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WOODS, BENNIE BURKS

**SIGNIFICANT CHARACTERISTICS OF PROFESSIONAL WOMEN  
EMPLOYED IN PUBLIC TWO-YEAR AND FOUR-YEAR HIGHER  
EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN MICHIGAN**

*Michigan State University*

PH.D.

1979

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IN PUBLIC TWO-YEAR AND FOUR-YEAR HIGHER  
EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN MICHIGAN**

**By**

**Bennie Burks Woods**

**A DISSERTATION**

**Submitted to  
Michigan State University  
in partial fulfillment of the requirements  
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**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

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**1979**

## ABSTRACT

### SIGNIFICANT CHARACTERISTICS OF PROFESSIONAL WOMEN EMPLOYED IN PUBLIC TWO-YEAR AND FOUR-YEAR HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN MICHIGAN

By

Bennie Burks Woods

The shortage of women administrators has been attributed to the lack of women who are qualified for promotions and to the reluctance of women to seek appointment to policy-making positions.

The purposes of this study were: (1) to determine how many women are employed full-time in the public institutions of higher education in Michigan as faculty or in the capacity of administrator in line or staff positions; (2) to determine how many of these women are caucasians, how many are black, and how many belong to other racial groups; (3) to determine the number and type of administrative positions held by these women; (4) to determine how many aspire to move from faculty to administration or from one administrative position to a higher one or vice versa; and (5) to characterize these women, for comparative purposes, according to their academic preparation, professional experience, and personal backgrounds, and according to other factors such as career barriers and career influences as perceived by them.

The population for this study consisted of women administrators and women faculty employed full-time in 16 four-year and 29 two-year public institutions of higher education in Michigan.

A mailed questionnaire/opinionnaire was used to collect data from 316 women administrators and faculty; a total of 224 women participated; of these 201 questionnaire responses were used in the study.

In obtaining information, a selected sample of five female administrators surveyed and five faculty members previously surveyed was interviewed by the researcher.

The analysis of the data included tabulating the frequency and percentage of responses for both groups of administrators and faculty; and computation of cross-tabulations among groups by current career, position status and expressed goals.

The nature of the data necessarily produced a considerable number of rather specific findings. The conclusions which are drawn here represents an attempt to bring these findings from the questionnaire and interview into broader focus.

1. In view of the women administrators included in the study application of Affirmative Action regulations apparently was more in theory than in practice. Many of the female administrators and faculty, particularly the caucasian group, indicated that Affirmative Action did not serve as a positive influence in their lives. This attitude was not reflected to the same extent among minority women, which would lead to the conclusion that Affirmative Action was more important for minority women aiding them to obtain their present position.

2. A number of women from both minority and non-minority groups expressed the view that while they felt they possessed leadership attributes they had not been employed at the level commensurate with their training and experience. Further, since the minority women in this study reported holding positions at a lower level than the non-minority it would appear that they are at an additional disadvantage.

3. Not surprisingly age was related to the level of administrative achievement by women in the study. It is quite likely that perhaps age itself was not the key factor so much as years of experience necessary to achieve the higher level positions.

4. Since a considerable number of women interviewed in this study expressed satisfaction in combining their domestic and professional roles, and were also satisfied with their present position status, this needs to be taken into consideration as a fact of life when discussing the problems of women and their career aspirations, the functioning and effectiveness of Affirmative Action programs and similar problems of women in the world of work. In the view of this researcher, however, this does not obviate the importance of insuring equal treatment for women in all types of employment.

## DEDICATION

The writer dedicates this dissertation to her husband, Winford Harold Woods, for his untiring efforts on her behalf, and to her daughter JoRuth Dian, who by the time she is of age, research in this area hopefully will not be needed.

## ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The writer wishes to acknowledge with appreciation the guidance, assistance, and support of her committee during the entire period of her doctoral studies: Dr. Walter Johnson, Chairman; Dr. Louis C. Stamatakos, Dr. Richard L. Featherstone and Dr. Gloria Smith.



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## CHAPTER I

### THE PROBLEM

#### Introduction

At a time when institutions of higher education are experiencing decreasing enrollment and budgetary constraints, they are being required to implement policies and procedures to ensure equity in position for women.

At one time the responsibility of the institution was to set guidelines for female recruitment and promotion. Now federal regulations set these guidelines. Through publicizing the status of women faculty and administrators on individual campuses and within their professional associations, women's academic groups are exerting pressures for equal employment. Under Executive Order 11246 and the Civil Rights Act over 250 discriminations suits have been filed against colleges and universities because of unequal opportunities.

The apparent shortage of upper-level women administrators and faculty is the basis for this study.

#### The Problem in Brief Historical Perspective

The aspirations of most women for faculty and administrative positions in higher education as recently as one decade ago centered, by necessity, upon the colleges and universities founded for the education of women. There is some indication that today's women

are seeking to find other ways of achieving administrative and faculty roles within the total range of higher education institutions.

In the early 1800's women sometimes became educational administrators by starting their own schools. Emma Willard was one who did this: In 1821 she founded the Troy Female Seminary at Troy, New York. Another was Mary Lyon, Founder of the Mt. Holyoke Female Seminary at South Hadley, Massachusetts in 1837.<sup>1</sup> Mary McLeon Bethune, Lucy Laney and Ruth M. Harris were among others who created and headed co-educational institutions during this period.<sup>2</sup>

In the introduction to her history of higher education for women, Newcomer wrote: ". . . that higher education has been traditionally for men. Only through perseverance and luck have women succeeded in getting their share." The first A.B. degree granted to women were at Oberlin College in 1841, two hundred years after the establishment of Harvard College in 1636. The most dramatic rise in the number of women who received college degrees occurred between 1930 and 1945, when the need for a literate population became increasingly important.<sup>3</sup>

During the period of World War II with its drain on the manpower pool, women were required to fill many positions previously

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<sup>1</sup>Thomas Woody, A History of Women's Education in the United States, 2 vols. (New York: The Science Press, 1929), 1:344-59.

<sup>2</sup>William Moore, and Lonnie Wagstaff, Black Educators in White Colleges (San Francisco, California: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1974), p. 156.

<sup>3</sup>Mabel Newcomer, A Century of Higher Education for Women (New York: Harper and Brother, 1959), pp. 2-7.

reserved principally for men. Since that time, however, the overall percentage of women teachers and administrators in higher education has been decreasing.<sup>4</sup>

Historically women in minority groups have been the least represented group holding upper-level administrative positions in institutions of higher education. There are several factors which contributed to this situation; Watson identified these as being the lack of opportunity, training, and placement.<sup>5</sup>

The recognition that blacks are not adequately represented in administration and on faculties of institutions of higher education as been highlighted more recently as a result of both the civil rights and the student protest movements. This has resulted in various efforts to alter the situation. Administrative internship programs for minority women, for example, and affirmative action policies have helped to some degree.

Elder states that "although the pattern is slowly changing, women are little closer to being full participants in the processes of higher education--as faculty, students and administrators--than they were 100 years ago."<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>4</sup>Andrew J. DuBrin, Survival in the Sexist Jungle (Chatsworth, California: Books for Better Living, 1974), p. 24.

<sup>5</sup>Bernard C. Watson, "The Black Administrator in Higher Education: Current Dilemmas, Problems and Opportunities," paper presented to the First National Congress of Black Professionals in Higher Education, Austin, Texas, April 1972.

<sup>6</sup>Peggy Elder, "Women in Higher Education: Qualified Except for Sex," NASPA Journal, 13 (Fall 1977), 9.

As recently as 1977, Freeman stated:

Educational administration is a very male monopoly protected by tradition, professional organization, boards of trustees, and governmental agencies at all levels. It is essential, nevertheless, that higher education examine more closely the potential of women who are able to perform administrative functions regardless of race.<sup>7</sup>

If the number of women in administrative positions is to increase, not only must institutional barriers be eliminated but also women must be prepared to assume these roles. Women in leadership positions in higher education are found mainly in those fields which traditionally have been occupied by women. Lora Robinson provides several examples in her study of institutional variations in the status of academic women:

. . . few women administrators are found in traditionally women fields. This was true at the University of Kentucky where women deans were in home economic and nursing, and women departmental chairmen were in dental hygiene and medical technology, and home economics . . . at Purdue University 215 women . . . were almost completely lacking in high-level administrative authority . . . only the dean of women and the dean of the School of Home Economic held positions of authority.<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>7</sup>Gloria Freeman, A Profile of Top-Level Women Administrators in Higher Education (Washington, D.C.: ERIC Document, Ed. 44471, 1977), p. 1.

<sup>8</sup>Lora Robinson, "Institutional Analysis of Sex Discrimination: A Review and Annotated Bibliography." part two (Washington: ERIC Clearinghouse on Higher Education, June 1973).



WEAL in a section on "Women As Administrators" broadly states:

Few women head departments, other than the strictly 'female' ones such as Home Economics. While there are some women in 'middle management' positions in academia, there are very few in policy making positions . . . administrative positions in the college go mostly to men. In fact, the proportion of women in college educational leadership was lower in the mid-1960's than it was 25 or even 10 years before.<sup>9</sup>

A 1973 survey by the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges found that although there had been an increase in the number of women in administrative positions in the previous two years, the positions filled by women were in ". . . middle management or in 'channeled fields,' those fields in which women have traditionally been directed."<sup>10</sup>

In addition, Robinson states that as one climbs for top administrative positions very few women are visible. Only about three percent of all women in the labor force reach positions of management and administration.<sup>11</sup>

Bayer's 1972-73 study of the teaching faculty in higher education also revealed that the total proportion of women faculty

<sup>9</sup>Women's Equity Action League, "Facts About Women in Education," Women's Work Has Just Begun (Ann Arbor, Michigan: Institute of Continuing League Education, 1972), pp. 275-76.

<sup>10</sup>National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, Circular Number 182, June 29, 1972, Washington, D.C., p. 1.

<sup>11</sup>Robinson, op. cit., "Institutional Analysis of Sex Discrimination," p. 3.

had not increased appreciably in the past two years, and had actually decreased in two and four-year colleges.<sup>12</sup>

For the purpose of making available more career options for all women in higher education the government, women rights groups, and other radical women groups are demanding that educational institutions attract more women into key policy-making positions.

Career opportunities for women regardless of race will improve only if changes occur in our society's concept of appropriate sex roles.

#### Purpose of The Study

The absence of upper-level women administrators has been attributed to the lack of women who are qualified for promotions and to the reluctance of women administrators to seek appointment to policy-making positions. On the other hand a number of research reports have substantiated that women are discriminated against when it comes to high-level administrative appointments in higher education. Since there are a few women who do achieve administrative positions in higher education, it seems worthwhile to determine some of the significant characteristics of these women and of their environments which permitted them to attain top-level administrative posts.

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<sup>12</sup>Helen Astin, and A. E. Bayer, "Sex Discrimination in Academe," Educational Record, 53 (Spring 1972), 110-118.

This study has five purposes. The first is to determine how many women are employed full-time in the public institutions of higher education in Michigan in the capacity of administrator in a line or staff position, and as faculty. The second is to determine how many of these women are caucasian, how many are black, and how many belong to other racial groups. The third is to determine the number and type of faculty and administrative positions held by the women in each racial group. The fourth is to determine how many in each group aspire to move from faculty to administration or from one administrative position to a higher one or from administration to faculty. The fifth and last is to characterize these women, for comparative purposes, according to their academic preparation, professional experience, and personal backgrounds, and according to other factors such as career barriers, and career influences as perceived by them.

#### Rationale for The Study

As young women increasingly indicate their dissatisfaction with marriage and child-raising as full-time, life-long occupations, and select work leading to other careers of challenge and fulfillment, education becomes a necessary vehicle through which to achieve this fulfillment. Many changes are needed in the educational system to maximize the potential of these women. One area of concern is the visibility of women achieving in the world of education. Not only is it important to allow space for the talents

of women already working, but their presence is vital to the development of healthy self-concepts among today's students.

Mary Bunting, concerned about women students, deplored as major problems with their education the "lack of models at the top, lack of encouragement along the way, and the lack of opportunity to use one's skills once they are developed."<sup>13</sup>

This same point is made over and over in the background literature on this subject.<sup>14</sup>

Referring only briefly to the administrator's problems in her analysis of women in academe, Graham says:

The presence of women in senior administrative positions will also encourage the able young undergraduate and graduate at the university to believe that a secretarial career, even a glorified one, need not be their vocational ambition, and it will remind the young men who will later be employers of women that women, too can be expert executives. No doubt it is also necessary, on most campuses, to increase the number of young women in junior faculty and administrative positions at the university. . . .<sup>15</sup>

And finally Abramson concludes:

All the arguments, the excuses, the myths, the adamant refusals to take affirmative action toward establishing equity do not change the fact that sex discrimination is perhaps the most serious problem in higher education.<sup>16</sup>

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<sup>13</sup>Mary Bunting, Patricia Graham, and Elga Wasserman, "Academic Freedom and Incentive for Women," Educational Record, 51 (Fall 1970), 388-91.

<sup>14</sup>Alice Rossi, "Discrimination and Demography Restrict Opportunities for Academic Women," College and University Business, 48 (Feb. 1970), 1-12.

<sup>15</sup>Patricia Graham, "Women in Academe," Science, 169 (Sept. 1970), 1288.

<sup>16</sup>Joan Abramson, The Invisible Woman: Discrimination in the Academic Profession (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1975), p. 111.

Black women administrators in higher education have not been a priority issue in predominantly white colleges. Prior to the turbulence of the late 1960's, black females participated in higher education primarily as teachers and administrators in all black colleges and universities.<sup>17</sup>

Moore and Wagstaff stated:

The women's activist organizations in academis, with their voluminous research, their spate of publications, and their hundreds of cases against colleges and universities charging discrimination, have not isolated and dealt with the problems of black women in higher education. Black women find themselves under the broad categories women or minority women. And just as the term minority group conceals this situation of a specific minority group, so the category women hides what is happening to a specific group of women.<sup>18</sup>

Most studies in higher education do not mention black women as academic professionals at all. For some reason the researchers who go in and count female heads fail to report race differences or what kind of jobs and ranks specific minority women hold, if any. While caucasian women may suffer only sex discrimination, black women encounter both sex and race discrimination.<sup>19</sup>

In providing a more comprehensive profile of who and where women administrators and faculty are, and what significant elements

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<sup>17</sup> Ibid., Moore and Wagstaff, Black Educators in White Colleges, pp. 155-160.

<sup>18</sup> Ibid., p. 157.

<sup>19</sup> Ibid.

contributed to their employment, this study proposes to add some knowledge, information, understanding, encouragement, and guidance which may be useful to counselors, university administrators, advisors to women students, affirmative action officers, and women's advocate groups.

It is hoped that the information collected and analyzed will, in addition, provide younger, talented women with some models to stimulate them in establishing similar administrative leadership goals for themselves and to guide them in achieving these goals. As more women of all races attain administrative positions and perform successfully, both men and women will develop more favorable attitudes toward them, and thus some of the restrictive cultural biases which lead to discrimination will be eliminated.

### Methodology

The population for this study, the research instruments, the data collection and the data treatment are described below.

#### Population and Sample

The population used in this study consisted of women faculty and administrators employed full-time in Michigan public institutions of higher education, as identified by the 1977-78 faculty and staff directories of their institution and by the Michigan Department of Higher Education Survey Report.<sup>20</sup>

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<sup>20</sup>Michigan Department of Higher Education Survey Report (1977).

Initially, all two- and four-year administrators and a selection of faculty women in Michigan public institutions of higher education were contacted and asked to participate in the investigation. In order to obtain in-depth information, personal interviews were conducted with selected faculty members and administrators. Comparisons of their personal, educational, professional backgrounds, career barriers and career influences were made.

### Data Collection

The instruments for this descriptive survey were tested in a pilot study conducted at Michigan State University, and Mott, and Baker Junior Colleges. Women administrators and faculty members were contacted and asked to participate in this investigation by completing the questionnaire and taking part in an in-depth interview. A cover letter did indicate the problem, purpose, and endorsement of the study, and assured the respondent of confidentiality.

Comments were solicited from the participants in the pilot study for the purposes of determining necessary revisions and improving the effectiveness of the instruments.

### Instruments

This was a descriptive survey utilizing material compiled from two sources: questionnaires and in-depth interviews.

Questionnaire Part I was an opinionnaire requesting personal view points.

Questionnaire Part II was a form requesting personal, educational, and professional information for the purpose of establishing similarities and differences among the women.

Questionnaire Part III was an interview guide for selected sample of women administrators in Michigan's institutions of higher education developed by the researcher with assistance from her advisor and other appropriate persons.

Questionnaire Part IV was an interview guide for selected sample of female faculty, following the same format as that for administrators.

Personal interviews did allow for in-depth probing of personal attitudes, values, views, and opinions the women may have about their positions and themselves. Schedules were arranged and participants were notified in advance for each interview.

To ascertain that the information from the interview was recorded correctly, each respondent was encouraged to grant permission for a tape recorded interview. Data obtained from the interview was supplementary to the questionnaire.

