed. There were no significant differences between men and women in their aspirations for promotions to positions of greater authority and responsibility. There were significant differences for aspirations when controlling for three different variables: age, controlling for age, males; and when controlling for age, females. All reflected a trend of increasing aspirations with increasing age. One fourth variable, that of annual income of up to $23,999, proved to be

positively correlated with aspirations for further promotion by sex. In this case, the aspirations for females appeared to exceed that of males.

Hypothesis three: The null hypothesis was confirmed. There were no significant differences between men and women in communicating to others their interest in promotion. The only control variable to reveal significant differences was that of annual income at the $20,500 to $23,999 level. In this instance, women appeared to be more represented in both the high and low levels of amount of communication with others. Men tended to be represented in the middle ranges of amount of communication rather than the extremes. No other control variable produced significant differences for this hypothesis.

Hypothesis four: The null hypothesis was confirmed. There were no significant differences between men and women in having a mentor in education who encourages and helps guide their careers. Control variables of age, amount of administrative expereince, size of school district and actual income were introduced but there were no significant differences.

Hypothesis five: The null hypothesis was confirmed. There were no significant differences between men and women in the feeling of support from central office administrators for their career goals. Three control variables did reveal significant differences: age, years of experience in the seventeen to twenty-three years category and annual salary

in the $20,500 to $23,999 category. There is increasing perceived support for females as compared to males when controlling for experience seventeen to twenty-three years, and increasing perceived support for females as compared to males in the $20,500 to $23,999 salary range.

Hypothesis six: Insufficient data prevented the measurement of hypothesis six.

Other results: The levels of aspirations between male elementary and male secondary principals were compared. There were no significant differences.

Male and female responses to two statements from the questionnaire were compared:

I've made sure that many people know I'm interested in advancement, and

I haven't decided on my future plans yet.

There were no significant differences between males and females in either instance.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

Conclusions and judgments regarding the purposes and findings of this study are given in Chapter V. The summary includes a description of the tasks undertaken to achieve the purpose of the research. The major findings are summarized and compared with those of earlier research. The discussion portion of the chapter includes possible interpretations and explanations of the findings. The possible limitations of the study are also offered. Suggestions for further research are made in the final portion of the chapter.

Summary

The central purpose of this study has been a comparison of the aspirations held by male and female principals and an examination of the ways those aspirations are fulfilled.

Several tasks were completed to achieve this purpose. First, several statements were created to measure each of five different hypotheses. Second, the statements were submitted to a final panel of judges for validation purposes. The statements judged to be appropriate measures of the elements in the hypotheses were included in a pilot

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instrument. Included as well was an additional set of statements for a sixth hypothesis, suggested by a validation judge.

Next, the pilot instrument was mailed to a population of forty principals, equally divided by sex. The returns were analyzed and reliability coefficients were established for each question. An alpha figure was determined for each hypothesis, providing a measure of internal consistency for the instrument.

Based upon the reliability results of the pilot instrument, a final instrument was prepared. It was mailed to the 201 male and female principals at elementary, middle school/junior high and high school levels identified as the target population.

The final returns were first analyzed for reliability. Those statements with the highest reliability coefficients were subjected to chi-square analysis. Final "p" values at the .05 level of significance determined the acceptance or rejection of the null hypotheses. Several controlling variables gathered from demographic questions were introduced to explore further relationships. The results of this analysis are described in the next section.

Major Conclusions

The major findings of this study are as follows:

1. With regard to the seeking of salary increases, no significant differences between men and women were found.

The introduction of control variables age, amount of administrative experience, size of school district and annual income failed to produce significant differences between the sexes.

2. Any differences between men and women regarding aspirations for promotion to positions of greater authority and responsibility were statistically insignificant. When variables related to age were introduced, there were significant differences. Those variables were age; controlling for age, male; and controlling for age, female. The trend for both sexes was increasing aspirations with increasing age. Women appeared to aspire at a higher level than men at age fifty-one and over. The control variable annual income of up to $23,999 also produced significant differences, favoring females.

3. There were no significant differences found between men and women in communicating to others an interest in further promotion. The only control variable producing significant results was annual income at the $20,500 to $23,999 level. In this instance, men tended to communicate interest in promotion at the two mid-ranges of a four level scale, whereas women were more represented at both the high and low levels.

4. No significant differences were found between men and women with regard to a mentor. The reported assistance and influence from mentors for both sexes was almost

identical. No control variables produced significant differences between men and women.

5. Any differences between males and females with regard to perceived support from central office administrators for career goals were insignificant. Three control variables did produce significant results. Both sexes perceived increased support with increasing chronological age. Women in the seventeen to twenty-three years of experience range perceived higher support for their career goals than did men. A similar pattern existed in the salary range $20,500 to $23,999, where women appeared to perceive more support than did men.

6. With regard to the engaging with colleagues in informal interactions of a type that may lead to career advancement, there was insufficient data to measure relationships.

7. The aspiration levels of male elementary and male secondary principals were compared and found to be very similar. No significant differences were measured between the two levels.

8. Male and female principals seemed to "proclaim" their candidacy and to express interest in advancement at similar rates. Responses to an item on this topic revealed no significant differences between the sexes.

9. With regard to future plans, women seemed no more uncertain than did men. There were no significant

differences between the responses of the sexes on an item measuring future plans.

Discussion

This research investigated the existence of differences between male and female principals with regard to career aspirations and the fulfillment of those aspirations. If differences had been established, they would have helped to explain the under-representation of women in administrative ranks. Those anticipated differences would have accounted not only for the behaviors viewed as necessary to fulfill aspirations: assertiveness in communicating interest in further promotion; a relationship with and assistance from a mentor; perceived support from central office administrators for further promotion; and frequent participation in informal social interactions that can help further careers. The differences on one measure would have helped explain the lower salaries earned by women principals, as well.

The conclusions of the study do not support the belief that significant differences exist between men and women on the dimensions measured. Sex was not a predictive variable: men and women responded in similar, rather than different ways to the instrument. In fact, sex was not the important variable in any of the hypotheses to the extent was the variable age. Apparently the differences between men and women are not sufficient to explain their uneven

representation in administrative ranks beyond the principalship level.