#### Data Treatment

The information collected from the survey instruments were recorded and processed with the aid of a computer. It was further categorized, tallied, calculated to determine central tendencies, frequency distribution, variance and presented in table form for comparison.



The interviews were taped and summarized in writing. Information from the questionnaires and from the interviews were analyzed separately with the later serving as additional detailed information.

### Basic Assumptions

In this study, it was assumed that in order to investigate and describe the educational, personal, and professional characteristics of women administrators and faculty members toward their employment an appropriate method for data collection was the use of the questionnaire supplemented by structured personal interviews. It was also assumed that the responding women administrators and faculty would provide honest and open answers and that it was feasible to gather direct information concerning career influences, career barriers, role conflicts, aspiration and mobility patterns from those women presently performing as administrators and faculty in public institutions of higher education in Michigan.

### Limitations

The population of this study was limited to women administrators and faculty members employed full-time in Michigan public institutions of higher education as identified by Michigan State Department of Higher Education and the 1977-78 faculty-staff directories of each public institution in Michigan higher education. Secondly the study was limited to educational, personal, professional characteristics that relate to women achieving high-level administrative and faculty positions and also the barriers and influences

that affected aspirations, role conflict and mobility patterns of women in higher education administration, therefore only certain conclusions have been drawn.

The faculty women included were those who held doctoral degrees, and spent at least three-fourths of their time teaching.

Library research materials are limited to ERIC, (the Educational Resources Information Center of the U.S. Office of Education), Dissertation Abstracts information searches, books and periodicals on file at the Michigan State University Library and the Flint Public Main Library, published and unpublished materials obtained through inter-library loan with Michigan State University Library, and books and materials owned or borrowed by this researcher.

### Overview of the Study

A study of the significant characteristics of women administrators and faculty toward their employment in Michigan's public institutions of higher education was presented in five chapters followed by a bibliography and appendices. The chapters contained the following information:

Chapter I: The introduction, the problem statement, the purpose, the rationale, the assumptions, the methodology, the limitations, the overview and definitions of terms.

Chapter II: A review of research literature related to the study.

Chapter III: The methodology, population, method of data collection, development of the survey instrument, and analysis of data.

Chapter IV: Report and analysis of the findings of the study.

Chapter V: A summary of the study, conclusion, and recommendations for further research.

### Definition of Terms

These definitions are limited for use in this study.

Women administrators.--women employed full-time primarily in positions whose titles connote authority; these positions entail broad responsibilities for decision-making, supervision of staff, and general management function. These women may or may not be responsible directly to and only to the president, or the Board of Trustees.

Administrative positions.--positions in Michigan's public institutions of higher education which carry the following titles: (1) Vice-President; (2) Dean or Director; (3) Department Head/Chairperson; (4) "Assistant," "Assistant to," and "Associate"; (5) Registrar; (6) Business Manager; (7) Coordinator or Program Director and (8) Head Librarian.

Public institutions of higher education.--Institutions at the post secondary level supported by public funds which provide degree programs and are accredited by agencies officially recognized for the U.S. Office of Education.

Other racial groups.--Spanish-surnamed Americans, American Indians, and Orientals. This definition can be used for only a limited analysis. It included only those groups who constitute a portion of the labor market being considered.

Career barrier.--any other than personal boundary, limitation, or obstruction which prevents the advancement toward a career objective.

Upward mobility.--upward or vertical movement, promotion, and advancement opportunities within or outside the institutional structure.

Faculty.--female educators in teaching positions who hold at least a doctoral degree.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

#### Introduction

An effort was made through reviewing related literature to provide background information on the status of professional women in higher education. Three major areas of interest were studied and documented: (1) Women Administrators at all Educational Levels; (2) Factors Related to Women Employment in Administration; and (3) Women in Higher Education.

#### Women Administrators at all Educational Levels

##### Leadership Qualities

Administrators differ by the manner in which they work with people--students, parents, teachers and the community; however, according to Schetlin, leadership qualities needed by women in administration are the same as those required by men; they include

. . . planning, organizing, staffing, scheduling, coordinating, directing, supervising, reporting, budgeting. It helps if they develop skills in areas such as interpersonal relationship, group dynamics, leadership, organizational theory, communication, negotiation, management, and how to be a change agent.<sup>21</sup>

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<sup>21</sup>Eleanor Schetlin M., "Wonderland and Looking Glass: Women in Administration," The Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 38 (Spring 1975), 104.

A study in Michigan by Barter determined the following:

1. Women teachers were more favorable toward women principals than men teachers.
2. Women interested in the principalship as a career were more favorable toward women principals than women not interested in that career.
3. Men teachers who had teaching experience with women principals were more favorable toward them than men having no experience with them.
4. The majority of teachers rated men and women principals equal in ability and personal qualities.
5. Approximately 46 percent of the men but only 7.8 percent of the women teachers were definitely interested in the elementary principalship as a career.
6. Men teachers were better prepared academically than women teachers for appointments to the principalship.<sup>22</sup>

Barter concluded that her data demonstrated that qualified women can be successful as principals and that there are competent women administrators.<sup>23</sup>

Meskin's study concluded that there is strong reason for seeking women to fill leadership positions in schools because of their

. . . democratic leadership, thoroughness of approach to problem solving, and bent toward instructional leadership, as well as the general effectiveness of their performance as rated by both teachers and superiors.<sup>24</sup>

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<sup>22</sup>Alice S. Barter, "The Status of Women in School Administration," Education Digest, 25 (October 1959), 41.

<sup>23</sup>Ibid.

<sup>24</sup>Joan D. Meskin, "The Performance of Women School Administrators--A Review of the Literature," Administrator's Notebook, 23 (January 1975), 4.

She concluded that past performance of current women administrators warrants emphasis placed on recruitment.<sup>25</sup>

Thurston indicated that there are certain paths that one must follow in order to become president of a two-year institution. They include teaching as well as quasi-administrative roles. She challenged the validity of a student personnel background as a solid preparation for leadership functions because it doesn't develop the necessary leadership quality of persuasion. In addition, her study pictured the high level woman administrator as one who is resilient and who can successfully handle great stress and challenge.<sup>26</sup>

A study conducted by Reeves described women college administrators as needing a sense of humor as a buffer against non-essential paperwork and responsibility without authority.<sup>27</sup>

A study of eighty women in leadership positions in North Carolina by Norman showed these women to be

. . . of high intelligence, confident, self-assured, sufficient, resourceful, temperamentally independent uninhibited, able to face wear and tear without fatigue, socially precise, with a strong self-image, imaginative, self-motivated, creative, shrewd,

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<sup>25</sup>Ibid.

<sup>26</sup>Alice J. Thurston, "A Woman President?--A Study of Two-Year College Presidents," The Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, 38 (Spring 1975), 118.

<sup>27</sup>Mary Elizabeth Reeves, "An Analysis of Job Satisfaction of Women Administrators in Higher Education," The Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, 38 (Spring 1975), 134.

calculating with an intellectual approach to the situation. These women leaders are high in ability to initiate structure in an organization, and are considerate, taking into account regard for well-being and status and contributions of followers, scope of initiative, decision and action. They can tolerate uncertainty and postponement and can reconcile conflicting demands and maintain cordial relations with superiors.<sup>28</sup>

In measuring major dimensions of human personality Uehling noted that men and women agree on personal characteristics valued in leaders and that they further agree that the most essential leadership traits are those predominantly considered masculine. Men are found to have deliberative and risk-taking characteristics, while women are held to have greater strength in warmth and personal attractiveness.<sup>29</sup> Democratic leadership, valued as a trait in all principals, was attributed to women principals significantly more often than to men principals in a study by Grobman and Hines.<sup>30</sup> Hoyle found that a group of teachers in a survey rated female and male principals equal in ability and personal qualities. He noted that women teachers prefer women principals more often than do men teachers unless the men have experienced working with a female principal.<sup>31</sup>

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<sup>28</sup>Blanche Norman, "A Study of Women in Leadership Positions in North Carolina," The Delta Kappa Gamma Bulletin, 36 (1970), 13.

<sup>29</sup>Barbara S. Uehling, Women and the Psychology of Management (U.S.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 089 562, 1973), p. 4.

<sup>30</sup>Hilda Grobman and Vynce A. Hines, "What Makes a Good Principal?" National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 40 (November 1956), 10.

<sup>31</sup>John Hoyle, "Who Shall Be A Principal--A Man or A Woman?" National Elementary Principal, 48 (January 1969), 23.



Reed viewed the traditionally feminine qualities of flexibility and persuasiveness as increasingly important leadership traits. Qualities which are necessary to leaders of all sexes are held in abundance by women. These are concern for all humanity; an understanding of political, social, and economic problems; and ability to communicate.<sup>32</sup>

In an attempt to determine whether or not men behave more appropriately than do women as secondary school principals Morsink compared the leadership behavior of fifteen men and fifteen women principals in Michigan as perceived by their faculty members. Her findings showed no significant differences between men and women in the areas of consideration and tolerance of uncertainty. In the areas of representation, reconciliation, persuasiveness, initiation of structure, role assumption, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration, and superior orientation female principals were perceived by both male and female teachers as having significantly higher abilities than those of men principals. Only in the area of tolerance of freedom did Morsink's study indicate male principals have a significantly higher score than that of women principals.<sup>33</sup>

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<sup>32</sup>Wayne O. Reed, Women: A Resource in Administration (U.S.: ERIC Document Reproduction Service, ED 082 297, 1971), pp. 18-19.

<sup>33</sup>Helen M. Morsink, "Leader Behavior of Men and Women Secondary School Principals," Educational Horizons, 46 (Winter 1968-69), 70.

### Background Characteristics

The research relating to professional women in higher education is limited and focuses on personal, educational and professional characteristics.

Some researchers have found birth order to be a consistently important variable; for example, executive women tended to be the firstborn if not the only child.<sup>34</sup> However, Fogarty, Rapoport and Rapoport, in their highly sophisticated studies, considered this factor equivocal and best understood in interaction with more proximate factors. That is, patterns adopted by the firstborn depend on intervening variables such as the advice or encouragement received, and the general environment of facilitation or inhibition.<sup>35</sup>

Childhood role models are a major influence. The impact of the parent career development may have implications for the child's career interest. Fogarty implies that whether or not the child's mother worked and how she felt about it exerts a strong influence on a young woman's career pattern.<sup>36</sup> Hennig found her 25 executive women all had close relationships with their fathers, although they did not reject the female role.<sup>37</sup> Plank and Plank, in their study of the autobiographies of famous women mathematicians found that

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<sup>34</sup>Margaret Hennig, "What Happens on the Way UP?" The MBA Masters in Business Administration, 5 (March 1971), 9.

<sup>35</sup>Michael P. Fogarty, Rhona Rapoport, and Robert N. Rapoport, Sex, Career and Family (Beverly Hills, California: Sage Publication, 1971), p. 311.

<sup>36</sup>Ibid.

<sup>37</sup>Hennig, op. cit., "What Happens," p. 8.

these women had one important element in common: they all described an unusually close relationship with their fathers rather than their mothers as they were growing up, and they attempted to pattern themselves after their fathers.<sup>38</sup>

In 1971, The National Association of Women Deans and Counselors published a report of a survey of its membership compiled with information received from 1,203 respondents. They concluded that of these women 14 percent held doctoral degrees; 74 percent held master's degrees; 46 percent were over 45 years of age; and 25 percent were under 30 years of age.<sup>39</sup>

Several studies of women doctorates have refuted the concept that it is a waste of time to educate women who will not work, or if they do work will not be as productive as their male colleagues.<sup>40</sup> Astin, in a survey of all women doctorates who received their degrees in 1957 and 1958 found that 1,999 women doctorates demonstrated strong career commitment. Seven

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<sup>38</sup>Eleanor Maccoby, "Women's Intellect," The Potential of Women, ed. by Seymour M. Farber (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1963), p. 34.

<sup>39</sup>Margaret C. Berry and Laurine E. Fitzgerald, "Profile and Status of NAWDC Members," Journal of the National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, 34 (Winter 1971), 50-59.

<sup>40</sup>Helen S. Astin, The Woman Doctorate in America (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1969), p. 91; Jessie Bernard, Academic Women (University Park: The Pennsylvania State University Press, 1964).

years after graduation, when the survey was completed, 91 percent of the women surveyed were in the labor force; 79 percent of the women had never interrupted their careers.<sup>41</sup> The majority of the women were employed in educational institutions. Women who had degrees in the humanities and social sciences were more likely to be employed in colleges and universities; women with degrees in education tended to be employed in junior colleges and secondary schools; and the majority of the scientists were working in government or industry.<sup>42</sup>

Astin also found that the women doctorates, however highly talented and well-educated, were not as successful in salary and position as men. Nor did they show the same level of scientific and scholarly productivity as academic men.<sup>43</sup>

Other studies on the scholarly productivity of academic women have found that women, as a group, did produce significantly fewer scholarly articles and books than their male counterparts, but institutional affiliation (junior college or university) and type of position (researcher or teacher) had great influence on the productivity of women doctorates.<sup>44</sup>

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<sup>41</sup>Astin, op. cit., The Woman Doctorate, p. 72.

<sup>42</sup>Ibid., p. 83.

<sup>43</sup>Ibid., p. 85.

<sup>44</sup>Bernard, op. cit., Academic Women, p. 83.

Astin found that controlling for the effects of personal and environmental variables, women who were in research and teaching roles in universities were as productive as their male colleagues.<sup>45</sup>

In academe, scholarly productivity, rather than teaching effectiveness or service, appears to be the primary requisite for advancement in rank and salary. For a number of reasons, women faculty members were more likely to hold teaching or counseling positions or be employed in junior colleges where the publication rate was low for both males and females; and women received less support for research or creative work. Bayer reported that 45 percent of the male faculty in universities received research support compared with 19 percent of women receiving support.<sup>46</sup>

It is difficult to assess whether women deliberately choose positions that do not require research and creative activities because of lack of commitment to career and advancement or whether they have less incentive to be productive because they have realistically assessed that discriminatory

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<sup>45</sup>Astin, op. cit., The Woman Doctorate, p. 83.

<sup>46</sup>Alan E. Bayer, "Teaching Faculty in Academe: 1972-73," American Council on Education Research Report, Vol. 8, No. 2 (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1973), p. 29.

practices prevent them from receiving support for research and limit their chances for promotion. Women who were active professionally published frequently and were found to report employer discrimination at a significantly greater rate.<sup>47</sup>

In summarizing her study of women doctorates, Astin stated:

. . . they are committed to their discipline and careers. They remain in the labor force, and they contribute as teachers, scholars, and scientists. Even though the system has not assisted women who have home and family responsibilities in addition to their professional responsibilities, and though it has not rewarded professional women equitably, academic women have demonstrated stamina, persistence, and devotion to their commitments.<sup>48</sup>

In an effort to determine career patterns of women administrators in higher education, Gardner surveyed fifty-one women in administrative positions in Illinois colleges and universities. The writer found that the majority of the women were from small families; were unmarried; had moved from office work or teaching to administrative positions; strongly supported the professional organizations in their fields; and tended to become administrators fairly early in life--between the ages of 25 and 35. The women who were surveyed stated that they had generally obtained their

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<sup>47</sup>Bernard, op. cit., Academic Women, p. 107.

<sup>48</sup>Helen S. Astin, "Career Profiles of Women Doctorates," Academic Women On The Move, ed. by Alice S. Rossi and Ann Calderwood (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973), pp. 160-61.

positions on their own initiative, and they identified the ability to understand people, to organize work, and to accept responsibility willingly as important qualifications for advancement.<sup>49</sup>

In a study of the career patterns of student personnel administrators, Grant and Foy obtained data from 1,320 administrators who represented 499 colleges and universities.<sup>50</sup> The researchers found that women student personnel administrators, regardless of their position, were older than the men in the profession. Women administrators were not as likely to be married; 32 percent of the women were married, as compared with 86 percent of the male administrators. The female administrators had an average tenure of seven years in their positions. Deans of women had the most longevity; some had been in the position for twenty-five years. The researchers concluded that advancement opportunities for women administrators were limited. While male student personnel administrators can expect to be promoted to non-student personnel administrative positions in higher education, women administrators ". . . are less likely to receive promotions even though they are likely to have more professional training and experience and be somewhat older."<sup>51</sup>

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<sup>49</sup> Helen Rogers Gardner, "Women Administrators in Higher Education in Illinois: A Study of Current Career Patterns" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1966).

<sup>50</sup> W. Harold Grant, and James E. Foy, "Career Patterns of Student Personnel Administrators," National Association Student Personnel Administrators Journal, 2 (October 1972), 106-13.

<sup>51</sup> Ibid., p. 113.