The results of this research contradict several of the statements made in the literature. Schmuck (1975) asserts that women are more uncertain about their future plans than are men. Women in the study just completed were no more undecided about their future plans than were men.

This research is related to and tends to support the findings of Gilmore (1975). In that study, the level of need achievement was significantly related to chronological age. The older the women, the less importance she gave to sex-role standards of achievement and the less she feared success. The results of the study just completed confirm that aspirations are significantly related to chronological age. The aspirations of women in the age group fifty-one and over were significantly higher than they were for women in the forty-one and under age group. A similar trend was true for men. Women tended to have higher aspirations in the fifty-one and over age group than did men.

Epstein (1971) found that a sponsor may have mixed feelings about accepting women as proteges. Valverde (1974) also confirmed that sponsors did not often support female proteges. However, there were no significant differences between men and women in the study just completed with regard to the presence of influence of a mentor. It is possible that all the respondents were originally successful

in obtaining the promotion to principalship, in part at least, because of a sponsor. It does not preclude the possibility that women <u>teachers</u> do not get sponsors as frequently as do men. However, if sponsors are important for additional promotion, then the women in this study do not seem to be at a disadvantage.

Valverde also cautions that women must announce their candidacy if they wish to be promoted to administration. The study just completed confirms that women principals do announce their interest in further promotion at levels similar to men.

Several limitations of the study require consideration. The population was confined to principals who work in the state of Michigan. There is no guarantee that the results would necessarily apply to other states or geographic regions. Further, the principals under study were selected from those school districts in which administrative salaries were set on an "individual" basis, according to the most recent data available. While each respondent did confirm the current procedure by which salaries are set in the school district, it is possible that principals in districts which now follow or at some time in the recent past have followed this procedure may differ in some way from those principals employed elsewhere.

A final limitation to the study is that of sample size. Frequent cautions were included as the analysis of data was presented in Chapter IV. The numbers were

frequently small in several sub-categories. The cautions apply to any results in which the variables annual salary, years of experience and size of school district seem to indicate significant differences.

Several factors could explain the results and implications of this research. First, it is possible that measurable differences in aspirations which may exist between male and female teachers no longer exist once individuals have been promoted to the principalship. If the aspiring and assertive female is selected for the principalship, she may be just as aspiring for additional promotion as is her male counterpart.

Second, this research has focused on differences within male and female subjects. It is possible that factors external to the individual are a decisive factor. Outside forces such as the attitudes of those conferring promotions may be more critical than any characteristics within the aspirant.

Third, it is possible that the differences between men and women are more imagined than real. Much of the literature in this area is not empirical; the sex-role stereotypes and expectations may be more vivid in the minds of writers than they are in reality. The actual differences between the sexes may be negligible and unimportant.

Fourth, it is possible that any differences that once existed between men and women have been diminished due to changing American society and influences from the publicity

of the women's movement, ERA and affirmative action programs. This could have resulted in a general increase in aspiration and assertiveness in women.

Implications for Further Research

Several unanswered questions remain. Little is known about the men and women principals who have aspired to additional promotion and failed. The role of marital status has not been investigated. The incentives and rewards for not aspiring to further promotion need to be known. The aspirations of men and women principals and how those aspirations differ across variables such as socio-economic status, geographic region and ethnic background could provide additional insights.

This study has provided data showing that aspirations and the ways principals seek to fulfill them do not differ significantly between men and women. This research has gathered information that helps eliminate aspirations as a reasonable explanation for so few women in administration beyond the building principalship.

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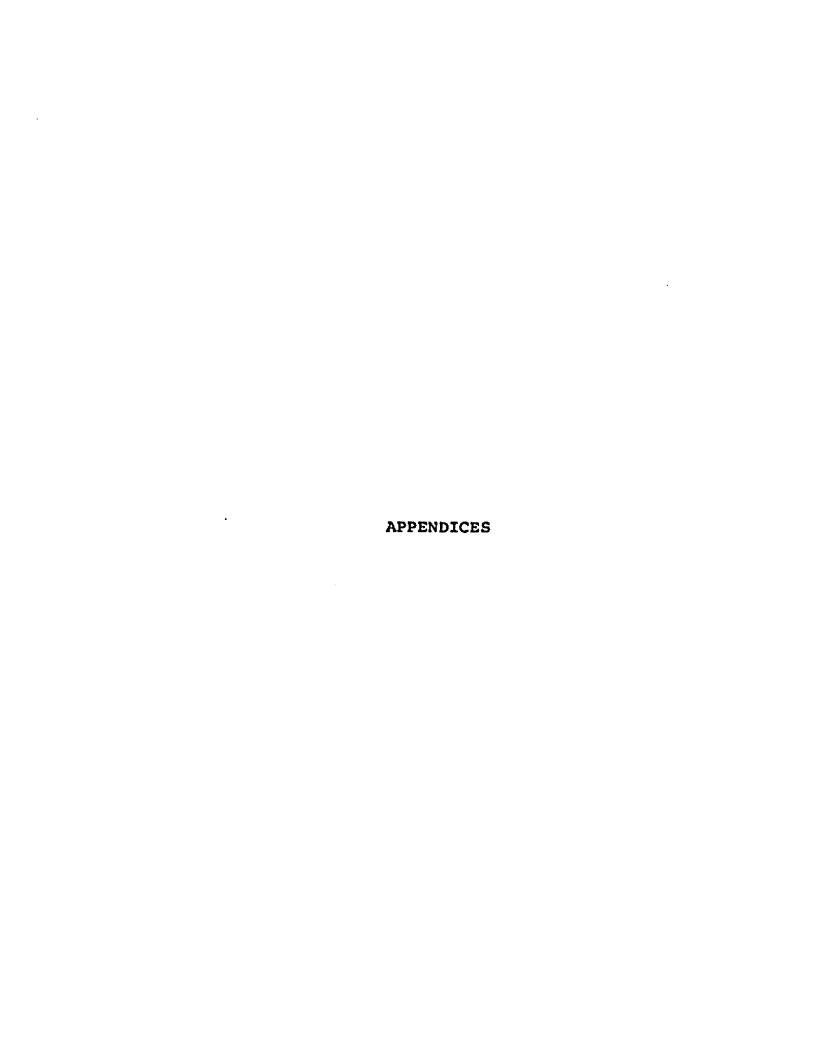Niedermayer, Gretchen, and Kramer, Vicki W. Women in Administrative Positions in Public Education: A Position Paper. Philadelphia, Pennsylvania: Recruitment Leadership and Training Institute, 1974.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE

April 26, 1978

Dear Colleague,

As a principal myself, I can appreciate just how busy you must be. But if you could give up just a few minutes of your time, I would be very grateful.