Rideout, in viewing the upward mobility of women in higher education administration, reported the following:

1. Over 53.2 percent of the women administrators had doctorate degrees.
2. Their median age was 45 years.
3. Their median number of years of professional employment was 24.
4. 38 percent had no career interruptions.
5. In the cases of interruptions, the most frequently cited reasons was for academic study.
6. Over half of the administrators were full professors.
7. Challenging work was the highest-rated job characteristic.
8. 56.1 percent were or had been married.
9. Their median number of children was one.
10. They came from small families.
11. The majority of their mothers had not been employed.
12. Their husbands, families, and other women in administration were seen as having facilitated their career achievement, however, the respondents saw their own attitudes as the most facilitating influence.
13. The administrators had a strong professional identification and they saw being a woman an advantage in their career achievement only if they were in the home economics profession.
14. Academic training in administration and management, internships or other experiential opportunities in administration, and financial assistance at the graduate level were among the types of support recommended as necessary for women with administrative aspirations.<sup>52</sup>

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<sup>52</sup> Anne H. Rideout, "The Upward Mobility of Women in Higher Education: A Profile of Women Home Economics Administrators" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1974).



Walsh in analyzing career patterns of women administrators observed the following:

1. The majority of women administrators were native born caucasians.
2. They were the only child or the first born in a family of two.
3. They had parents, especially fathers, somewhat better educated.
4. Their mothers' occupation was homemaker or housewife.
5. The majority of the women administrators chose to combine their professional roles with those of wife and mother.
6. The majority of the women administrators tended to marry later in life than the general population of women.
7. The majority of the women administrators married men of equal or greater educational attainment who worked outside of academia.
8. The majority of the women obtained their administrative position by "chance."
9. The majority of women held middle-management positions such as deans, directors, associate or assistance deans, and director in the student personnel area.
10. The majority of women administrators viewed the "old buddy" system as the most effective method of learning about their present positions.
11. The majority of women administrators indicated that the three most important factors affecting advancement included being competent, being supported by their immediate supervisor and being able to relocate.<sup>53</sup>

Lee in her study found the following factors as contributing to professional achievement of women in higher education.

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<sup>53</sup>p. A. Walsh, "Career Patterns of Women Administrators in Higher Education Institutions in California" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of California, 1975).

1. The family was the critical unit for development of competencies and attitudes related to achievement.
2. Opportunities for graduate study and faculty support were required for professional development.
3. Personal qualities such as drive, tenacity, skill in working with people, love of learning, intelligence and hard work helped.
4. Most women were satisfied with their career decisions and reported their chief satisfactions to be teaching and contact with students and the opportunities for continued growth that careers in higher education provided.
5. Significant differences between faculty and administrators were related to their graduate experiences.
6. Women not satisfied with their career decisions reported that negative family expectations, lack of opportunities, discrimination, and conflict with their perception of the role of women limited their aspirations and achievements.<sup>54</sup>

#### Factors Related to the Employment of Women

The literature discussed both positive and negative elements that affected women's efforts toward achieving positions in educational administration. These elements are discussed in this section under the titles of: (1) aspiration; (2) sex-role stereotypes; (3) legislation and task forces; (4) women's movement; and (5) affirmative action.

#### Career Barrier Aspiration

In an economically advanced society, the amount of time and the number of years required for household and child-rearing

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<sup>54</sup>Louise Lee, "Factors Related to Professional Achievement of Women: A Study of California State University and College Women" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Southern California, 1975).

responsibilities have been reduced significantly by technological advances, and the school system has assumed a great responsibility in the education and training of the young. There is nothing the material cultural of industrialized societies which should preclude the full equalization of women, yet there remains a lack of interest and reluctance on the part of many women to seriously seek and assume responsibility and status equal to men in the society.<sup>55</sup> The emergence of women into full equality, if not hampered by the material aspects of the society, is hindered by the cultural mores and traditions which influence the status, roles, and self-images of women, and by the organization of the society which requires that women assume major responsibility for the care of children and home. It is difficult to separate effectively the specific consequences of the pervasive patterns of sex discrimination in higher education from those of the broader cultural phenomena which affect the aspirations and achievement orientation of women and prevent so many potentially able women from becoming productive, effective members of the faculty and administration of higher education. Considering the broad participation of women in the world of work (women constitute 39 percent of the total labor force) it is noteworthy that women are underrepresented in

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<sup>55</sup> Jessie Bernard, "The Status of Women in Modern Patterns of Culture," The Annals, 375 (1968), 6-8.

responsible positions in the professions, government, business, and industry, as well as in higher education.<sup>56</sup>

Howe stated, "The crucial issue in women's education is . . . aspiration." She further noted that women who enter college do so with higher achievement records but lower career goals than men. Her indictment of women's low aspiration level indicates that women accept an inferior status in the educational hierarchy and consider this status a legitimate one.<sup>57</sup> Horner has developed a concept of the "motive to avoid success" which she contends" . . . acts as a psychological barrier to achievement in women."<sup>58</sup> She observed that most women who were achievement-oriented have a motive to avoid success, which was evidenced in ". . . a disposition to become anxious about achieving success, because they expect negative consequences, such as social rejection and/or feelings of being unfeminine, as a result of succeeding."<sup>59</sup> Horner has also argued that ". . . the motive to avoid success is a latent, stable, personality disposition acquired early in life in conjunction with sex role standards and sexual identity."<sup>60</sup> Horner's more recent

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<sup>56</sup>Cynthia Fuchs Epstein, "Women and the Professions," New Generations, 6 (Fall 1969), 16-17.

<sup>57</sup>Florence Howe, "Sexism and the Aspirations of Women," Phi Delta Kappan, 55 (October 1973), 100.

<sup>58</sup>Matina S. Horner, "The Motive to Avoid Success and Changing Aspirations of College Women," Women on Campus: 1970, Center for Continuing Education (1970), 62.

<sup>59</sup>Ibid.

<sup>60</sup>Matina S. Horner, "Toward an Understanding of Achievement-Related Conflicts in Women," Journal of Social Issues, 28 (February 1972), 164.

research revealed that the emphasis on the new freedom of women has not reduced the incidence of the motive to avoid success. She found:

. . . mounting evidence . . . suggesting that many achievement-oriented American women, especially those high in the motive to avoid success, when faced with the conflict between their feminine image and developing their abilities and interests, compromise by disguising their ability and abdicating from competition in the outside world.<sup>61</sup>

Horner attributed the increased and intensified fear of success, reported by women in her more recent studies, to the increased

. . . extent to which women have incorporated society's attitudes, and then tend to evaluate themselves in terms of these attitudes, which stress the idea that competition, success, competence, and intellectual achievement are basically inconsistent with femininity.<sup>62</sup>

Even with the removal of many ". . . legal and educational barriers and despite the presence of more opportunities for women," Horner contended that there was a ". . . significant and increasing absence of capable and trained American women from the mainstream of thought and achievement in the society."<sup>63</sup> Horner, writing in Psychology Today, declared that college women fear success and feel negatively toward other women who seek or achieve vocational success.<sup>64</sup> She documented the hypothesis that women achievers suffer high anxiety, thus ". . . becoming unpopular, unmarriageable,

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<sup>61</sup>Ibid.

<sup>62</sup>Ibid.

<sup>63</sup>Ibid.

<sup>64</sup>Matina S. Horner, "Woman's Will to Fail," Psychology Today, 3 (November 1969), 38.

and lonely."<sup>65</sup> Horner's study, which revolved around subjective scoring of stories written by a sample of men and women, concluded that ". . . women will fully explore their intellectual potential only when they do not need to compete--and least of all when they are competent with men."<sup>66</sup>

Berry and Kushner viewed the fear of success described by Horner as a very real impediment to upward mobility of women.<sup>67</sup> Tresemer reviewed previous studies in fear of success and concluded after conducting his own that a trend did exist which either illustrated a lessening of the fear of success among women or showed that the fear of success theory is unproven. He recommended approaching Horner's views with caution.<sup>68</sup> Another position on the low aspiration level of women held by Smith indicated that the chief problem to be settled by the prospective woman administrator is the establishment of priorities--domestic and professional. This author saw the woman administrator as needing great encouragement from her husband because she would receive little from her contemporaries.<sup>69</sup>

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<sup>65</sup>Ibid., p. 36.

<sup>66</sup>Ibid., p. 38.

<sup>67</sup>Jane Berry and Richard Kushner, "A Critical Look at the Queen Bee Syndrome," The Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 38 (Spring 1975), 173.

<sup>68</sup>David Tresemer, "Fear of Success: Popular, but Unproven," Psychology Today, 7 (March 1974), 83.

<sup>69</sup>Smith, op. cit., "Women Administrators--Is The Price Too High?" p. 99.

Most women teachers who hold advanced degrees in education do not want to become administrators because they have witnessed the difficulties in obtaining positions of educational leadership.<sup>70</sup> Women have accepted an inferior status in educational systems or at least have an unwillingness to struggle for positions in the administrative hierarchy.<sup>71</sup> Barter found only 7.8 percent of the women in elementary schools in her study to be interested in administrative positions. The results of her study, which showed that men elementary teachers were better prepared academically for principalship positions than women elementary teachers led Barter to conclude that apathy on the part of women teachers is a factor in the low number of women in elementary leadership positions and that qualified women seeking the principalship are given fair consideration.<sup>72</sup> Lyon and Saario, a decade later, declared improbable the statement that all women are without interest in career advancement.<sup>73</sup>

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<sup>70</sup> Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker, "Women Lose Out: Is There Sex Discrimination in School Administration?" The Clearing House, 47 (March 1973), 390.

<sup>71</sup> Howe, op. cit., "Sexism and the Aspirations of Women," p. 101.

<sup>72</sup> Barter, op. cit., "The Status of Women in School Administration," p. 41.

<sup>73</sup> Catherine Lyon, and Terry Saario, "Women in Public Education: Sexual Discrimination in Promotions," Phi Delta Kappan, 55 (October 1973), 131.

Psychological discrimination was identified by Krohn as undermining women's aspirations.<sup>74</sup> Bach further noted that, "Women who show interest in pursuing careers outside the classroom are urged to become counselors, educational specialists, or supervisors." She found a strong psychological deterrent to aspiration for administrative positions to be that women aspirants are viewed as oddities by other professionals.<sup>75</sup>

Cavender remarked that while women are often questioned in interviews regarding their responsibilities as wives and mothers, men are never subjected to questions regarding their susceptibility to incapacitating diseases which are found in higher frequency in men than in women.<sup>76</sup> Further validity was given by Van Meir to the argument that women are discouraged in interviews for administrative positions. He stated "career interruptions also account in part for the lack of women appointees to educational administrative posts."<sup>77</sup> In her sociological research, Epstein certified that a large percentage of women with

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<sup>74</sup>Barbara Krohn, "The Puzzling Case of the Missing Ms.," Nation's Schools and Colleges, 1 (November 1974), 34.

<sup>75</sup>Louise Bach, "Of Women, School Administrators, and Discipline," Phi Delta Kappan, 57 (March 1976), 464.

<sup>76</sup>Edith Cavender, "Women in Administration? You've Got To Be Kidding!" National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 58 (December 1974), 91.

<sup>77</sup>Edward J. Van Meir, "Sexual Discrimination in School Administration Opportunities," The Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 38 (Summer 1975), 164.



professional careers do not have traditional family responsibilities and are not considered normal in the American society.<sup>78</sup>

In a study in Minnesota of the aspiration of teachers for administrative positions, Wain concluded:

1. There is no difference in the aspirations of women teachers and the aspirations of men teachers for a school administrative position.
2. Women teachers with less than ten years of experience and men teachers with less than five years of experience are more likely to aspire to an administrative position.
3. Women teachers who are not married are more likely to aspire to an administrative position than those who are married.
4. A higher percentage of men teachers than women teachers are certified for an administrative position, and a higher percentage of men teachers than women teachers have taken professional education courses in pursuit of certification.
5. The main reason teachers do not aspire to an administrative position is that they prefer teaching and day-to-day contact with students.
6. Most teachers feel that women are not encouraged to apply for or prepare themselves professionally for administrative positions.<sup>79</sup>

McCorkle in advising aspiring women wishing to go into higher education administration indicated women should:

get academic credential; have experience in a professional field; study theory of administration; study theory of higher education; study theory of negotiation; study theory of law; study theory of research techniques; study theory of how to

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<sup>78</sup>Cynthia F. Epstein, "Structuring Success for Women," The Education Digest, 39 (February 1974), 57.

<sup>79</sup>Judith Wain, "Attitudes of Teachers Toward Women School Administrators and the Aspirations of Teachers for Administrative Positions in the State of Minnesota," Catalyst for Change, 6 (Fall 1976), 19.

work with people; retain their identity; believe in themselves as women; accept challenge; work hard; have high standards; if they marry, they should marry men who see them as individuals.<sup>80</sup>

### Sex-Role Stereotypes

The feminist movement has stimulated an increasing interest in research relating to sexual identity, feminine roles, and how the social context of women's lives creates conflict.<sup>81</sup> Research dealing with achievement motivation in pre-school and early grade school ages has shown that girls are ". . . motivated by a desire for love rather than mastering." The qualities needed for sustained top performance, especially as adult; are not typically learned by little girls. Boys are encouraged toward independence and mastering the environment, while girls are taught to be more dependent and less adventurous. Thus, as boys learn instrumental independence, girls learn that they are rewarded more for non-competitive, conforming behavior, which contributes to the higher grades which girls earn throughout elementary and secondary school. Because girls get more parental protection and are not encouraged to be independent, they become more dependent on others for approval and do not develop the skills nor the self-confidence to cope in

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<sup>80</sup>E. M. McCorkle, "Top-Level Women Administrators in Higher Education: A Study of Women Presidents, Chief Academic Officer, and Academic Deans" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Oklahoma State University, 1975).

<sup>81</sup>Juanita H. Williams, "Femininity: A Deviancy Model of Normal Personality," Interpretations of Women: Readings in Psychology, ed. by Juanita H. Williams (Lexington: Xerox College Publishing, 1973), pp. 290-95.

a competitive, achievement-oriented environment.<sup>82</sup> Further research has shown that young girls who have strong affiliative needs and lack self-confidence avoid competitive tasks or instrumental tasks because they consistently underestimate their own ability.<sup>83</sup>

The feminist movement has not appreciably influenced the feminine role among the college-age population. Bardwick has reviewed a number of recent studies which utilized femininity-masculinity scales, and found that college-age women who scored "high feminine" (that is, preferred the conventional, passive, female role) were more other-oriented, exhibited less ego-strength, and were less achievement-oriented.<sup>84</sup>

In a study of women college seniors, Gump explored the relationship of ego-strength, achievement motivation, and career goals. Gump found that:

. . . the view of femininity most acceptable to the women participating in the study was one which included the role of wife and mother while pursuing careers that would gratify needs for self-realization. Those students who were more achievement oriented still planned careers in the traditional female fields, such as nursing, education, and social work.<sup>85</sup>

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<sup>82</sup>Lois Waldis Hoffman, "Early Childhood Experiences and Women's Achievement Motives," Journal of Social Issues, 28 (February 1972), 192-93.

<sup>83</sup>Ibid., p. 200.

<sup>84</sup>Judith M. Bardwick, Psychology of Women (New York: Harper & Row, 1971), p. 67.

<sup>85</sup>Janice Porter Gump, "Sex-Role Attitudes and Psychological Well-Being," Journal of Social Issues, 28 (February 1972), 79-84.

Other studies related to sex role have presented data which showed that girls who scored higher on masculinity scales were more confident, self-reliant, assertive, competitive, and self-accepting than girls who were typified as retiring and passive and scored high in femininity.<sup>86</sup>

Nieboer noted that the dearth of role models for prospective women administrators causes a scarcity in women administrative applicants, with an ensuing lack of increase in female appointees to such positions.<sup>87</sup> Women college students need dynamic, enlightened women deans who will initiate change in the traditional structure of the educational and social system, according to Gillies.<sup>88</sup> Hawley commented that women who feel free to compete with men in male-dominated fields report early relationships of equality with significant men.<sup>89</sup>

Shelly portrayed the school child's view of male and female models as the teacher, woman; the principal, man. The child learns

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<sup>86</sup>A. B. Heilbrien, "Sex-Role, Instrumental Expressive Behavior, and Psychopathology in Females," Journal of Abnormal Psychology, 13 (1968), 131-36.

<sup>87</sup>Nancy Nieboer, "There Is A Certain Kind of Woman . . .," The Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, 38 (Spring 1975), 99.

<sup>88</sup>Jean Gillies, "In Defense of the Dean of Women; A New Role For A New World," The Journal of The National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 36 (Spring 1975), 158.