Enclosed is a questionnaire that surveys men and women principals. I have designed the research as part of my work at Michigan State University where I am completing a graduate degree.

The questionnaire has been sent to approximately 200 men and women principals in Michigan. Let me assure you that your responses will remain anonymous. In fact, there is no place on the questionnaire for you to name either yourself or your school district.

The questionnaire covers many areas related to promotions, salaries, career goals and support from others. Some questions may seem rather personal to you. I urge you to answer them as you really feel--not the way you think you are supposed to feel. Be honest; there are no risks involved!

You have my sincere gratitude for your help. Will you complete the questionnaire right now and enclose it in the self-addressed, stamped envelope?

Sincerely,

Lynn Cherryholmes

encl.

BEFORE BEGINNING THE QUESTIONNAIRE, think for a minute about the way in which principals' salaries are determined in your school district. Read the descriptions below and check the one that best describes your district.

1. **Principals' salaries in my district are set on an "individual basis."** The superintendent considers each principal separately when setting a salary figure, has flexibility in setting that figure and is not bound to a strict salary schedule.

    _____ My salary is determined on an **individual basis.**

    If you checked this item, please answer **all** questions in the questionnaire, starting with #1.

2. **Principals' salaries in my district are established by a salary schedule.** An administrative salary schedule is followed to determine the amount for principals. It is a schedule with definite steps or increments.

    _____ My salary is determined by an **administrative salary schedule.**

    If you checked this item, please go directly to question #12 and continue to the end of the questionnaire. Do not answer questions #1 - #11.

3. **Principals's salaries are set by some combination of "individual" and "administrative salary schedule."**

    _____ My salary is determined by a **combination** of "individual" and "salary schedule."

    If you checked this item, please answer **all** questions in the questionnaire, starting with #1.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

1. It may take a while to get up my courage, but eventually I'll talk or write to my boss about the pay I think I deserve.

2. I trust my boss to notice my abilities and to give me a raise accordingly.

3. My style is to let others close to my boss know of my work and hope eventually I'll get the raise I deserve.

4. I would rather move on to a new, better-paying position than attempt to get a raise directly in my current position.

5. I have never talked to the superintendent or other central office administrators about my interest in a salary increase.

6. I have talked a few times to the superintendent or other central office administrators about my interest in a salary increase.

7. I have talked many times to the superintendent or other central office administrators about my interest in a salary increase.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

8. I intend to approach the superintendent (or supervisor) sometime <u>in the future</u> about obtaining a salary increase.

9. I think it would be inappropriate to approach the superintendent about a wage increase.

10. I would find it frightening to approach the superintendent about a wage increase.

11. I would find it challenging to approach the superintendent about a wage increase.

12. This principalship is an important "stepping stone" to other administrative positions I hope to hold in the future.

13. I am interested in holding a higher administrative position, such as in the central office.

14. When I decided to enter the administration field, the principalship was my original goal.

15. I have no aspirations for other positions in education; I will probably remain a principal.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

16. I have career goals that will take me beyond the principalship I now hold.

17. My hopes for the future include promotions to other administrative positions in education.

18. It's important that I talk with my superintendent or someone in the central office about my career plans so they know I'm interested in any future openings.

19. If an opening occurred in my district that represented a promotion for me, I would want to be asked to apply for the job before I would apply.

20. I think I've been overlooked for advancement in this district, even though I'm qualified.

21. Letting people in education know of my interest in promotion is an important step in actually getting a promotion.

22. If I want to advance in the profession, I need to tell my superiors of my interest in promotion.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

23. Telling others in education of my interest in promotion is unimportant to my success in getting a promotion.

24. One or two key educators have played an important part in my career and in helping advise me about doing my job.

25. If I wanted honest feedback about myself, as well as encouragement, I know one or two people in education whom I could contact right away.

26. The only people who have been very helpful in understanding me, the responsibilities I have, and my career, are members of my own family.

27. There is no one in administration whom I could be very honest with about my job and my hopes for the future.

28. I could say that at least one older administrator has taken an interest in my career, in my successes and in my aspirations and has "shown me the ropes."

29. One of the factors that helps explain how I came to get my present position is that another administrator helped by encouraging and assisting me.

strongly   strongly
agree   agree   neutral   disagree   disagree
1   2   3   4   5

30. I can think of at least one other administrator who served as an "advocate" for me and helped me become an administrator.

31. I know that I could count on my superiors to help me if I tried to get positions of even more responsibility—either in this district or elsewhere.

32. I feel that central office administrators in this district have been supportive of me and are interested in my career goals.

33. I feel that other administrators expect me to be ambitious about advancement in the profession.

34. The central office administrators have either been noncommital or discouraging about my career advancement.

35. The central office administrators are presently encouraging me to further my career.

36. I feel that my superiors assume that I've met my career goals.

37. I am aware that administrators in this district have informal and/or social contacts with one another.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

38. Frequent informal and/or social contact with other administrators are a part of the process of "getting ahead" in the profession.

39. I participate in informal and/or social contacts with administrators as frequently as do other administrators in this district.

Think about how you have communicated your career goals to others. Look at the list below. Check off <u>all</u> items that apply to you during the past 12 months.

40. _____ I've discussed my plans informally with other principals.

41. _____ I've talked about my plans informally with the superintendent.

42. _____ I've discussed my plans with central office administrators.

43. _____ I've made an appointment to talk to the superintendent about my plans.

44. _____ I've sought advice and talked to administrators outside my district.

45. _____ I've discussed my plans with university education professors.

46. _____ I've asked my superintendent to write a recommendation for me.

47. _____ I've asked to have placement notices sent to me.

48. _____ I've made sure that many people know I'm interested in advancement.

49. _____ I've talked to very few people about my plans.

50. _____ I've talked to no one in education about my plans.

51. _____ I've talked with my family about my plans.

52. _____ I've kept my plans to myself.

53. _____ I haven't decided on my future plans yet.

54. What is the title of your present position? _____

    (check one: elementary_____jr. hi./middle school_____high school_____)

55. Check one: male _____female _____

56. Check your age:

30 and under	31-40	41-50	51-60	60 and over

57. Present salary:

$16,999 and under	$17,000 to $20,499	$20,500 to $23,999	$24,000 to $27,499	$27,500 and over

58. Number of years in administration: (count this year)

2 or less	3-9	10-16	17-23	24 or more

59. Number of students in your school district: _____

60. If you could have any position in education in five years, what would you choose? (give name of position)_____

Thank you very much.

APPENDIX B

APPENDIX B

FOLLOW UP-LETTER

May 4, 1978

Dear Colleague,

Recently I sent a questionnaire to you, representing a research study I am conducting for a graduate degree.

The questionnaire measured your responses to topics such as interest in promotion, salary, career goals, etc.

I am naturally very interested in a high number of returned questionnaires. If you have not yet completed the form, could you try to do so very soon? I would appreciate it very much.

If you have already completed and returned the form, please accept my thanks for your cooperation and promptness.

Sincerely,

Lynn Cherryholmes

P.S.   If you have misplaced the questionnaire, please complete the information below and mail to me. I will send you a new form by return mail. Thank you very much.

Please send another questionnaire to:

name_____

school_____

address_____

city_____zip_____

return to: Lynn Cherryholmes
            4710 Woodcraft
            Okemos, Michigan 48864

APPENDIX C

APPENDIX C

PANEL OF JUDGES USED TO ESTABLISH FACE VALIDITY ON QUESTIONNAIRE

Dr. Wilbur Brookover
Professor of Urban and Metropolitan Studies
College of Urban Development
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APPENDIX D

APPENDIX D

MATERIALS SENT TO VALIDATION JUDGES

February 23, 1978

Thank you for agreeing to assist with this portion of the research project.

The proposed study will test five hypotheses by means of a mailed questionnaire. Before the questionnaire is printed, a validity check is needed to evaluate the questions themselves. Your help is needed for this validation.

Your task is to read each hypothesis and determine if the questions following the hypothesis measure the same elements. You are asked to rate each question on a simple rating form.

You will be working with the following materials:

1. The first packet is entitled Proposed Questions. It consists of each hypothesis and a series of questions. There is a brief explanation of the hypothesis to give you some background information. There is also a sheet of definitions of terms used in the hypotheses. The questions following the hypothesis appear in the exact form proposed for the questionnaire. There is a place for the respondent to answer each question but you will not be marking in this packet.

2. The second packet is entitled Rating Form. There is a place on the form for you to rate each question. Make your marks on the Rating Form. If you have any comments to make, please make them in the column for that purpose. It would be helpful if you could identify specific portions of any questions you rate "inappropriate." This will aid in efforts to rewrite the question.

There are only 23 questions so your task should not take a long time. If you have comments or questions, don't hesitate to contact me (349-0100). I am very grateful for your assistance. Thank you.

Lynn Cherryholmes

Hypothesis 1:   Men are more likely than women to actively
seek salary increases.

Men and women may have very different approaches to ob-
taining salary increases. It has been suggested that men
are more likely to approach the boss openly to discuss the
pay they think they deserve. In contrast, women may wait
to be noticed, hoping to be rewarded for their efficiency.
This topic has never been investigated in education admin-
istration. Questions 1-5 measure hypothesis 1.

1. This best describes my feelings about salaries:
    (check one)

    _____ It may take a while to get up my courage, but
            eventually I'll talk to my boss about the pay
            I think I deserve.

    _____ I trust my boss to notice my abilities and to
            give me a raise accordingly.

2. I trust the superintendent to get me a satisfactory
    wage increase without my having to approach him about
    it.

    Agree   Disagree
      1   2   3   4   5

    | | | | | |

3. Have you ever talked to central office administration
    or the superintendent in the past about your interest
    in the salary you think you deserve?

    _____ yes

    _____ no

4. I intend to approach the superintendent (or supervisor)
    sometime in the future about obtaining a salary in-
    crease.

    Agree   Disagree
      1   2   3   4   5

    | | | | | |

5. I would find it distasteful to approach the superin-
tendent about a wage increase.

```
     Agree                                Disargee
       1         2         3         4         5
                                             .
   ┌─────────┬─────────┬─────────┬─────────┬─────────┐
   │         │         │         │         │         │
   └─────────┴─────────┴─────────┴─────────┴─────────┘
```

Hypothesis 2: Men are more likely than women to aspire
for positions of greater authority and responsibility.

Men are filling education administration positions in in-
creasing numbers. The presence of women in administration
is declining steadily. When women do hold administrative
postitions, it is likely that the position will be that of
elementary principalship. It has been suggested that
women do not aspire for as much in their careers as do men;
they aspire less so this helps explain why they achieve
less. The questions in this section will measure the
career goals and future plans of men and women principals.
Questions 6-10 measure hypothesis #2.