<sup>89</sup>Peggy Hawley, "Perceptions of Male Models of Femininity Related To Career Choice," Journal of Counseling Psychology, 19 (July 1972), 308.

from the role thus exhibited that man is a decision-making person and that woman is a direction-seeking one. These roles played out at the elementary school level teach the young male or female that there is no business like equality between male and female adults.<sup>90</sup> Sexton wrote, "The most damaging of all sex stereotypes, that only males are capable of high level leadership, is confirmed in the minds of the young."<sup>91</sup> This stereotyping takes place in the schools when children see leadership positions held by men to the virtual exclusion of women.<sup>92</sup> Sexton placed blame for the lack of women administrators on the training institutions for their failure to recruit promising young women into their programs.<sup>93</sup>

Tibbetts viewed most women as being unaware of the discrimination inherent in sex-role stereotyping. This author claimed, however, that women must bear the responsibility for initiating role changes.<sup>94</sup> "Women may very well be the most disadvantaged class in American society," claimed Green, but they are beginning to recognize that they possess unused brains

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<sup>90</sup>Ann Converse Shelly, "Can We Find More Diverse Adult Sex Roles?" Educational Leadership, 31 (November 1973), 118.

<sup>91</sup>Patricia Sexton, Women In Education (Bloomington, Indiana: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation, 1976), p. 57.

<sup>92</sup>Ibid.

<sup>93</sup>Ibid., p. 56.

<sup>94</sup>Sylvia-Lee Tibbetts, "Sex Role Stereotyping: Why Women Discriminate Against Themselves," The Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 38 (Spring 1975), 181.

and ability.<sup>95</sup> On the other hand, Reed asserted that ". . . discrimination exists against women in education, particularly at the highest levels; . . . it exists mainly in the minds of men."<sup>96</sup> Funderburk suggested that to overcome discrimination women must offer higher academic qualifications than those of men and must approach discriminatory attitudes with dignity.<sup>97</sup> Hennig and Jardim states:

Saying a person cannot be kept out doesn't ensure that that person can get in, and more important, stay in. Beliefs, attitudes and assumptions which people have about themselves and each other and their resulting willingness or unwillingness to accept each other are untouched by law. . . . In order to take advantage of equal opportunity women must believe they are, and in fact must be, as competent as their male counterparts.<sup>98</sup>

Women are the victims of a two-pronged discrimination device, asserted Dearing, which denies them access to administrative positions. The first being overeducated and under experienced: or secondly experienced and undereducated. He held that this treatment maintains the status quo by the group holding power--men.<sup>99</sup> Women

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<sup>95</sup>Edith Green, "Women: A Significant National Resource" (U.S., ERIC Document ED 082 297, 1971), p. 4.

<sup>96</sup>Wayne O. Reed, "Women: A Resource in Administration" (U.S., ERIC Document ED 082 097, 1971), p. 14.

<sup>97</sup>Earl C. Funderburk, "Women: Their Responsibility in Professional Unity" (U.S., ERIC Document ED 082 297, 1971), p. 28.

<sup>98</sup>Margaret Hennig, and Anne Jardim, The Managerial Woman (New York: Anchor Press, 1977), p. XIV.

<sup>99</sup>Bruce Dearing, "Opening Address" (U.S., ERIC Document ED 086 062, 1973), p. 1.

are favored as principals over men only when the men teachers responding to the question posed have served with a female principal. The logic Taylor then followed was that as the number of women principals is decreasing, men will increasingly report a more favorable disposition toward men principals.<sup>100</sup>

A further look at role models and expectations for women educators indicates that social mores and stereotypes hamper a woman's pursuit of professional goals. The American Association of School Administrators listed four myths believed by Americans which hinder women's aspirations. The first is that man is the provider and woman the homemaker. The second myth is that the costly education of women is wasted on a sex that does not have many productive years. The third attitude the association recorded is that women should not seek men's jobs. Finally, the idea is held that men do not want to work for women.<sup>101</sup> Clark and others named additional myths:

. . . 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; they have high absentee and turnover rates; they are best suited to certain kinds of jobs.<sup>102</sup>

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<sup>100</sup>Harris A. Taylor, "Women in Administration," American School and University, 36 (December 1963), 122.

<sup>101</sup>American Association of School Administrators, Sex Equality in Educational Administration, Arlington, Virginia, 1975, p. 4.

<sup>102</sup>Eunice Clark and others, Women in Administrative Positions in Public Education (Philadelphia Recruitment Leadership and Training Institute, Temple University, 1974), p. 25.

These authors perceived the hesitancy of women to seek positions of administrative leadership to be a result of social conditioning. Stereotyped sex roles, remarked Kaye, are chiefly to blame for the attitude that women should not be administrators. Women accept the stereotypes, and then policies are made to conform to the stereotypes.<sup>103</sup> Wain confirmed the belief that ". . . social attitudes and norms appear to constitute the greatest obstacles to women aspiring to administrative positions."<sup>104</sup>

Nieboer pointed out that the qualities of ". . . competition, independence, competence, intellectual achievement, and leadership" are associated with men.<sup>105</sup> However, Schetlin challenged the myth that men are the ". . . rational, objective, competent sex."<sup>106</sup> Zakrajsek declared that home, school, church, and society have perpetuated the myth that woman's temperament makes her less capable than a man. Reasons cited by Zakrajsek for the small percentage of women administrators included greater job competition, lack of guidance for girls, few role models for females, short term career goals satisfying women, marriage conflicting with women's

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<sup>103</sup>Bernard W. Kaye, "Moving Women into Educational Administration" (U.S., ERIC Document ED 105 549, 1975), p. 7.

<sup>104</sup>Wain, op. cit., "Attitudes of Teachers Toward Women School Administrators and the Aspirations of Teachers for Administrative Positions in the State of Minnesota," p. 19.

<sup>105</sup>Nieboer, op. cit., "There Is A Certain Kind of Woman . . .," p. 99.

<sup>106</sup>Schetlin, op. cit., "Wonderland and Looking Glass: Women in Administration," p. 106.



careers, lack of government aid for women, women's apathy in seeking promotions, women's overuse of sick leave, lack of job continuity among women, lack of woman's desire for administrative positions, and the emotional instability of women.<sup>107</sup> Frazier and Sadker viewed the lack of national commitment to quality child care as a reaffirmation of the social attitude that mothers should stay home and care for their children.<sup>108</sup>

Guin Hall's listing of stereotypes included the attitudes that girls will marry and be provided for by a husband, that women are physically weaker than men, that married women with children are tied to the home, and that neither men nor women want to work for women. Hall further maintained that attitudes, myths, and stereotypes are refuted by statistics, logic, and reality, but they influence the careers of women daily.<sup>109</sup>

Early stereotyping by sex encourages inequality between males and females, according to Verheyden-Hilliard. Females and males who spend their school years accepting the indoctrination that males are superior to females cannot expect to perform or

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<sup>107</sup>Barbara Zakrajsek, "Obtaining a Principalship," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 60 (April 1976), 94.

<sup>108</sup>Nancy Frazier, and Myra Sadker, Sexism in School and Society (New York: Harper & Row, 1973), p. 24.

<sup>109</sup>Guin Hall, "Changing Sex Roles in the Labor Force," Phi Delta Kappan, 55 (October 1973), 136-37.

aspire on an equal basis in the professional world.<sup>110</sup> To illustrate the often held notion that women's productive years are few, Garson recited a question often asked professional women: "Are you still working?"<sup>111</sup> The myth that shorter careers are more prevalent among professional female educators was exploded by Johnson, who claimed that women have more years of service than do men and enjoy a longer life span.<sup>112</sup>

An unusual stereotype called the "Queen Bee" was described by Staines, Travis, and Epstein. These authors viewed the woman administrator as a token who denigrates the efforts of other women and refuses to identify with them.<sup>113</sup> Berry and Kushner refuted this theory by pointing out that successful women administrators are the product of family and educational backgrounds that have supported females in leadership roles and have cultivated the abilities required for male-dominated career fields.<sup>114</sup>

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<sup>110</sup> Mary Ellen Verheyden-Hilliard, "Kindergarden: The Training Ground for Women in Administration," The Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 38 (Spring 1975), 151.

<sup>111</sup> Helen S. Garson, "Hurray Up Please, Its Time," The Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 38 (Spring 1975), 168.

<sup>112</sup> Dorothy Johnson, "What Is the Future of Women In School Administration?" (U.S., ERIC Document ED 082 297, 1971).

<sup>113</sup> Graham Staines, Carol Travis, and Jayaratne Epstein, "The Queen Bee Syndrome," Psychology Today, 7 (January 1974), 55.

<sup>114</sup> Berry and Kushner, op. cit., "A Critical Look at the Queen Bee Syndrome," p. 175.

Women who do not conform to the typical or "normal female" role and are assertive, independent, and achievement oriented are often seen as being unfeminine by others. Graham suggested that stereotyping of female role expectations was a major reason why few women had been appointed to top-level administrative positions:

Administrators are expected to be independent and assertive, behaviors understood as "tough and bitchy" when displayed by women, but "clearheaded and attentive to detail" when found in a man. Tolerance for men's behavior is a good deal broader than it is for that of women. Men are permitted their idiosyncracies of whatever sort, but women are expected to maintain a much more precarious balance between conspicuous competence and tactful femininity. Manifestations of independence and autonomy are expected in a male executive; their presence in women makes some male colleagues cringe.<sup>115</sup>

Sizemore stated:

Women should be more aggressive in pursuing their rights to fill administrative positions for which their education and experience fit them. They should bring to these jobs the sensitivity necessary for effective human and personal relations and should design and implement governance models that give every role incumbent some input into decision-making.<sup>116</sup>

Tessler in presenting profiles of women college presidents concludes that the educational environment is very important

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<sup>115</sup>Patricia Graham, "Status Transition of Women Students, Faculty, and Administrators," Academic Women On The Move, ed. by Alice S. Rossi and Ann Calderwood (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973), pp. 170-71.

<sup>116</sup>Barbara Sizemore, "Will The Woman Administrator Make A Difference?" (Paper presented to American Association of School Administrators Annual Meeting, Atlantic City, New Jersey, February 1973).

because it allows for the emotional, sexual, social and cognitive development of young women.<sup>117</sup>

Several factors were viewed by Perrin as barriers to the advancement of women college faculty members to high-level academic administrative positions: (1) women were victims of sex discrimination; (2) women did not aspire to such positions because of lack of motivation created by societal expectations for women; (3) women underestimated their capabilities; and (4) there was a lack of qualified women in academe from which to draw for such positions.<sup>118</sup>

In her study of beliefs held by male and female teachers, Matheny found the following factors:

1. The majority of females teachers did not see the selection process in their school districts for principalship or superintendency open to all who filled the requirements regardless of sex. They did perceive a bias in favor of males.
2. Most disagreed that men were better suited temperamentally for administrative jobs than were women.
3. The majority agreed that women must work harder than men with similar talent and qualifications to achieve an administrative position.
4. A majority agreed that men received more encouragement from their superiors to seek administrative positions than did women with comparable ability.

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<sup>117</sup>Shirley Tessler, "Profiles of Selected Women College Presidents Reflecting Their Emerging Role of Women in Higher Education" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Boston College, 1976).

<sup>118</sup>Ellen Hays Perrin, "Perceptions of Women College Faculty Members Toward Careers in Academic Administration" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, University of Pittsburgh, 1974).

5. A majority agreed that community attitudes and traditions made it difficult for women to succeed in administrative positions.
6. A majority agreed that Boards of Education hired male superintendents over equally qualified females.
7. Most agreed that women were not counseled and encouraged as much as men by colleges and universities to prepare for administrative positions.
8. A majority agreed that the women's movement was a positive force for obtaining equal pay and job opportunities for women.<sup>119</sup>

Timmons found that a large number of teachers felt that prejudice in hiring practices and widely held social beliefs which limited the acceptable roles of women, constituted the biggest obstacles to women desiring to be school administrators.<sup>120</sup>

Fleming, in an effort to determine whether or not discrimination on the basis of sex existed toward employing qualified women in administrative positions in higher education, reported the followings:

1. Center directors rated male applicants for the position higher than female applicants for the same position.
2. Deans of colleges of education and chairmen of departments of educational administration tend to rate, although not significantly so, male applicants higher than female applicants for the position.

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<sup>119</sup>Priscilla Matheny, "A Study of the Attitudes of Selected Male and Female Teachers, Administrators and Board of Education Presidents Toward Women in Educational Administrative Positions" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Northwestern University, 1973).

<sup>120</sup>Joseph Edward Timmons, "A Study of Attitudes Toward Women School Administrators and the Aspirations of Women Teachers for Administrative Positions in the State of Indiana" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Indiana University, 1973).

3. The younger the administrator, the more likely he or she was to rate the female applicant lower than the male.
4. Administrators in the southern region of the country tended to exhibit a greater degree of discrimination in the rating of a male applicant over a female applicant than administrators in other sections of the country.
5. The number of years the administrator had held his or her present position had little or no influence on the rating of an applicant classified by sex.<sup>121</sup>

Fleming further recommended that since community educational philosophy espoused opportunity for fulfillment for all, self-satisfaction and worth of each individual, leaders in community education should be made aware of the evidence of bias toward men over women by whatever methods were deemed most effective to correct this situation.<sup>122</sup>

Gassner in identifying factors which women administrators found to be influences in their career advancement concluded that parental support, encouragement from faculty, contact with an active career woman, support from colleagues and supervisors and women's own acceptance of responsibility and hard work were considered to have positive influence, whereas interruption of employment, lack of mobility to accept advanced positions, non-acceptance as a professional peer, inadequate child care centers

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<sup>121</sup>Joan Fleming, "Assessment of Employment Practices Toward Women Administrators in Institutions of Higher Education" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Arizona State University, 1974).

<sup>122</sup>Ibid.

and lack of opportunities to serve on university committees were considered to have negative influence.<sup>123</sup>

Taking a somewhat different approach, Simpson conducted a study to determine the employment attitudes of deans and departmental chairmen in six Pennsylvania institutions of higher education. Resumés included equally qualified male and female applicants. The applicants considered were two pairs of females with superior qualifications, and two pairs of males with superior qualifications. Simpson found that: (1) when equally qualified male and female applicants were considered, the male was typically chosen for employment; (2) a statistically significant number of the employing agents chose the superior female candidates in preference to less qualified males; (3) traditionally female employment fields, such as nursing and home economics, chose more equally qualified females candidates; (4) subjects in the twenty to thirty age range and those over sixty years of age selected the highest number of female candidates; and (5) female subjects selected substantially more female candidates than did males. Simpson also administered an attitude-scale which measured the subjects' attitude toward women. Subjects who selected a high number of women candidates were more likely to express positive attitudes

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<sup>123</sup>M. H. Gassner, "Career Patterns of Women Administrators. . . ." (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Southern Illinois University, 1976).

toward women, whereas the subjects who selected low number of females expressed negative attitudes toward women.<sup>124</sup>

Career Influences, Legislation  
and Task Forces

Another factor which relates to women in leadership positions in education is the legislation which sought to eradicate discrimination at all levels of education--from kindergarten through graduate school. Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972 states:

No person in the United States shall, on the basis of sex, be excluded from participation in, be denied the benefits of, or be subjected to discrimination under any education programs receiving federal financial assistance.<sup>125</sup>

Compliance with Title IX is enforced by actions initiated through federal funding agencies. In addition to the emphasis provided by Title IX, Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibited discriminatory employment practices.<sup>126</sup> The Equal Employment Opportunities Commission hears and monitors complaints against employers on grounds of discrimination based on race, color, religion, national origin, and sex. Executive Order 11246 and 11375 and Revised Order No. 4 were also designed to curtail employment discrimination by sex.<sup>127</sup>

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<sup>124</sup>Lawrence A. Simpson, "A Study of Employing Agents' Attitudes Toward Women in Higher Education" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1969).

<sup>125</sup>Education Amendments of 1972, 86 Stat., 1972, pp. 373-75.

<sup>126</sup>Civil Rights Act of 1964, 78 Stat., 1964, p. 262.

<sup>127</sup>Charlotte B. Hallam, "Legal Tools To Fight Sex Discrimination," Phi Delta Kappan, 55 (October 1973), 131.



An additional factor which affected women seeking administrative positions was found in the work of study commissions, special conferences, and task forces. The United States commissioner of Education formed a task force in 1972 to determine the influence on women of the programs of the Office of Education.<sup>128</sup> The National Education Association and the American Federation of Teachers have held conferences at the national level to condemn sexism and call for equal rights for women educators.<sup>129</sup> The American Association of School Administrators and the American Educational Research Association have focused on projects to promote understanding of sex equality in education.

The University Council for Educational Administration has undertaken a project that will provide materials to women administrators and trainees as well as to professors of educational administration to facilitate the training and intern programs of professionals in administration.<sup>130</sup> Garson urged women administrators to seek information in books, journals, workshops, and institutes to enhance their style and expertise.<sup>131</sup>

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<sup>128</sup>Clark and others, "Women in Administrative Positions in Public Education," p. 32.

<sup>129</sup>Krohn, op. cit., "The Puzzling Case of the Missing Ms," p. 35.

<sup>130</sup>The University Council for Educational Administration News, Ohio, "Universities Collaborate in Women's Education Equity Act Project," Columbus, 1976 (mimeographed).

<sup>131</sup>Garson, op. cit., "Hurry Up Please, It's Time," p. 170.