6. This principalship is an important "stepping stone" to
other administrative positions I hope to hold in the
future.

```
     Agree                                Disagree
       1         2         3         4         5
   ┌─────────┬─────────┬─────────┬─────────┬─────────┐
   │         │         │         │         │         │
   └─────────┴─────────┴─────────┴─────────┴─────────┘
```

7. I would describe my interest in holding future admin-
istrative positions, such as in the central office, as:

```
     Strong                               Weak
     Interest                             Interest
       1         2         3         4         5
   ┌─────────┬─────────┬─────────┬─────────┬─────────┐
   │         │         │         │         │         │
   └─────────┴─────────┴─────────┴─────────┴─────────┘
```

8. If you could have any position in education you wanted
in 5 years, what would you choose?

Give name of position:_____

9. When you decided to enter the teaching field, was the principalship your original goal?

_____ yes

_____ no   If no, what was your goal?_____

_____

10. I have no aspirations for other positions in education; I will probably remain a principal.

Agree   Disagree
1   2   3   4   5

Hypothesis 3: Men are more likely than women to communicate to significant others their interest in promotion.

Research shows that it is important for an individual to get the attention of the superior. Interest in promotion must be known by others, especially those in positions of authority. This requires the individual to proclaim "candidacy" even before an opening is available. Without knowledge of an individual's interest in advancement, superiors may mistakenly assume silence to mean lack of aspirations. It has been suggested that women tend to remain silent about their career goals, while men pursue the issue openly with others. Questions 11-13 measure hypothesis 3.

11. Think about how you have communicated your career goals to others. Look at the list below. Check off all items that describe things you have done within the past twelve months.

_____ I've discussed my plans informally with other principals.

_____ I've talked about my plans informally with the superintendent.

_____ I've discussed my plans with central office administrators.

_____ I've made an appointment to talk to the superintendent about my plans.

_____ I've sought advice and talked to administrators outside my own district.

_____ I've discussed my plans with university education professors.

_____ I've asked my superintendent to write a recommendation for me.

_____ I've asked to have placement notices sent to me.

_____ I've made sure that many people know I'm interested in advancement.

_____ I've talked to very few people about my plans.

_____ I've talked with my family about my plans.

_____ I've kept my plans to myself.

_____ I haven't decided on my future plans yet.

12. It's important that my superintendent or someone in the central office talks to me about my career plans so they know I'm interested in any future openings.

Agree 1	2	3	4	Disagree 5

13. If an opening occurred in my district that represented a promotion for me, I would want to be <u>asked</u> to apply for the job before I would apply.

Agree 1	2	3	4	Disagree 5

Hypothesis 4:   Men are more likely than women to have a mentor in education who encourages and helps guide their careers.

The role of the mentor as "benefactor" is important to advancement. Usually a mentor is older and in a position of authority. The mentor recognizes the talent of the younger person and dispenses advice, off-the-cuff solutions to problems, teaches a common language and provides an understanding of the behavior expected. The mentor takes the novice "under his/her wing" and helps teach how things are done. Mentors frequently "pave the way" for the novice. It is suggested that women do not have mentors in education as frequently as do men. Women may turn to family and friends outside education to provide counsel. Questions 14-18 measure hypothesis 4.

14. One or two key people have played an important part in my career and in helping advise me about doing my job.

Agree   Disagree
1   2   3   4   5

15. If I wanted honest feedback about myself, as well as encouragement, I know one or two people in administration that I could contact right away.

Agree   Disagree
1   2   3   4   5

16. The only people who have been very helpful in understanding me, the responsibilities I have, and my career, are members of my own family.

Agree   Disagree
1   2   3   4   5

17. There is probably no one in administration that I could be very honest with about my job and my hopes for the future.

Agree   Disagree
1   2   3   4   5

18. I could say that at least one older administrator has taken an interest in my career, in my successes and in my aspirations and has "shown me the ropes."

Agree   Disagree
1   2   3   4   5

Hypothesis 5: Men are more likely than women to feel support from central office administration for their career goals.

Little is known about the support men and women perceive
from central office administration toward their career
plans. It is not known if both sexes perceive similar sup-
port and encouragement. It has been suggested that women
have felt less encouragement than men but there is little
data to support this. Questions 19-23 measure hypothesis 5.

19. I know I can count on my superiors to help me in my
efforts to get positions of even more responsibility--
either in this district or elsewhere.

Agree				Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

20. I feel that central office administrators in this dis-
trict have been supportive of me and are interested in
my career goals.

Agree				Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

21. I feel that other administrators expect and encourage
me to be ambitious.

Agree				Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

22. The central office administration has either been non-
commital or discouraging about my career advancement.

Agree				Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

23. I probably receive about the same amount of career
encouragement from central office administrators as
other elementary principals in this district.

Agree				Disagree
1	2	3	4	5

DEFINITIONS OF TERMS

In hypothesis #1:

actively seek salary increases: defined here as all verbal
and/or written messages from the principal to the superin-
tendent on the topic of salaries, sent in hope of obtaining
a wage increase.

In hypothesis #2:

aspire for positions of greater authority and responsi-
bility: defined here as the career goals in which the final
occupation exceeds the principalship in salary, status and
power. Such positions are usually in close proximity to
the superintendent's office and share a similar district-
wide job description. The positions include directors of
various curriculum areas, deputy superintendents, personnel
directors, assistants to superintendents and administrative
assistants.

In hypothesis #3:

communicate to significant others their interest in promo-
tion: defined here as verbal and/or written messages from
the principal to other education administrators of equal or
superior positions, in which the principal expresses the
desire to advance to similar positions.

In hypothesis #4:

mentor in education who encourages and helps guide their
careers: mentor is defined here as a person who occupies an
administration position in education and who expresses a
personal and professional interest in the career advance-
ment of someone aspiring to a position in administration,
per se, or further advancement in administration. The role
of the mentor is that of a "benefactor" who undertakes the
guidance and informal teaching of the aspirant, so that a
common language is learned, "off-the-cuff" solutions to
problems are discussed, expectations are learned and the
aspirant is socialized into the norms of administrative
behavior.

In hypothesis #5:

support from central administration for their career goals:
defined here as positive responses which are interpreted as
encouragement by the principal toward future plans in edu-
cation. Central administration is defined here as a

collective label used to describe all professional occupants
of the superintendent's offices, including directors of
curriculum, personnel, deputy superintendents, assistants to
superintendents and administrative assistants.

RATING FORM

RATING FORM

Question	Your Rating of Question		Comments (optional)
	Appropriate	Inappropriate	
# 1	_____	_____	
# 2	_____	_____	
# 3	_____	_____	
# 4	_____	_____	
# 5	_____	_____	
# 6	_____	_____	
# 7	_____	_____	
# 8	_____	_____	
# 9	_____	_____	
#10	_____	_____	
#11	_____	_____	
#12	_____	_____	
#13	_____	_____	
#14	_____	_____	
#15	_____	_____	
#16	_____	_____	
#17	_____	_____	
#18	_____	_____	
#19	_____	_____	
#20	_____	_____	
#21	_____	_____	
#22	_____	_____	
#23	_____	_____	

APPENDIX E

APPENDIX E

COVER LETTER AND QUESTIONNAIRE
USED TO ESTABLISH RELIABILITY
OF INSTRUMENT

March 24, 1978

Dear Colleague,

As a principal myself, I can appreciate how busy you must be. But if you could give up just a few minutes, I would be very grateful.

Enclosed is a questionnaire that will survey men and women principals. I have designed the research as part of my work at Michigan State University, where I am completing a graduate degree.

You and 39 other principals have been selected to respond initially to the questionnaire. Your response will give a measure of the instrument's reliability. Eventually, the questionnaire will be sent to a larger number of principals.

Let me assure you that your responses will remain anonymous. In fact, there is no place on the questionnaire for you to name either yourself or your school district.

The questionnaire covers many areas related to promotions, salaries, career goals and support from others. Some questions may seem rather personal to you. I urge you to answer them as you really feel--not the way you think you are supposed to feel. Be honest; there are no risks involved! You can help me most by answering every question.

You have my sincere gratitude for your assistance. Will you complete the questionnaire right now and enclose it in the self-addressed, stamped envelope?

Sincerely,

Lynn Cherryholmes

encl.

BEFORE BEGINNING THE QUESTIONNAIRE, think for a minute about the way in which principals' salaries are determined in your school district. Read the descriptions below and check the one that best describes your district.

1. Principals' salaries in my district are set on an "individual basis." The superintendent considers each principal separately when setting a salary figure, has flexibility in setting that figure and is not bound to a strict salary schedule.

   _____ My salary is determined on an individual basis.

   If you checked this item, please answer all questions in the questionnaire, starting with #1.

2. Princpals' salaries in my district are established by a salary schedule. An administrative salary schedule is followed to determine the amount for principals. It is a schedule with definite steps or increments.

   _____ My salary is determined by an administrative salary schedule.

   If you checked this item, please go directly to question #12 and continue to the end of the questionnaire. Do not answer questions #1 - #11.

3. Principals' salaries are set by some combination of "individual" and "administrative salary schedule."

   _____ My salary is determined by a combination of "individual" and "salary schedule."

   If you checked this item, please answer all questions in the questionnaire, starting with #1.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

1. It may take a while to get up my courage, but eventually I'll talk or write to my boss about the pay I think I deserve.

2. I trust my boss to notice my abilities and to give me a raise accordingly.

3. My style is to let others close to my boss know of my work and hope eventually I'll get the raise I deserve.

4. I would rather move on to a new, better-paying position than attempt to get a raise directly in my current position.

5. I have never talked to the superintendent or other central office administrators about my interest in a salary increase.

6. I have talked a few times to the superintendent or other central office administrators about my interest in a salary increase.

7. I have talked many times to the superintendent or other central office administrators about my interest in a salary increase.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

8. I intend to approach the superintendent (or supervisor) sometime in the future about obtaining a salary increase.

9. I think it would be inappropriate to approach the superintendent about a wage increase.

10. I would find it frightening to approach the superintendent about a wage increase.

11. I would find it challenging to approach the superintendent about a wage increase.

12. This principalship is an important "stepping stone" to other administrative positions I hope to hold in the future.

13. I am interested in holding a higher administrative position, such as in the central office.

14. When I decided to enter the administration field, the principalship was my original goal.

15. I have no aspirations for other positions in education; I will probably remain a principal.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

16. I have career goals that will take me beyond the principalship I now hold.

17. My hopes for the future include promotions to other administrative positions in education.

18. It's important that I talk with my superintendent or someone in the central office about my career plans so they know I'm interested in any future openings.

19. If an opening occurred in my district that represented a promotion for me, I would want to be <u>asked</u> to apply for the job before I would apply.

20. I think I've been overlooked for advancement in this district, even though I'm qualified.

21. Letting people in education know of my interest in promotion is an important step in actually getting a promotion.

22. If I want to advance in the profession, I need to tell my superiors of my interest in promotion.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

23. Telling others in education of my interest in promotion is unimportant to my success in getting a promotion.

24. One or two key educators have played an important part in my career and in helping advise me about doing my job.

25. If I wanted honest feedback about myself, as well as encouragement, I know one or two people in education whom I could contact right away.

26. The only people who have been very helpful in understanding me, the responsibilities I have, and my career, are members of my own family.

27. There is no one in administration whom I could be very honest with about my job and my hopes for the future.

28. I could say that at least one older administrator has taken an interest in my career, in my successes and in my aspirations and has "shown me the ropes."

29. One of the factors that helps explain how I came to get my present position is that another administrator helped by encouraging and assisting me.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

30. I can think of at least one other administrator who served as an "advocate" for me and helped me become an administrator.

31. I know that I could count on my superiors to help me if I tried to get positions of even more responsibility--either in this district or elsewhere.

32. I feel that central office administrators in this district have been supportive of me and are interested in my career goals.

33. I feel that other administrators expect me to be ambitious about advancement in the profession.

34. The central office administration has been noncommittal or discouraging about my career advancement.

35. The central office administration encourages me to advance in my career.

36. I feel that my superiors assume that I've met my career goals.

37. I am aware that administrators in this district have informal and/or social contacts with one another.

	strongly agree 1	agree 2	neutral 3	disagree 4	strongly disagree 5

38. Frequent informal and/or social contacts with other administrators are a part of the process of "getting ahead" in the profession.