### Women's Movement

Although the literature about the women's movement is extensive, only the most pertinent topics are reviewed here. Various aspects of this movement have encouraged the development and increasing approval of a greater variety of life styles for women than has previously characterized our society. But in this, as in other facets of professional achievement, women simply have a harder time than men because of the expectations of our society.<sup>132</sup>

Women have organized to focus on the needs of professional women in career advancement. There is a statistically significant difference between the attitudes of men and those of women toward the status of women, as reported by McEwen and Shertzer.<sup>133</sup> Gilles viewed the women's movement as a gathering force which will increase opportunities for women to achieve administrative positions. She correlated the rising numbers of women in law, medicine, and science with higher numbers of women in leadership roles in schools.<sup>134</sup> Encouragement for women to join one of the women's organizations as a means of supporting improved status

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<sup>132</sup>K. Patricia Cross, "The Woman Student," Women in Higher Education (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1972), pp. 42-45.

<sup>133</sup>Marylou McEwen, and Bruce Shertzer, "An Analysis of Differences in Professional Attitudes and Beliefs Between Male and Female Members of the College Student Personnel Profession," The JNAWDAC, 38 (Spring 1975), 142.

<sup>134</sup>Mathilda Gilles, "There Is a Future For Women in School Administration," U.S., ERIC Document ED 082 297.

for women came from Dale.<sup>135</sup> In addition, Barnes recorded that women in Los Angeles, California, were preparing themselves for administrative positions by acquiring the necessary credentials. Of those qualified for secondary positions, 26.7 percent were women; 40.3 percent of those qualified for elementary positions were women.<sup>136</sup>

The impetus of the women's movement, which has made women more aware of expanding career opportunities, is increasing the number of women who aspire to professional careers that require graduate training.<sup>137</sup>

#### Affirmative Action

Affirmative action in public institutions has been required but often has not been enforced until after discrimination charges have been made.<sup>138</sup> However, such plans exist at state and local levels in public education, in institutions of higher education, and in the reports of task forces.<sup>139</sup> These plans include means

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<sup>135</sup>Charlene T. Dale, "Women Are Still Missing Persons in Administrative and Supervisor Jobs," Educational Leadership, 31 (November 1973), 126.

<sup>136</sup>Thelma Barnes, "America's Forgotten Minority: Women School Administrators," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 60 (April 1976), 92.

<sup>137</sup>Cross, op. cit., "The Woman Student," pp. 42-45.

<sup>138</sup>Hallam, op. cit., "Legal Tools to Fight Sex Discrimination," p. 131.

<sup>139</sup>Krohn, op. cit., "The Puzzling Case of The Missing Ms." p. 36.

for identifying and removing barriers which prevent qualified women from holding administrative positions. Some school districts and universities have been moving from within to accept the challenge to change the way they treat women by ceasing to confuse brains with brawn in hiring administrators to run schools effectively.<sup>140</sup> Institutions have been required to institute self-studies to determine if they are treating all personnel equitably in recruitment, hiring, pay, fringe benefits and promotion.<sup>141</sup>

Affirmative action can increase the pool of persons available for advancement and can increase the visibility of women in the pool, stated Dearing.<sup>142</sup> He advised that women be listed by their credentials and qualifications with the American Association of University Women and with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare. Kaye determined that affirmative action should include aggressive recruitment of women candidates for administrative positions, placement of more women on screening committees, establishment of inservice career development workshops for women, awareness sessions for men aimed at attitudes and practices that perpetuate discrimination, recruitment of women for professional training in administration, and local and

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<sup>140</sup>Charlene T. Dale, "Let's Open District Doors To Female Administrators," Nation's Schools, 93 (June 1974), 12.

<sup>141</sup>Alice Fins, "Sex and the School Principal: A Long Look At Title IX," National Association of Secondary School Principals Bulletin, 58 (September 1974), 53-62.

<sup>142</sup>Dearing, Open Address, p. 3.

state-wide data collection of existing opportunities for administrative appointments for women.<sup>143</sup> Taylor described a good recruiting program as one which identifies potential female candidates early in their teaching careers and provides stimulus for their completion of certification requirements.<sup>144</sup>

Tokenism was described by Garson as an inherent danger in affirmative action programs which give a woman a position in which her decisions are either ignored by bypassed.<sup>145</sup> Zakrajsek, however, declared that even through token positions women can achieve success and can prove the competencies of women in administration.<sup>146</sup>

Epstein commented that, "creation of competence is a result of on-the-job training given only when important gatekeepers decide a person has talent that will develop."<sup>147</sup> Therefore, she continued, the subjective criteria which gatekeepers use must submit to affirmative recruitment of qualified women for positions of administrative leadership. Women must be judged by the same set of standards as are men and exposed to tasks whereby they can learn.<sup>150</sup> Hahn supported the position that gatekeepers must be

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<sup>143</sup>Kaye, op. cit., "Moving Women Into Educational Administration," p. 3.

<sup>144</sup>Taylor, op. cit., "Women In Administration," p. 23.

<sup>145</sup>Garson, op. cit., "Hurry Up Please, It's Time," p. 171.

<sup>146</sup>Zakrajsek, op. cit., "Obtaining A Principalsip," p. 98.

<sup>147</sup>Epstein, op. cit., "Structuring Success For Women," p. 59.

<sup>148</sup>Ibid.

encouraged to aid women who seek positions of leadership by becoming their advocates. She exhorted women to seek out and develop mentors within the system who will help them achieve upward mobility.<sup>149</sup>

### Women in Higher Education

Women make up a substantial percentage of the total population in institutions of higher education. In this section of the review of related literature the following topics were investigated: (1) Undergraduate Women in Higher Education; (2) Women in Professional Education; (3) Women Graduate Students; (4) Women Faculty; and (5) Women Administrators.

### Undergraduate Women Students

Throughout the present century, women have been more likely to enter college than men in the same age group, but in recent years the differences have been narrowing. By 1972, women comprised slightly more than one-half of the high school graduates and about forty-five percent of the college entrants.<sup>150</sup> The rise in the enrollment of women during the 1960's was undoubtedly influenced by the rise in per capita income, the later age of marriage, the declining birthrate, the expanding economy, and the availability of low-cost public community colleges.<sup>151</sup>

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<sup>149</sup>Carole Hahn, "Eliminating Sexism From The Schools: Implementing Change," Social Education, 39 (March 1975), 133.

<sup>150</sup>Carnegie Commission, Opportunities for Women in Higher Education (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1973), p. 35.

<sup>151</sup>U.S. Office of Education, A Look At Women In Education: Issues and Answers for H.E.W., Report of the Commissioner's Task

The cultural and institutional barriers which influence the participation of women as faculty members and administrators also has influenced the level and quality of participation of women students in higher education. The proportion of women from low socio-economic status groups who enroll in college is lower than the enrollment of men in the same status. Parental attitudes toward college education for women and earlier marriages undoubtedly contribute to the lower enrollment rate of low income women. However, institutional practices in allocating student financial aid and student jobs also tend to discourage women. The Educational Testing Service recently documented a clear pattern of sex discrimination in student financial aid. Women averaged \$215.00 less in annual financial aid than men and were paid 78 percent less in earned student wages.<sup>152</sup>

The proportion of men and women high school graduates, from the middle and upper socio-economic levels who enter college is almost equal. More than 90 percent of men and women from these groups attend college.<sup>153</sup> There is wide variation in the types of institutions in which they first enroll; more women than men are admitted to two-year colleges, state colleges, and universities

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Force on the Impact of Office of Education Programs for Women (Washington, D.C.: Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, 1972), p. 8.

<sup>152</sup> Ibid., p. 9.

<sup>153</sup> K. Patricia Cross, "College Women: A Research Description," Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 32 (1968), 14.

that are largely involved in teacher training and liberal arts. Women have the greatest difficulty in gaining admission to the thirty-five most selective institutions in the country. In 1972 women represented only 29 percent of the admissions to these institutions, and only 32 percent of the students admitted to co-educational universities.<sup>154</sup> It is difficult to document discrimination in admission practices because colleges and universities do not make data available relating to the acceptance and rejection of applicants by sex. In a study of a private liberal arts college and one state university, Cross presented data illustrating that superior female applicants are less likely to be admitted than equally qualified male applicants.<sup>155</sup>

#### Women in Professional Education

In the professional schools Robinson found that the use of discriminatory quotas has been widespread. That women constitute only a small proportion of the lawyers, veterinarians, physicians, and engineers in the United States not only reflects the history of discouragement of women aspiring to professional careers, but also the systematic exclusion of women by professional schools.<sup>156</sup>

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<sup>154</sup>U.S. Office of Education, "A Look at Women in Education," p. 9.

<sup>155</sup>Cross, op. cit., "College Women," p. 16.

<sup>156</sup>Robinson, op. cit., "Institutional Variations in the Status of Academic Women," p. 43.



The impact of the women's movement and Civil Rights legislation has greatly influenced professional schools admission policies. The number of women enrolled in law schools increased from less than 4 percent of the total law school enrollment in 1961 to 12 percent in 1973. During this same period, the representation of women in medical schools increased from 9 percent in 1967 to 16 percent in 1972.<sup>157</sup>

#### Women Graduate Students

As of this time the proportion of women students completing graduate training has greatly decreased since the early decades of the twentieth century, when 40 percent of the master's degrees and 15 percent of the doctor's degrees were awarded to women. In 1974 women represent less than 30 percent of graduates earning master's degrees and less than 10 percent of graduates earning doctor's degrees.<sup>158</sup> Economic and social factors such as the depression and the post-war pressures toward early marriage and large families undoubtedly have contributed to the declining enrollment of women in graduate schools during the past forty years. But discriminatory admission practices, inequitable financial assistance policies, and lack of faculty encouragement have discouraged academically

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<sup>157</sup>Carnegie Commission, Opportunities for Women in Higher Education, pp. 100-03.

<sup>158</sup>U.S. Office of Education, Earned Degrees Conferred (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974), p. 125.

qualified young women from entering and completing graduate educational programs. Heiss indicated:

Not excluding academic qualifications, sex is probably the most discriminatory factor applied in the decision whether to admit an applicant to graduate school. It is almost a foregone conclusion that among American institutions women have greater difficulty being admitted to doctoral study and, if admitted, will have greater difficulty being accepted than will men. Department chairmen and faculty members frankly state that their main reason for ruling against women is "the probability that they will marry." Some continue to use this possibility as the rationale for with-holding fellowships, awards, placement, and other recognition from women who are allowed to register for graduate work. . . .<sup>159</sup>

Women career development was influenced by the women's movement. Women who had chosen early marriage and family roles, are accepting the fact that in order to obtain professional employment that is monetarily and psychologically rewarding, graduate training is necessary. Less rigid admission standards have allowed these women and others to enroll part-time in pursuit of the graduate degree. But institutional residency requirements, limited transferability of credits, and lack of encouragement and faculty support continue to inhibit full participation of women in graduate education.<sup>160</sup>

The problems of graduate school women differ for unmarried women recently out of college and for married women with children (both those who return while their children are young and those who postpone graduate work until their children are in school). The most appealing difference obviously comes from faculty's

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<sup>159</sup>A. M. Heiss, Challenges to Graduate Schools (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, Inc., 1970), p. 93.

<sup>160</sup>Cross, op. cit., "The Woman Student," pp. 42-45.

attitudes toward granting financial assistance, and it is very closely related to the ability of a woman to study full time. A married woman has added concerns even if the university does permit her to study part-time. Are courses available at the needed places and appropriate times to fit her schedule? Is there a day care center for her young children? Is it possible for a part-time student to get financial assistance?<sup>161</sup>

There are other sex-related concerns for those young females who enter graduate school with substantial family obligations. Though claims are made that all women are discriminated against when financial aid for graduate study is distributed, there is substantial evidence that this generality does not hold for full-time students.<sup>162</sup>

Substantial changes have occurred and are still occurring, partly as a result of changes in law and related regulations and partly as a result of a new climate of opinion among women and among men.

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<sup>161</sup>Mina Rees, "The Graduate Education of Women," *Women in Higher Education*, ed. by W. Todd Furniss and Patricia Graham (Washington, D.C.: American Council on Education, 1974), p. 178.

<sup>162</sup>Astin, op. cit., The Woman Doctorate in America, p. 103.

### Women Faculty Members

College and university reports on the status of women at individual institutions began to appear in 1969. The reports on more than 145 colleges and universities consistently found generalized institutional patterns of discrimination against women in the level of initial appointment, rate of promotion, and fringe benefits. Women Ph.D.'s were more apt to receive first appointments at the lecturer or instructor rank than men Ph.D's, which effectively served to keep them off the promotional ladder and tenure track. Part-time appointments were much more common for women, which also delegates women to a peripheral status and often excludes the appointee from receiving fringe benefits such as sick leave, vacation, and retirement benefits. When women were appointed to the professional ranks, they remained at the same rank for an abnormally long time.<sup>163</sup>

In the 1972-73 Faculty Report of the American Council on Education, it was noted that women faculty members, as compared with male faculty, taught more hours weekly and spent more hours in counseling students.<sup>164</sup>

Other recent studies relating to sex discrimination in higher education considered a number of variables which could

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<sup>163</sup>Robinson, op. cit., "Institutional Variation in the Status of Academic Women," pp. 1-21.

<sup>164</sup>Bayer, op. cit., Teaching Faculty in Academic: 1972-73, p. 23.

influence the status and position of women faculty.<sup>165</sup> These studies, after considering differences in age marital status, productivity, education, and career commitment, concluded that the research:

. . . shows the depressing, indeed the damning, reality. There is no category [of faculty] in which men are not considerably better off than women. Not only in the low-activity categories, where one might expect it, but even among men and women whose publication rates are very high. . . . In view of such massive differences, there seems little reason to doubt that women are penalized for their sex. Equivalent achievements are rewarded very unevenly.<sup>166</sup>

Colleges and universities have not demonstrated a strong commitment to broadening the participation of women as faculty members in higher education. Even with the implementation of federal and state policies governing equal employment for minorities and women, the over-all proportion of women faculty members has increased less than one percent since 1968; from 19.1 in 1968-69 to 20.0 percent in 1972-73.<sup>167</sup>

Affirmative action programs designed to increase the proportions of minorities and women on colleges and university faculties seem to be moving at a slow pace. The data on women suggest that affirmative action may have resulted more in a redistribution of women teachers among the types of

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<sup>165</sup>Helen S. Astin, and Alan E. Bayer, "Sex Discrimination in Academe," Academic Women on the Move, ed. by Alice S. Rossi and Ann Calderwood (New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1973), pp. 333-55; Carnegie Commission, Opportunities for Women in Higher Education, pp. 109-23.

<sup>166</sup>Oliver Fulton, "Rewards and Fairness: Academic Women in the United States" (unpublished manuscript, Carnegie Commission on Higher Education, 1973), pp. 35-36.

<sup>167</sup>Bayer, op. cit., Teaching Faculty in Academe: 1972-73, p. 14.

institutions rather than the recruitment of women formerly outside of academe: In both two-year and four-year colleges, the proportion of women on the faculty has actually declined somewhat; in universities, the proportion has increased from 14.8 percent in 1968-69 to 16.5 percent in 1972-73.<sup>168</sup>

In their report on the status of women in higher education, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education suggested that the inequitable status of women faculty members was not due to deliberate discrimination on the part of the university Administrators, but could be explained by certain long-term trends such as,

changes in marriage and birthrates, the decline in the relative importance of women's colleges, and the long-term trend toward greater sex-differentiation of the fields in which men and women received the doctorate [only recently beginning to be reversed]. There are also indications that the decline has been encouraged by the greatly increased emphasis on research, especially in the sciences, in the 1950's and 1960's. This trend was especially important, of course, in the universities that had long been leaders in the development of graduate education and research, but its influence clearly trickled down to less prestigious universities and four-year colleges, which showed an increasing tendency to regard the Harvards and Berkeley's as their models and to recruit faculty members with a record of research and publication or at least the potential for such a record in the future. All this militated against women, and especially married women.<sup>169</sup>

With regard to the issue of sex discrimination, the Carnegie Commission on Higher Education further noted that the administrative decisions relating to the recruitment, selection, and promotion of faculty members were made within the academic departments and did not reflect generalized patterns of university

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<sup>168</sup>Ibid., pp. 21-23.

<sup>169</sup>Carnegie Commission, Opportunities for Women in Higher Education, p. 112.

discrimination.<sup>170</sup> Faculty women who have sought relief for grievances about employment through institutional grievance procedures have met strong resistance from colleagues and administrators. In reporting the experiences of sixty-five women faculty members who had filed grievances through university administrative channels, Theodore wrote that many of the women found their careers in serious jeopardy.<sup>171</sup>

Because the internal institutional mechanisms which review and remedy sex discrimination have not been available or sufficiently responsive, the Equal Opportunity Employment Commission has been inundated with complaints of sex discrimination.