39. I participate in informal and/or social contacts with administrators as frequently as do other administrators in this district.

40. I often initiate informal and/or social contacts with administrators.

41. When asked to participate in an informal and/or social event with administrators, I usually accept.

42. The informal and/or social contacts in which I participate usually include just administrators of my own sex.

Think about how you have communicated your career goals to others. Look at the list below and on the next page. Check off all items that apply to you during the past 12 months.

43. _____ I've discussed my plans informally with other principals.

44. _____ I've talked about my plans informally with the superintendent.

45. _____ I've discussed my plans with central office administrators.

46. _____ I've made an appointment to talk to the superintendent about plans.

47. _____ I've sought advice and talked to administrators outside my district.

48. _____ I've discussed my plans with university education professors.

49. _____ I've asked my superintendent to write a recommendation for me.

50. _____ I've asked to have placement notices sent to me.

51. _____ I've made sure that many people know I'm interested in advancement.

52. _____ I've talked to very few people about my plans.

53. _____ I've talked to no one in education about my plans.

54. _____ I've talked with my family about my plans.

55. _____ I've kept my plans to myself.

56. _____ I haven't decided on my future plans yet.

57. What is the title of your present position? _____
   (check one: elementary_____jr. hi./middle school_____high school_____)

58. Check one: male_____female_____

59. Age: _____

61. Present salary:

$16,999 and under	$17,000 to $20,499	$20,500 to $23,999	$24,000 to $27,499	$27,500 and over

62. Number of years in administration: _____
    (count the current school year)

64. Number of students in your school district: _____

65. This year our principals are (check one): male only_____ female only _____ male and female _____

66. If you could have any position in education in five years, what would you choose?

    (give name of position)_____

    .

Thank you very much.

APPENDIX F

APPENDIX F

LIST OF MICHIGAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS

FROM WHICH RELIABILITY

SAMPLE POPULATION

WAS SELECTED[1]

o Battle Creek School District (Calhoun County)

o Bay City Public School (Bay County)

o Birmingham School District (Oakland County)

o+* East Lansing Public Schools (Ingham County)

o Forest Hills Public Schools - Grand Rapids P.O. - (Kent County)

o Galesburg-Augusta Community Schools (Kalamazoo County)

o Grand Rapids Public Schools (Kent County)

+ Haslett Public Schools (Ingham County)

o+ Holt Public Schools (Ingham, Eaton County)

o Inkster Public Schools (Wayne County)

* Jackson Public Schools (Jackson County)

o+* Lansing School District (Ingham County)

+ Mason Public Schools (Ingham County)

+ Menominee Public Schools (Menominee County)

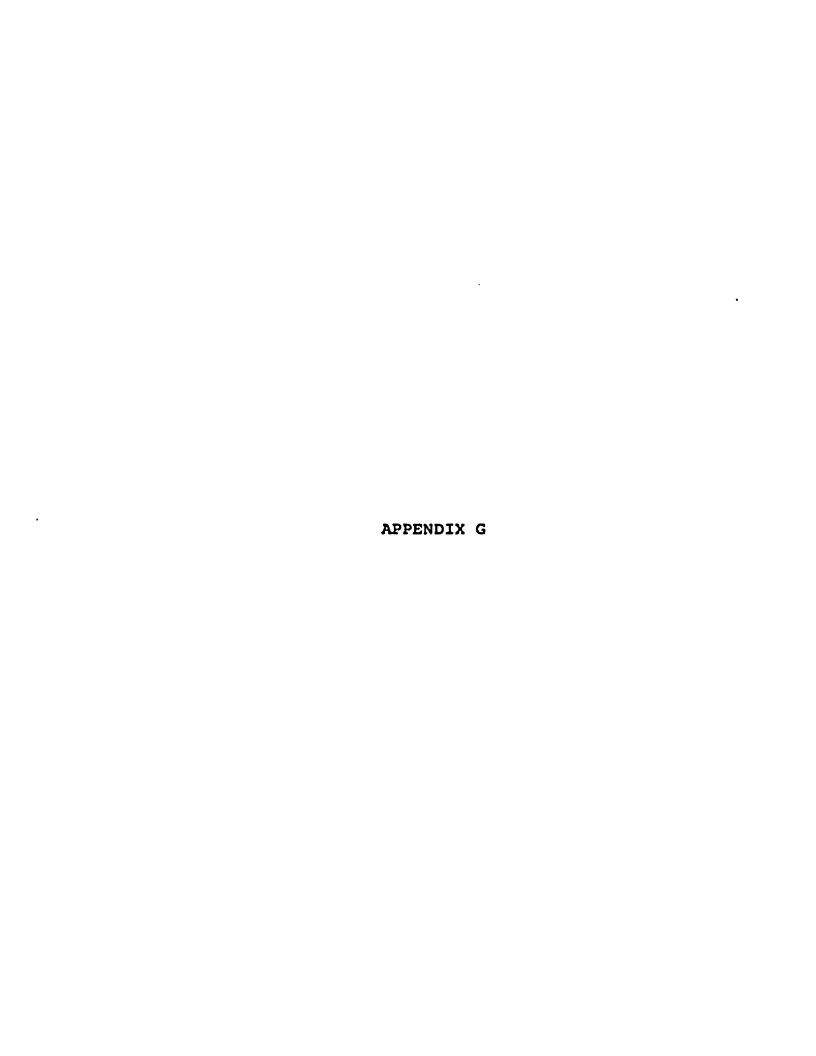
[1]key to symbols:

    * = questionnaire mailed to at least one male secondary principal

    + = questionnaire mailed to at least one male elementary principal

    o = questionnaire mailed to at least one female elementary principal

o Montrose Community Schools (Genesee County)

+ Okemos Public Schools (Ingham County)

* Portage Public Schools (Kalamazoo County)

o Royal Oak Public Schools (Oakland County)

o Swartz Creek Community Schools (Genesee County)