#### Women Administrators

Because entrance into the academic administrative hierarchy is inextricably bound to women's participation as graduate students and as faculty and to their acceptance in academic collegial and professional groups, most of the discriminatory patterns that have limited women's progress through the professional ranks similarly have retarded their entry into and advancement in administrative ranks. Although data on women in administration is sparse and non-uniform, two trends are stressed in the available research: (1) the higher the position, the fewer the women; and (2) administrative units are headed by men and staffed by women. Oltman's study of 454

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<sup>170</sup> Ibid., p. 121.

<sup>171</sup> Athea Theodore, "Academic Women in Protest" (unpublished manuscript, Cambridge, Mass., 1974).

corporate members of the American Association of University Women indicated a conspicuous lack of participation by women in administrative policy-making positions.<sup>172</sup>

Individual institutional reports on the status of women further document the limited number of women in positions of authority and responsibility. Women tend to remain in administrative positions which are starting posts for men, or are found in positions which involve sex stereotypes, such as those of department head of women's athletics, home economics, or nursing.<sup>173</sup>

The top woman administrator at most American coeducational universities is usually the dean of women. With an educational background in student personnel administration, women have often reached the position of dean without having been a member of the teaching faculty.<sup>174</sup> As many universities eliminate the titles of Dean of Men and Dean of Women, the Dean of Men often is appointed to the position of Dean of Student Affairs, with the Dean of Women as his assistant.

Oltman compares the position of women administrators with that of women students: ". . . they are working at jobs requiring

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<sup>172</sup>Ruth Oltman, Campus 1970: Where Do Women Stand? Research Report of a Survey on Women in Academe (Washington, D.C.: American Association of University Women, 1970), p. 14.

<sup>173</sup>Robinson, op. cit., "Institutional Variations in the Status of Academic Women," p. 235.

<sup>174</sup>Graham, op. cit., "Status Transitions of Women Students, Faculty, and Administrators," p. 170.



skills and attention to detail but without much relationship to policy-making or influence.<sup>175</sup>

Women administrators are found most frequently in positions that are student-service oriented; counseling programs, advisement, residence hall programs, tutoring programs, and special student population programs frequently are supervised by women. The positions of president, vice-president, provost, academic dean, registrar, head librarian, and business manager are rarely held by women.<sup>176</sup>

A survey by the National Association of Land-Grant Colleges and State Universities, completed in 1973, reports that 864 women were ". . . holding major administrative positions at these institutions."<sup>177</sup> However, 425 of these women were in staff positions as "assistant to" the major administrative officers; only thirteen women were filling positions that could be considered major decision-making positions.<sup>178</sup>

Women college administrators are found in smaller percentage than women elementary and secondary school administrators. Not until Lorene Rogers was named interim president of the University of Texas at Austin in 1974 did a state university have a woman

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<sup>175</sup>Oltman, op. cit., Campus 1970, p. 14.

<sup>176</sup>Ibid.

<sup>177</sup>National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges, Circular Number 182, 1973, p. 1.

<sup>178</sup>Ibid.

president. Notable women college presidents exist, but chiefly in private or parochial institutions.<sup>179</sup>

Sexton, in her study, Women in Education, found:

Only a few four-year coeducational colleges have women presidents. Even of the non-church women's schools, only eight had women presidents in 1971. None of the fifty largest college libraries is headed by a woman, although women librarians are abundant. Only a few academic deans are women, although there are many deans of women.<sup>180</sup>

In higher education, nationally in 1975, women constituted 32 percent of instructors, 19 percent of assistant professors, 15 percent of associate professors, and 8 percent of full professors. Although women made up as much as a quarter of all faculty, only 17 percent were administrators and only 13 percent were members of governing boards.<sup>181</sup> Thurston examined the two-year college directories to determine that 3 percent of the Presidents of those institutions were women.<sup>182</sup> Green noted the absence of women among state college officers and that in institutions of higher education women were less likely than men to be employed as associate or full professors.<sup>183</sup>

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<sup>179</sup>Krohn, op. cit., "The Puzzling Case of the Missing Ms.," pp. 33-34.

<sup>180</sup>Sexton, op. cit., Women in Education, p. 121.

<sup>181</sup>Ibid.

<sup>182</sup>Thurston, op. cit., "A Woman President?--A Study of Two-Year College Presidents," p. 118.

<sup>183</sup>Green, op. cit., Women: A Significant National Resource, p. 4.

Summary

It was obvious from the review of related literature that women function effectively as administrators and that biases existed against women at all educational levels. Educational researchers viewed the following factors as affecting women's career decision to seek positions of leadership: aspirations, role-sex stereotyping, legislation and task forces, the women's movement, and affirmative action programs. The number of women entering graduate schools has increased, whereas the number entering the educational leadership arena has decreased. Generally, there is a shortage of women faculty and administrators. For these reasons and others it was the writer's plan to research the public two-year and four-year institutions of higher education and limit the findings to the state of Michigan.

## CHAPTER III

### METHODOLOGY

The procedures employed for collecting and presenting the data in this study included the following steps: (1) the population and sample; (2) development of the survey instrument; (3) collection of data; and (4) analysis of data.

The nature of the information sought and the wide dispersion of the population studied suggested the descriptive methods of research as most appropriate. Good has recommended the descriptive research method when the information being sought included ". . . present facts or current conditions concerning the nature of a group of persons, a number of objects, or a class of events, and may involve the procedure of induction analysis, clarification, enumeration, and measure."<sup>184</sup> Selltitz, Johoda, Deutsch, and Cook recommended the use of descriptive studies ". . . when an accurate description of a situation or an association between variables is the purpose of the study."<sup>185</sup>

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<sup>184</sup>Carter V. Good, Essentials of Education Research (New York: Appleton-Century-Croft, Educational Division, Meredith Corporation, 1972), p. 207.

<sup>185</sup>Claire Selltitz, Marie Johoda, Martin Deutch, and Stuart W. Cook, Research Methods in Social Relations (New York: Holt, Rinehart, and Winston, 1964), p. 78.

### Population and Sample

The population studied was limited to women faculty holding doctoral degrees and women administrators employed full-time in 16 four-year and 29 two-year public institutions of higher education in Michigan. (The latter group included both doctoral and non-doctoral degree educational level.) The participants included 128 two-year and four-year administrators and 73 two-year and four-year faculty members from these institutions.

The administrators included women with the titles (1) Vice-President; (2) Dean or Director; (3) Department Head/Chairperson; (4) "Assistant," "Assistant to," and "Associate"; (5) Registrar; (6) Head Librarian; (7) Coordinator or Program Director; and (8) Business Manager.

The faculty women included were those who held doctoral degrees, and spent at least three-fourths of their time teaching.

The subjects surveyed were identified from the Education Directory 1977-78 of Higher Education; college catalogues 1977-78; and the Michigan Department of Higher Education Survey Report.<sup>186</sup>

The selection of administrators was restricted to women who were employed full-time as central administrators, academic administrators, and Student Personnel Administrators. All such women were contacted and asked to participate in the study.

Faculty women were selected from the 45 public two and four-year institutions of higher education because it was felt by the

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<sup>186</sup>Michigan Department of Higher Education Survey Report, 1977.

researcher that they met the educational qualifications for a position of educational leadership (see definition of terms).

In obtaining in-depth information, a selected sample of five female administrators already surveyed (two blacks and three caucasians) and five female faculty members already surveyed (two blacks and three caucasians) were chosen for personal interviews. These five selected represented a sample from both two and four-year institutions.

#### Development of the Survey Instrument

The questionnaire was developed on the basis of information gained through: (1) reviewing the literature relating to the problem of the study; (2) interviewing a number of female administrators who identified factors which had influenced their career development; (3) consulting with staff members from the Office of Research Consultation concerning the format and wording of the survey instrument; and (4) consulting with members of the dissertation guidance committee.

The questionnaire was pre-tested by distributing it to female administrators and faculty members employed at three institutions: Eight administrators and faculty enrolled at Michigan State University in the Doctoral Seminar 999 for the 1977 Fall term, six from Baker Junior College, and five from Mott Community College. The latter two were located in Flint, Michigan. These individuals were not included in the overall study. After suggestions for changes and improvements were incorporated, the questionnaire was adopted as the basic instrument for obtaining the information sought.

### The Survey Questionnaire

The survey instrument used was a four-part questionnaire (see Appendix A).

Part I was an opinionnaire which elicited views from all respondents regarding: (1) factors that contributed to the shortage of female administrators; (2) factors that contributed to the decision not to appoint females to positions of leadership; (3) factors that contributed to female's decisions not to accept administrative positions; and (4) influences and barriers which respondents had experienced in their own career development.

Part II was a form requesting personal, educational, and professional information for the purpose of establishing similarities and differences among the females.

Part III was an interview guide for a selected sample of female administrators in Michigan's institutions of higher education. The guide was developed by the researcher with assistance from her advisor and other appropriate persons.

Part IV was an interview guide for a selected sample of faculty females, following the same format as that for administrators.

### The Structured Interview Outline

The personal interviews allowed for in-depth probing of personal attitudes, values, views, and opinions the females had about their positions and themselves. Schedules were arranged and participants were notified in advance for each interview. To

ascertain that the information from the interview was recorded correctly, each respondent was encouraged to grant permission for a tape recorded interview.

Because the term "discrimination" may encompass a variety of attitudes and behaviors, respondents were asked to be specific in identifying those particular discriminatory factors that they considered to have acted as barriers to their career development; that is, those factors that they thought had influenced faculty in discouraging them during their graduate studies or subsequently had limited their acceptance as professional peers. In open-ended response options, the respondents were also given the opportunity to identify other factors which they felt had hindered or otherwise encouraged their career development.

#### Collection of Data

Information was obtained by: (1) mailing the questionnaire accompanied by a cover letter and a stamped, self-addressed envelope to the women administrators and faculty as described previously; (2) interviewing the sample of five women administrators and five female faculty members from those surveyed in order to add depth and clarity to the information obtained from the questionnaire.

Initially 316 questionnaires were mailed out with a cover letter explaining the general objectives of the investigation. A follow-up letter was sent to non-respondents three weeks later. (see Appendix A, B and C for copies of the questionnaire, cover letter, and follow-up letter used in the study).



Ten questionnaires were returned for lack of a forwarding address, or because the addressee had retired or was deceased. A total of 224 completed questionnaires were returned and of that 201 were used (see Table 1).

TABLE 1.--Questionnaire Respondents.

Participants	Mailed	Returned	Number Used
Two-year administrators	84	65	56
Four-year administrators	108	84	72
Two-year faculty	19	10	10
Four-year faculty	105	65	63
TOTAL	316	224	201

#### Analysis of Data

The returned questionnaires were divided into four discrete groups based on current position titles and types of institutional setting of the respondents.

Group I was composed of the participants previously defined as administrators in four-year public institutions of higher education.

Group II was composed of the participants defined as administrators in public two-year institutions of higher education.

Group III was composed of the participants defined as faculty members in four-year public institutions of higher education.

Group IV was composed of the participants defined as faculty members in public two-year institutions of higher education.

Questionnaire responses were key punched on cards for analysis; frequency and percentage tabulations were completed for each of the separate groups for comparison purposes. Two-way cross tabulations and analyses of a number of variables were completed to investigate possible relationships between two or more variables. Statistical Packages for the Social Sciences computer programs were utilized in the analyses.<sup>187</sup>

The information obtained during the ten interviews has been included in the discussion of results and recommendation portions of the study to lend depth and clarity to the study results.

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<sup>187</sup> Norman H. Dye, Dale H. Bent, and C. Hadlai Hull, Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1970), pp. 97-126.

## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

As indicated previously, the purpose of this study is to describe the personal, educational, and professional characteristics of women administrators and faculty; to identify specific factors that influenced women's career development; and to identify barriers and influences which respondents experienced in their own career development in selected two-and four-year public institutions of higher education.

Responses were received from 128 administrators and from 73 faculty members. The administrators who responded to the survey were broadly representative of the traditional administrative areas of responsibility found in most institutions of higher education.

Since the respondents did not answer every question, the total number indicated for each question may vary and therefore the number indicated on the respective tables may be different.

#### Personal Characteristics

Personal information was obtained to provide a better understanding of how certain elements such as age, race, position among siblings, marital status, number of children, educational attainment

of parents, principal occupation of parents and current employment of spouse had influenced the respondents' career advancement.

Tables 2 through 9 present a summary of the data on the personal characteristics of women administrators and faculty.

TABLE 2.--Age Level of Administrators and Faculty.

Age Level	2-Year Faculty N=10		4-Year Faculty N=63		Two-Year Administration N=56		Four-Year Administration N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
20-29	--		1	1.6	2	3.6	4	5.6
30-34	3	30.0	12	19.6	6	10.7	8	11.1
35-39	4	40.0	11	17.5	8	14.3	10	13.9
40-44	1	10.0	11	17.5	15	26.8	9	12.5
45-49	1	10.0	9	14.3	9	16.1	12	16.7
50-54	1	10.0	14	21.6	8	14.3	21	29.2
55 or older	--		5	7.9	7	12.5	8	11.1

Table 2 shows that on average, four-year college administrators were slightly older than the two-year college administrators. The greatest difference in age occurred between two-year administrators in the 40-44 category whereas for four-year administrators in the 50-54 category.

The respondents in this study did not differ from the faculty and staff surveyed by Bayer in 1972-73; Bayer found that 58.7 percent of teaching faculty reported they were over age 40.<sup>188</sup>

<sup>188</sup>Bayer, op. cit., Teaching Faculty in Academe: 1972-73, p. 13.

Table 3 presents a summary of the racial background of the participants.

TABLE 3.--Race of the Respondents.

Race	Percentage Responding							
	2 Year Faculty N=10		4 Year Faculty N=63		Two-Year Administration N=56		Four-Year Administration N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Caucasian	9	90.0	37	69.8	42	78.1	52	75.8
Black	1	10.0	10	15.9	6	10.7	8	11.1
Other	--		7	9.7	--		4	7.1

Over 75 percent of two and four-year administrators were caucasians; less than 11 percent of two and four-year administrators were black; and 7.1 percent of the four-year administrators were of other races. Three-fourths of the two and four-year faculty members were caucasians; less than 16 percent of the two and four-year faculty members were black; 9.7 percent of the two and four-year faculty members were of other races, as shown in Table 3.

Table 4 indicates that of the two-year faculty, 50 percent were the oldest of the siblings; of the four-year faculty, 34.9 percent were the youngest; of the two-year administrative group, 42.9 percent were the oldest of the siblings, and 34.7 percent of the four-year administrative group were youngest of the siblings.

TABLE 4.--Sibling Position of Women Faculty and Administration Respondents.

Birth Order	2 Year Faculty N=10		4 Year Faculty N=63		Two-Year Administration N=56		Four-Year Administration N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Only	--		12	19.1	6	10.7	15	20.8
Youngest	3	30.0	22	34.9	15	26.8	25	34.7
Middle	2	20.0	13	20.6	11	19.6	9	12.5
Oldest	5	50.0	16	25.4	24	42.9	23	31.9

The largest percent of both administrative and faculty groups were either the youngest or oldest of their siblings. Hennig<sup>189</sup> found in her study that administrative women tended to be the firstborn if not the only child.

TABLE 5.--Marital Status of Respondents.

Status	2 Year Faculty N=10		4 Year Faculty N=63		Two-Year Administration N=56		Four-Year Administration N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Separated	--		1	1.6	1	1.8	1	1.4
Married	10	100.0	39	61.9	39	69.6	32	44.4
Widowed	--		5	7.9	1	1.8	--	
Divorced	--		9	14.3	5	8.9	17	23.6
Never Married	--		9	14.3	10	17.9	22	30.6

<sup>189</sup>Hennig, op. cit., p. 9.

Table 5 indicates that the majority of two-and four-year administrators (69.6 percent of the two-year administrators and 44.4 percent of the four-year administrators) were married. As for the two- and four-year faculty members, over 60 percent of each group (61.9 percent of the four-year faculty group and 100 percent of the two-year faculty) were married.

The respondents in both administrative groups differ mostly in the divorced and never married categories. The divorce rate of the four-year administrators was triple that of the two-year administrators. In the never-married category there were twice as many four-year administrators as there were two-year administrators.

Centra reported that 39 percent of the women receiving doctorates in 1950 and 1960 had never married, but only 30 percent of the 1968 doctorates were never married, indicating an increasing trend toward marriage in younger women doctorates.<sup>190</sup>

Table 6 presents a breakdown of the number of siblings of the respondents. Seventy-eight point six percent of the two- and four-year administrators reported having no children; 36.9 percent reported having one child, 44.1 percent reporting having two children, 22.2 percent reported having three, 13.7 percent reported having four children, 3.2 percent reported having five children, and 1.4 percent reported having seven children.

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<sup>190</sup>John A. Centra, Women, Men, and the Doctorate, Princeton: Educational Testing Service, 1974, p. 104.

TABLE 6.--Number of Siblings of the Respondents.