* Williamston Community Schools (Ingham County)

APPENDIX G

APPENDIX G

LIST OF MICHIGAN SCHOOL DISTRICTS

FROM WHICH FINAL SAMPLE

POPULATION WAS SELECTED[1]

o+* Albion Public School (Calhoun County)

 +* Baraga Twp. Schools (Baraga County)

  * Bath Community Schools (Clinton County)

 o+ Belding Area Schools (Ionia County)

o+* Benton Harbor Area Schools (Berrien County)

    Bessemer Public Schools (Gogebic County)

 o* Birch Run Area Schools (Saginaw County)

  o Brimley Public Schools (Chippewa County)

 o* Caro Community Schools (Tuscola County)

  o Carson City-Crystal Area Schools (Montcalm County)

  o Cass City Public Schools (Tuscola County)

 o* Cassopolis Public Schools (Cass County)

 o* Cedar Springs Public Schools (Kent County)

  + Climax-Scotts Community Schools (Kalamazoo County)

 o* Clinton Community Schools (Lenawee County)

---

[1]key to symbols:

    * = questionnaire mailed to at least one male
       secondary principal

    + = questionnaire mailed to at least one male
       elementary principal

    o = questionnaire mailed to at least one female
       elementary principal

o* Coloma Community Schools (Berrien County)

o Colon Community Schools (St. Joseph County)

Concord Community Schools (Jackson County)

o Constantine Public Schools (St. Joseph County)

+* Croswell-Lexington Community Schools (Sanilac County)

o+* Davison Community Schools (Genesee County)

o+* Dowagiac Union Schools (Cass County)

+ Dundee Community Schools (Monroe County)

+* Eaton Rapids Public Schools (Eaton County)

+* Eau Claire Public Schools (Berrien County)

o+* Edwardsburg Public Schools (Cass County)

Elk Rapids Public Schools (Antrim County)

Evart Public Schools (Osceola County)

o Fowler Public Schools (Clinton County)

* Fowlerville Community Schools (Livingston County)

+* Fremont Public Schools (Newago County)

o+* Fruitport Community Schools (Muskegon County)

+* Gaylord Community Schools (Otsego County)

o* Genesee Public Schools (Genesee County)

o Gibraltar School District - Rockwood P.O. - (Wayne County)

* Gladstone Area Public Schools (Delta County)

o* Goodrich Area Schools (Genesee County)

o+* Grosse Ile Twp. Schools (Wayne County)

+* Hamtramck Public Schools (Wayne County)

* Hanover-Horton Schools (Jackson County)

o+ Hartford Public Schools (VanBuren County)

+* Hartland   (Livingston County)

 + Haslett Public Schools (Ingham County)

 * Hemlock Public Schools (Saginaw County)

o* Hesperia (Newago County)

 * Hillsdale Community Schools (Hillsdale County)

   Homer Community Schools (Calhoun County)

   Hopkins Public Schools (Allegan County)

 * Hudson Area Schools (Lenawee County)

+* Hudsonville Public Schools (Ottowa County)

 * Inland Lakes Schools - Indian River P.O. -
   (Cheboygan County)

   Ithaca Public Schools (Gratiot County)

   Jonesville Community Schools (Hillsdale County)

0+ Kearsley Community Schools - Flint P.O. -
   (Genesee County)

   Kinde North Huron Schools (Huron County)

o+* Lakeshore Public Schools - Stevensville P.O. -
    (Berrien County)

 o Lakeview Schools - Battle Creek P.O. -
   (Calhoun County)

 o Lawton Community Schools (Van Buren County)

   Leslie Public Schools (Ingham County)

+* Linden Community Schools (Genesee County)

   Litchfield Community Schools (Hillsdale County)

+* Lowell Area Schools (Kent County)

 + Mancelona Public Schools (Antrim County)

 + Maple Valley Schools - Vermontville P.O. -
   (Eaton County)

   Marion Public Schools (Osceola County)

o+* Marquette Public Schools (Marquette County)

 +* Marshall Public Schools (Calhoun County)

 +* Mason Public Schools (Ingham County)

    Mayville Community Schools (Tuscola County)

  + Mendon Community Schools (St. Joseph County)

 o+ Merrill Community Schools (Saginaw County)

  * Mesick Consolidated Schools (Midland County)

 o+ Midland Public Schools (Midland County)

    Montrose Community Schools (Genesee County)

 +* Negaunee Public Schools (Marquette County)

  + New Haven Community Schools (Macomb County)

 o* Niles Community Schools (Berrien County)

  * North Dearborn Heights - Dearborn Heights P.O. -
    (Wayne County)

  o Norway-Vulcan Schools (Dickinson County)

o+* Okemos Public Schools (Ingham County)

    Onstead Community Schools (Lenawee County)

 +* Ortonville Brandon School District (Oakland County)

  + Oxford Community Schools (Oakland County)

    Quincy Community Schools (Branch County)

  * Reese Public Schools (Tuscola County)

 +* River Valley School District - Three Oaks P.O. -
    (Berrien County)

o+* Rockford Public Schools (Kent County)

  + St. Charles Community Schools (Saginaw County)

  * St. Louis Public Schools (Gratiot County)

    Sandusky Community Schools (Sanilac County)

    Shelby Public Schools (Oceana County)

o South Haven Public Schools (Van Buren County)

   Sturgis Public Schools (St. Joseph County)

   Suttons Bay Public Schools (Leelanau County)

   Tekonsha Community Schools (Calhoun County)

+ Thornapple Kellogg Schools - Middleville P.O. -
   (Barry County)

   Ubly Community Schools (Huron County)

o+* Van Dyke Public Schools (Oakland County)

o Wayland Union Schools (Allegan County)

o+* Waterford Public Schools (Oakland County)

   White Pine School District (Ontonagon County)

+ Williamston Community Schools (Ingham County)

o+* Yale Public Schools (St. Clair County)

o+* Ypsilanti School District (Washtenaw County)