Children	2 Year Faculty N=10		4 Year Faculty N=63		Two Year Administration N=56		Four Year Administration N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
0	2	20.0	18	28.5	20	34.2	32	44.4
1	5	50.0	20	31.7	9	16.1	15	20.8
2	1	10.0	12	19.1	16	30.2	10	13.9
3	--		6	9.5	7	12.5	7	9.7
4	1	10.0	2	3.2	3	5.4	6	8.3
5	--		2	3.2	1	1.8	1	1.4
6	1	10.0	2	3.2	--		--	
7	--		1	1.6	--		1	1.4

Forty-eight point five percent of the two- and four-year faculty reported having no children; 81.7 percent reported having one child, 29.1 percent reported having two children, and a smaller percentage reported having three or more children.

The majority of the respondents had small families.

Table 7 reveals that 40 percent of the two and four-year administrators' mothers completed elementary level; 97 percent completed high school; 24 percent completed college, 2 yr.; 20 percent completed college, 4 yr.; and 9 percent completed graduate level.

Fifty-seven point eight percent of the two and four-year administrators' fathers completed elementary; 70 percent completed high school; 25 percent completed college, 2 yr.; 26 percent completed college, 4 yr.; and 24 percent completed graduate.



TABLE 7.--Educational Attainment of Parents of the Respondents.

Educational Level	2 Year Faculty N=10		4 Year Faculty N=63		2 Year Admin. N=56		2 Year Admin. N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Mothers'</b>								
Elementary	--		15	23.8	9	16.1	17	23.6
High School	2	20.0	20	31.7	31	55.4	30	41.7
College (2 yr)	1	10.0	11	17.5	9	16.1	13	18.1
College (4 yr)	6	60.0	13	20.6	5	8.9	8	11.1
Graduate	1	10.0	4	6.3	2	3.6	4	5.6
<b>Fathers'</b>								
Elementary	2	20.0	12	19.0	18	32.1	17	23.6
High School	1	10.0	20	31.7	22	39.3	22	30.6
College (2 yr)	2	20.0	9	14.3	7	12.5	9	12.5
College (4 yr)	3	30.0	9	14.3	5	8.9	12	16.7
Graduate	2	20.0	13	20.6	4	7.1	12	16.7

Twenty-four percent of the two- and four-year faculty members' mothers completed elementary level; 52 percent completed high school, 28 percent completed college (2 yr.), 81 percent completed college (4 yr.), and 16 percent completed graduate level.

Thirty-nine percent of the two- and four-year faculty members' fathers completed elementary level; 41 percent completed high school, 34 percent completed college (2 yr.), 44 percent completed college (4 yr.), and 45 percent completed graduate level.

At the graduate level the respondents' fathers were somewhat better education than their mothers. The educational level of the parents' survey by Bayer<sup>191</sup> did differ from the findings of

<sup>191</sup>Bayer, op. cit., "Teaching Faculty in Academe: 1972-73," p. 14.

this study. He concluded that the average educational level of the mothers was completion of high school. Mothers in this study had completed two-year college.

TABLE 8.--Principal Occupation of Parents of the Respondents.

Occupation	2 Year Faculty N=10		4 Year Faculty N=63		2 Year Admin. N=56		4 Year Admin. N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
<b>Mothers'</b>								
Professional/ White Collar	3	30.0	8	12.7	7	12.5	8	11.1
Manager/ Proprietor	--		1	1.6	4	7.1	1	1.4
Blue Collar/ Farmer	3	30.0	13	20.6	7	12.5	11	15.3
Housewife	4	40.0	41	65.0	38	67.9	52	72.9
<b>Fathers'</b>								
Professional/ White Collar	7	70.0	34	54.0	13	23.2	38	52.8
Manager/ Proprietor	2	20.0	5	7.9	19	33.9	6	8.3
Blue Collar/ Farmer	1	10.0	21	33.3	24	42.9	24	34.7

Table 8 shows that the majority of the respondents' mothers had not been employed. The principal occupation of the respondents' mothers was housewife or homemaking: Of the working mothers, 42.7 percent of the two and four-year faculty members' mothers were employed in Professional or White Collar jobs, while 23.6 percent

of the two and four-year administrators' mothers were employed in professional or white collar jobs, 1.6 percent of the four-year faculty members' mothers were employed as managers or proprietors' 8.5 percent of the two- and four-year administrators' mothers were employed as managers or proprietors; 50.6 percent of the two- and four-year faculty members' mothers were employed as blue collar or farm workers; 27.8 percent of the two- and four-year administrators' mothers were employed as blue collar or farm workers.

The employment rate of the respondents' mothers was somewhat higher than the national average of women employed in white-collar and professional positions. Forty percent of the women employed in 1974 were in white collar or professional positions.<sup>192</sup>

The principal occupation of the respondents' fathers was professional and white-collar. Seventy-six percent of the two- and four-year administrators' fathers were employed in professional or white-collar jobs; 42.2 percent of the two- and four-year administrators' fathers were employed as managers or proprietors; 27.9 percent of the two- and four-year faculty members' fathers were employed as managers or proprietors; 77.6 percent of the two- and four-year administrators' fathers were employed as blue-collar or farm workers; and 43.3 percent of the two- and four-year faculty members' fathers were employed as blue-collar or farm workers.

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<sup>192</sup>U.S. Department of Labor, Women's Bureau, Twenty Facts on Women Workers (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1974), p. 1.

TABLE 9.--Current Employment of Spouses.

Occupation	2 Year Faculty N=10		4 Year Faculty N=63		2 Year Admin. N=56		4 Year Admin. N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Professional/ White collar	9	90.0	37	58.7	20	35.7	25	34.7
Proprietor/ Manager	--		--		9	16.1	2	2.8
Blue-Collar/ Farmer	--		1	1.6	4	7.1	3	4.2

Table 9 shows that the majority of the spouses of the married respondents were employed in professional or white-collar jobs. Over 50 percent of the two and four-year faculty reported that their spouses were employed in professional or white-collar positions; 70.4 percent of the two- and four-year administrators reported their spouses were employed in professional or white-collar positions; 19 percent of the two- and four-year administrators were employed as proprietors or managers; 11 percent of the two- and four-year administrators were employed as blue-collar or farm workers; and 2 percent of the two- and four-year faculty were employed as blue-collar or farm workers.

#### Educational Characteristics

An earned doctorate, extensive experience as a faculty member, and experience in academic administration are almost universal requirements for appointment to positions in the central administration of the university.

Since the focus of this study is on women faculty members seeking administrative appointment, it was assumed to be desirable for these women to have achieved the doctorate degree to be assured of the position should their educational credentials be challenged. For this reason, only faculty women holding the earned doctorate degree were used.

Tables 10 through 13 represent a summary of the educational characteristics of women administrators and women faculty members.

TABLE 10.--Highest Degree Earned by Administrators.

Degree	Percentage Responding			
	Two Year Administration N=56		Four Year Administration N=72	
	N	%	N	%
Some College	1	1.8	5	7.0
Bachelor's Degree	11	19.6	5	6.9
Master's Degree	34	60.7	23	31.9
Educational Specialist	3	5.4	1	1.4
Doctorate Degree	7	12.5	38	52.8

Table 10 indicates that the majority of the two-year administrators did not have degrees beyond the master's level; 12.6 percent of the two-year administrators had earned doctorates. The degree status of the four-year administrators revealed that 52.8

percent held the doctorate degree. A higher percentage of the respondents in this study had doctoral degrees than the women surveyed by Bayer in 1972-73.<sup>193</sup>

Of the four-year administrators, 31.9 percent held the master's degree; 1.4 percent held the educational specialist's degree, 6.9 percent held the bachelor's degree, and 7.0 percent had some college. Of the two-year administrators, 5.4 percent held the educational specialist's degree, 60.7 percent held the master's degree, 19.6 percent held the bachelor's degree, and 1.8 percent had some college.

TABLE 11.--Academic Major of Highest Earned Degree.

Academic Area	Percentage Responding							
	2 Year Faculty N=10		4 Year Faculty N=63		2 Year Admin. N=56		4 Year Admin. N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Business Administration	--		7	11.1	6	10.7	4	5.6
Social Science	--		10	15.9	4	7.1	10	13.9
Education	6	60.0	25	39.7	22	39.3	38	52.8
Arts	1	10.0	10	15.9	13	23.2	13	18.1
Natural Science	1	10.0	7	11.1	1	1.8	3	4.2
Human Services	2	20.0	4	6.3	10	17.9	4	5.6

<sup>193</sup>Ibid., p. 15.

Table 11 shows that 99.7 of the faculty and 92.1 percent of the administrators received their highest degree in education. Of the administrative group, 41.3 percent received their highest degree in Arts; 23.5 percent in Human Services, 16.3 percent in Business Administration, 21.0 percent in Social Science, and 6.0 percent in Natural Science. Of the two- and four-year faculty group 25.9 percent received their highest degree in Arts; 26.3 percent in Human Services, 11.1 percent in Business Administration, 15.9 percent in Social Science, and 21.1 percent in Natural Science.

These findings are different from those of Bayer.<sup>194</sup> Only 20 percent of the women doctorates in his study had earned their doctorate in education. The Carnegie Commission on Higher Education Report also found that a majority of women administrators in higher education had earned their doctorates in education.<sup>195</sup> The report cited the increasing number of higher education administration programs which can award the certification, the Ph.D., required for advanced administrative positions to women who have earned their first degree in home economics, elementary education, nursing, social work, and the more traditional women's academic disciplines as a primary reason for the number of women administrators with doctorates in education.<sup>196</sup> The majority of female administrators and faculty

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<sup>194</sup>Ibid., p. 26.

<sup>195</sup>Carnegie Commission, op. cit., "Opportunities for Women in Higher Education," p. 84.

<sup>196</sup>Ibid., p. 86.

members in the two-year colleges had earned their highest degree in education and had followed the traditional route of advancement to academic administration from the faculty ranks.

TABLE 12.--Year Highest Degree Was Conferred.

Year	Percentage Responding							
	2 Year Faculty N=10		4 Year Faculty N=63		2 Year Admin. N=56		4 Year Admin. N=72	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Prior to 1950	--		1	1.6	2	3.6	3	4.2
1951-1955	--		1	1.6	1	1.8	6	8.3
1956-1960	--		5	7.9	5	8.9	2	2.8
1961-1965	--		27	42.9	8	14.3	8	11.1
1966-1970	2	20.0	21	33.3	13	23.2	21	29.2
1971-1975	7	70.0	7	11.1	20	35.7	21	29.2
1976 or later	1	10.0	--		7	12.5	8	11.1

Seventy percent of the two-year faculty received their highest degrees between 1971 and 1975; 42.9 percent of the four-year faculty between 1961 and 1965; 35.7 percent of the two-year administrators between 1971 and 1975; and 58.4 percent of the four-year administrators between 1966 and 1975 as shown in Table 12.

Table 13 indicates that there is no difference in the number of people in both the two- and four-year administrative groups who are working toward the advanced degree.



TABLE 13.--Administrators Working on Advanced Degrees.

Position Level	Degree							
	Bachelor's		Master's		Education Specialist		Doctorate	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Two-Year Administrators	1	1.8	5	8.9	--		5	8.9
Four-Year Administrators	2	2.8	7	9.7	1	1.4	7	9.7

The researcher had anticipated finding more non-doctor degree four-year administrators to be presently pursuing the terminal degree. This data does not support such an assumption.

#### Professional Characteristics

Professional information was obtained to identify the respondents regarding the administrative area of employment, time in professional employment, years in present position, desire for advancement in current institution, career goals, and relationship between career position status and goals of the administrative and faculty groups.

Tables 14 through 19 present a summary of the data on professional characteristics of women administrators and women faculty.

From Table 14 it can be seen that the greatest percentage of the women administrators held appointments as program directors. The distribution of the population surveyed in this study among the

TABLE 14.--Position Titles of Administrators.

Title	2 Year Administration		4 Year Administration	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Vice-President	--	--	1	1.4
Dean/Director of School	5	8.9	10	13.9
Department Head	4	7.1	9	12.5
Assistant Dean or Director				
Assistant to Dean or Director	7	12.5	18	25.0
Associated Dean or Director				
Library Director	8	14.3	2	2.8
Registrar	4	7.1	2	2.8
Program Director	28	50.0	30	41.7
TOTAL	56	100.0	72	100.0

various administrative areas of responsibility is similar to the distribution of women administrators found in Oltman's 1970 study.<sup>197</sup> Ottman<sup>198</sup> found the number of women in administration has increased during the past eight years. She found two women in the position of president and three in the position of vice-president in large coeducational universities between 1967 and 1970. In this study

<sup>197</sup>Oltman, op. cit., Campus 1970, p. 14.

<sup>198</sup>Ibid., pp. 14-16.

one participant held the position of vice-president in a coeducational university.

The distribution of the respondents among administrative areas shows that 1.4 percent held the title of Vice-President, 22.8 percent held the title of Dean or Director of School, 19.6 percent held the title of Department Head, 37.5 percent held the title of Library Director, 9.9 percent held the title of Registrar, and more than 90 percent held the title of Director of a major program.

Sixty percent of the two-year faculty were professionally employed full-time for 10 to 14 years, 30.1 percent of the four-year faculty five to nine years, 26.8 percent of the two-year administrators 10 to 14 years, and 25.1 percent of the four-year administrators for five to nine years and 10 to 14 years, as shown in Table 15. The average number of years of professional full-time employment for four-year administrators was 10; for two-year administrators nine; for four-year faculty 9.5; and for two-year faculty 1.5.

Table 16 shows that more than half of both the two-year and four-year administrators had been in their present position three years or less, whereas the majority of the two-year faculty had been in their positions six years or less and the four-year faculty ten years or less.

The professional literature on women administrators has tended to indicate that women are making some progress in obtaining

TABLE 15.--Years Professionally Employed Full-Time.

Level	Frequency and Percentage													
	0-4		5-9		10-14		15-19		20-24		25+		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Two Year Faculty	--		3	30	6	60	--		1	10	--		10	100
Four Year Faculty	4	6.4	19	30.1	16	25.4	9	14.3	10	15.9	5	8.0	63	100
Two Year Administration	3	5.4	12	21.5	15	26.8	8	14.3	9	16.2	9	16.2	56	100
Four Year Administration	8	11.2	18	25.1	8	11.2	9	12.6	11	15.3	18	25.1	72	100

TABLE 16.--Years in Present Position.

Position Level	Frequency and Percentage									
	0-3		4-6		7-9		10+		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Two-Year Faculty	1	10.0	6	60.0	2	20.0	1	10.0	10	100
Four-Year Faculty	16	25.4	16	25.4	9	14.3	21	33.3	63	100
Two-Year Adminis.	28	50.0	12	21.4	7	12.5	9	16.1	56	100
Four-Year Adminis.	38	51.4	18	25.0	7	9.7	10	13.9	72	100

administrative and faculty positions in higher education. A majority of the administrators held their previous position more than three years and were promoted within the same administrative unit, indicating that career advancement opportunities were available to the women administrators who were surveyed. Likewise women faculty have remained in their positions and achieved regular promotions and other features that recognize the status of faculty persons.

Table 17 shows that the majority of administrators (over 80 percent) and faculty members (over 85 percent) did not desire advancement to higher positions from the ones they held within their current institution of employment. They were satisfied with their current positions. Women not satisfied with their position indicated discrimination because of sex and race and lack of opportunity.

TABLE 17.--Advancement Desired in the Institution of Current Employment.

Position Level	Percentages		Number
	Yes	No	
Two-Year Faculty		100.0	10
Four-Year Faculty	11.1	87.3	63
Two-Year Administrator	12.5	83.9	56
Four-Year Administrator	11.1	87.5	72

The majority of the administrators and faculty members indicated that their present position is their highest career goal, as shown in Table 18.

TABLE 18.--Career Goals of the Respondents.

Position Level	Number Responding			N
	Higher	Same	Lower	
Two-Year Faculty	--	10		10
Four-Year Faculty	6	57		63
Two-Year Administrators	1	32	23	56
Four-Year Administrators	2	35	35	72

Twenty-three of the two-year administrators and 35 of the four-year administrators stated they wanted to move to a lower position from the one held.

Howe stated, "The crucial issue in women (career development) is ... low aspiration." She further states that the concept of the "motive to avoid success" acts as a psychological barrier to achievement in women.<sup>199</sup>

Some of the literature regarding successful women administrators pointed out that many women lack the necessary qualities for coping with success-stamina, resiliency, ability to function under the extreme pressures and stresses which occur in a competitive world; for some women administrators, the drive for success involves nerve-racking tensions which make their lives both frustrating and conflict-ridden.

Table 19 indicates that from observation, the position women administrators and faculty now hold appears to be positively related with the goals they held for themselves. Of the 15 deans, 13 department heads, ten library directors, six registrars, and 73 faculty members, most aspire to retain the status they now enjoy. Of the 58 program directors and 25 assistant, "assistant to," or "associate" dean or directors most did not aspire to retain the status they now enjoy.

#### Attitudes Toward Factors Influencing Women's Career Development

The respondents were asked to strongly agree, agree, disagree or strongly disagree with a series of statements relating to

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<sup>199</sup> Howe, op. cit., "Sexism and The Aspiration of Women," p. 100.

TABLE 19.--Current Career Position Status and Goals of the Respondents Expressed.

Career Position Status	Goals Frequency and Percentage							
	Lower		Same		Higher		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Vice-President			1	100			1	.5
Dean	3	19.8	9	59.2	3	19.8	15	7.3
Department Head	4	35.7	9	64.3			13	7.1
Assistant Dean/ Director								
Assistant to Dean or Director	15	60.0	10	40.0			25	12.9
Associate Dean or Director								
Library Director	1	11.1	9	88.9			10	4.6
Registrar	2	33.3	4	66.7			6	3.1
Program Director	33	58.9	25	41.1			58	28.9
Faculty			67	97.1	6	9.7	73	35.6

commonly stated reasons as to why women have not accepted advanced positions, why women have not been appointed to administrative and faculty positions, and why there is a shortage of women administrators and faculty. They were also asked to rate positive and negative conditions in their own career development. Table 20 summarizes the reasons given for shortage of women administrators as agreed upon by the respondents.



TABLE 20.--Reasons Given for the Shortage of Women Administrators (By All Respondents).

Factors Which Influence Women Administrator Shortage	2 Year Faculty N=10				4 Year Faculty N=63				2 Yr. Administrator N=56				4 Yr. Administrator N=72			
	Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Women prefer to stay home when they have small children.	8	80	2	20	30	47.6	32	50.8	32	57.2	14.9	41.1	41	56.9	3	4
It is believed by some that women are not good administrators.	7	70	3	30	54	85.7	9	14.2	46	92.2	10	17.8	59	82.0	12	16.

Table 20 shows that the majority of the respondents agreed that the shortage of women administrators is because "It is believed by some that women are not good administrators" and "Women prefer to stay home when they have small children."

In a study of professional families, Holstrom found younger professional women were more accepting of women working full-time when their children were small.<sup>200</sup>

Table 21 summarizes the reasons given for non-appointment to positions of leadership as agreed upon by the respondents. The majority of respondents agreed that non-appointment to administrative positions is a result of "Sex" and "Lack of Administrative Experience." The respondents' opinions regarding race was not different.

Table 22 summarizes the reasons given by the respondents for women not accepting advanced positions. A majority of the respondents agreed that professional women in higher education do not take advantage of opportunities for advancement simply because "The position offered no opportunity for advancement," "Required excessive traveling," "Would exceed their husband's position," or because women "Preferred to remain in teaching or counseling."

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<sup>200</sup>Lynda Holstrom, "Women Career Patterns: Appearance and Reality," Journal of National Association of Women Deans and Counselors, 36:2 (Winter, 1972), p. 253.

TABLE 21.--Reasons Given for Non-Appointment to Administrative Positions (By All Respondents).

Factors which Influenced the Decision Not to Appoint Women to Admin. Positions	2 Year Faculty N=10				4 Year Faculty N=63				2 Yr. Administrator N=56				4 Yr. Administrator N=72			
	Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex	8	80	2	20	52	82.5	10	15.9	50	89.2	6	10.7	57	79.2	14	19.5
Race	5	50	5	50	32	50.7	30	47.6	37	66.0	19	34.0	32	44.5	39	51.2
Lack of Administrative Experience	9	90	1	10	52	82.5	11	17.4	43	76.8	13	23.3	57	79.2	15	20.0

TABLE 22.--Reasons Agreed Upon by Respondents for Women Not Accepting Advanced Positions.

Factors Which Influenced Decision Not to Accept Advanced Position	2 Year Faculty N=10				4 Year Faculty N=63				2 Yr. Administrator N=56				4 Yr. Administrator N=72			
	Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Preferred to remain in teaching or counseling	7	70	3	30	31	50.0	30	47.6	32	57.1	24	39.5	35	47.2	34	46.6
The position offered no opportunity for advancement	8	80	2	20	44	69.8	18	28.6	34	60.8	21	37.5	47	65.3	25	34.8
Required excessive traveling	9	90	1	10	42	66.7	20	31.8	33	59.0	22	39.3	41	56.9	30	41.7
Position would exceed husband's	3	30	7	70	42	66.7	20	31.8	42	75.0	13	23.2	48	66.7	23	32.0

Table 23 summarizes the one factor that the majority of respondents did not agree upon as a positive influence in their own career development. All respondents were asked to indicate the extent to which certain factors (see Questionnaire Da) served as important influences in their career development. From the example shown in this table, it can be seen that only one was checked with great frequency.

In identifying positive influences in the respondents' own career development, the majority disagreed that "Affirmative action policies" served as positive influences in their lives, as shown in Table 23.

The majority of the respondents did not indicate barriers in their own career development.

#### Comments from Interviews and Questionnaires

Information from personal interviews which consisted of a selected sample of five female administrators already surveyed and five faculty members already surveyed was used by the researcher. To ascertain that the information from the interview was recorded correctly, each respondent granted permission for a tape recorded interview.

From the interviews and questionnaires, the researcher has combined comments which were typical of all the comments that were made (see Appendices A and B for all comments).

TABLE 23.--Positive Influence in Own Career Development.

Influence	2 Year Faculty N=10				4 Year Faculty N=63				2 Yr. Administrator N=56				4 Yr. Administrator N=72			
	Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree		Agree		Disagree	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Affirmative Action Policies	3	30	7	70	13	20.6	50	69.4	19	33.9	36	64.3	20	25.8	50	69.5

- A. Two- and Four-Year Administrators: Reasons for not applying for a higher administrative position produced the following comments.

I feel that women themselves too often are afraid to even apply for higher administrative positions. Often the men who finally accept the positions have no more and sometimes less to offer than women who felt inadequate for the same position.

In many cases, I find women must prove their capabilities by their performance. Men seem to be accepted without proof.

Women are not taken seriously. Men never view women as capable individuals able to assume managerial roles. Women have not learned the political strategies necessary to promotional mobility. Valued qualities in men are often not valued in women, yet such qualities are necessary for promotion.

According to some of the research I have seen, some women have lowered their own aspirations to fit what they perceived as reality, or have chosen the path of least resistance to the more traditional female work roles.

- B. Free discussion of barriers in career development produced the following remark:

I do believe discrimination exists here, but not the kind that can be reported to the proper authorities; it's very subtle.

- C. Reasons given on women not accepting positions of leadership:

Although women would like to see more women in administration, when given the opportunity they are often their own worst enemies, that is, queen bee syndrome. Women don't accept administrative positions because (1) a feeling of tokenism; (2) built in vehicle for failure. My own career development has been most influenced by personal ambition. It is such "isolating out" that has biased many administrators toward female executives.

Even some male financial aid officers used to look down their noses at me when I showed up at State Association meetings. Other women, perhaps surprisingly, are not necessarily professional women's best friends or supporters. They are not always thrilled to see one get ahead. Some

female jealousy sometimes enters in. My own career development has been influenced by "being in the right place at the right time" and establishing a career reputation in my college of high responsibility and capability.

Lack of self-confidence and lack of high career goals are the reasons women do not accept administrative positions. I was influenced by a need for personal challenge.

D. Conflict in roles produced the following comment:

I had a liberat atmosphere at home while growing up-- mother had a career. I have a conflict between motherhood and job; sometimes my job duties are left undone because I do not take work home. The greatest advantage of being a female administrator is "to be a role model for others to see that a woman can be a good administrator."

E. Two- and Four-Year Faculty: When asked about barriers in own career development the following remarks were made.

I really have not experienced any real barriers in achieving my goal as a professional woman in the field of education. I have found my professional decisions respected and I feel I have been able to bring about change because of my present professional role.

Demonstration of competence in communication, analysis of issues, and decision making is the most important in seeking promotion, although in reality politics and friendship are often the determining factor.

F. When asked have you every actively sought a more advanced position, the following was given:

I applied for an administrative position. To date, even with a follow-up letter and phone call, I have not yet received acknowledgment that my application was received. Such procedures do not seem to indicate that women applicants are being actively sought for such positions!

G. Free discussion of advantage of being female administrator produced the following comment:

I see no particular advantage, other than money in being an administrator. I enjoy teaching and doing research: Few administrators devote much time to those activities. I suspect I play a far more expective role as a professor--a role in which I can stimulate students and colleagues. As you can see from my responses I do not feel discriminated



against in these areas. On the contrary, I have received scholarships, fellowships, research grants, have published research papers without an undue number of rejections, have taught numerous small upper level courses, have certainly been accepted as a peer by my colleagues, and if anything, have been overburdened by the number of appointments to significant policy-making committees.

- H. When asked about promotion due to compliance with legislation on women's rights the following comment was given.

I have existed without women's lib and without affirmative action and find no difference in the way women are treated in the world of academia.

- I. Advice from women administrators and women faculty members, as indicated from the questionnaires and interviews, frequently had to do with confidence and self-knowledge.

1. Be aware of your strengths.
2. Have confidence that you can do the job.
3. Understand yourself.
4. Analyze your strengths and weaknesses.
5. Be honest. Say what you feel needs to be said.
6. Don't be defensive because you are a woman administrator.
7. Be your own person.
8. Be yourself. Administration is not any one way of doing things. Use your own style.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The shortage of women administrators has been attributed to the lack of women who are qualified for promotions and to the reluctance of women to seek appointment to policy-making positions.

The purposes of this study were: (1) to determine how many women are employed full-time in the public institutions of higher education in Michigan as faculty or in the capacity of administrator in line or staff positions; (2) to determine how many of these women are caucasians, how many are black, and how many belong to other racial groups; (3) to determine the number and type of administrative positions held by these women; (4) to determine how many aspire to move from faculty to administration or from one administrative position to a higher one or vice versa; and (5) to characterize these women, for comparative purposes, according to their academic preparation, professional experience, and personal backgrounds, and according to other factors such as career barriers and career influences as perceived by them.

The population for this study consisted of women administrators and women faculty employed full-time in 16 four-year and 29 two-year public institutions of higher education in Michigan.

A mailed questionnaire/opinionnaire was used to collect information from 316 women administrators and faculty; a total of 224 women participated; of these 201 questionnaire responses were used in the study.

In obtaining information beyond that generated by the questionnaire, a selected sample of five female administrators and five faculty members previously surveyed, was interviewed by the researcher.

The analysis of the data generated by the questionnaire included tabulating the frequency and percentage of responses for both groups of administrators and faculty; and computation of cross-tabulations among groups by current career, position status and expressed goals.

### Principal Findings

Principal findings from the study are summarized here under seven broad categories.

#### A. Women Administrators: Personal Characteristics

1. Women aged 50 to 54 years comprised the largest group of four-year administrators and 40 to 44 years comprised the largest age group of two-year administrators.
2. Over 75 percent of both groups were caucasian.
3. Seventy-eight point six percent of both groups reported having no children.
4. The largest percentage of both groups reported being either the youngest or oldest of their siblings.

5. The majority of both groups were married.

6. Fathers of both groups were somewhat better educated than their mothers.

7. Seventy-six percent (51) of the fathers of the two- and four-year administrators worked in professional or white-collar jobs.

8. Forty-two point two percent of the two-year and four-year administrators' fathers worked as managers or proprietors.

9. Seventy-seven point six percent (49) of the two- and four-year administrators' fathers worked as blue-collar or farm workers.

10. In both groups the principal occupation of their mothers was homemaking.

11. The majority of the spouses of both groups were employed in professional or white-collar positions.

#### B. Women Administrators: Educational Characteristics

1. The greatest difference in educational attainment for administrators occurred at the doctorate level. Over half of the four-year administrators held the doctorate degree while over half of the two-year administrators held the master's degree.

2. Over half of both groups received their highest degree in education.

3. The majority of four-year administrators received their highest degree from 1966 to 1975; the majority of two-year administrators received their highest degree from 1971 to 1975.

4. There was no major difference in the number of people in both groups who were working toward advanced degrees.

C. Women Administrators: Professional Characteristics

1. The majority of both groups held appointments as program directors, for example: director of student activities and director of financial aids.

2. More than half of both groups had been in their present position three years or less.

3. The average number of professional full-time employment for four-year administrators was ten years and for two-year administrators nine years.

4. A majority of both groups advanced to their present position from other areas of administration.

5. A minority of both groups had held full-time faculty appointments prior to their present position.

6. The majority of both groups did not desire advancement to a higher position from the one they held within their current institution.

7. The majority of both groups indicated their present position as being their highest career goal.

D. Women Faculty: Personal Characteristics

1. Women aged 35 to 39 years comprised the largest age group of two-year faculty; 50 to 54 years comprised the largest age group of four-year faculty.

2. Over 65 percent of both groups were caucasians.

3. Eighty-one point seven percent of both groups reported having at least one child.

4. The largest percentage of both groups reported being either the youngest or oldest of their siblings.

5. Fathers of both groups were somewhat better educated than their mothers.

6. The greatest majority of both groups were married.

7. Over 50 percent of the fathers of both groups worked in professional or white-collar positions.

8. Twenty-seven point nine percent of the two- and four-year faculty fathers worked as managers or proprietors.

9. Forty-three point three percent of the fathers of both groups worked as blue-collar or farm workers.

10. The principal occupation of the respondent's fathers was professional or white-collar jobs.

11. The majority of the spouses of both groups were employed in professional or white-collar positions.

#### E. Women Faculty: Educational Characteristics

1. All two- and four-year faculty participants held the doctorate degree.

2. Eighty-nine point seven percent of the group as a whole received their highest degree in education.

3. The majority of the four-year faculty received their highest degree between 1961 and 1965; the majority of the two-year faculty received their highest degree between 1971 and 1975.

F. Women Faculty: Professional Characteristics

1. The majority of both groups spent over half of their time teaching.
2. The majority of the two-year faculty had been in their present positions six years or less; the majority of the four-year faculty had been in their present positions ten years or less.
3. The average number of full-time professional employment for the four-year faculty was 9.5 years and for the two-year faculty 1.5 years.
4. A majority of both groups advanced to their present position from public school teaching.
5. The majority of both groups did not desire advancement to a higher position from the one they held within their current institution of employment.
6. The majority of both groups indicated their present position as being their highest career goal.

G. Women Administrators and Faculty: Influences and Barriers in Own Career Development

1. The majority of two- and four-year administrative and faculty groups indicated the following as influences in their own career development:

- A. Parental Support
- B. Encouragement from College Faculty
- C. Contact with Career Woman
- D. Support from Husband
- E. Support from Supervisor
- F. Acceptance of Extra Responsibility
- G. Professional Associations
- H. University Committees.

2. The majority of all groups did not indicate barriers in their own career development.

### Conclusions

The nature of the data and information collected necessarily produced a considerable number of rather specific findings. The conclusions which are drawn here represents an attempt to bring these findings from the questionnaire and interview into broader focus.

1. In view of the women administrators included in the study, application of Affirmative Action regulations apparently was more in theory than in practice. Many of the female administrators and faculty, particularly the caucasian group, indicated that Affirmative Action did not serve as a positive influence in their lives. This attitude was not reflected to the same extent among minority women, which would lead to the conclusion that Affirmative Action was more important for minority women aiding them to obtain their present position.

Dearing supported the concept of Affirmative Action when he concluded that it can increase the pool of persons available for advancement and can increase the visibility of women in the pool.<sup>202</sup>

2. A number of women from both minority and non-minority groups expressed the view that while they felt they possessed

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<sup>202</sup>Dearing, op. cit., Open Address, p. 3.



leadership attributes, they had not been employed at the level commensurate with their training and experience. Further, since the minority women in this study reported holding positions at a lower level than the non-minority women, it would appear that they are at an additional disadvantage. However, there was evidence obtained in the present study to support this assumption.

Epstein contended that the emergence of minority women in particular into full equality is hindered by the cultural mores and traditions which influence the status, roles, and self-image of women.<sup>203</sup>

3. Not surprisingly, age was related to the level of administrative achievement by women in the study. It is quite likely that perhaps age itself was not the key factor so much as years of experience necessary to achieve the higher level positions.

4. Since a considerable number of women interviewed in this study expressed satisfaction in combining their domestic and professional roles, and were also satisfied with their present position status, this needs to be taken into consideration as a fact of life when discussing the problems of women and their career aspirations, the functioning and effectiveness of Affirmative Action programs and similar problems of women in the world of work. In the view of this researcher, however, this does not obviate the importance of insuring equal treatment for women in all types of employment.

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<sup>203</sup>Epstein, op. cit., "Structuring Success for Women," p. 59.

### Recommendations for Further Research

A great deal remains to be done in relation to women roles as faculty members and administrators. A long list could be suggested. As one considers possible studies which are directly related to this study, however, the following are recommended for consideration:

1. A study of personal and professional characteristics of women employed in private two-year and four-year higher education institutions in Michigan as a parallel to this study.
2. It would be worthwhile to replicate the present study in other states, regionally or nationally to determine the extent of agreement of the findings from this study.
3. An in-depth study is needed of the impact of Affirmative Action on women's career aspirations and their realization of goals for both minority and non-minority groups.
4. Given the variations in findings concerning how women view career goals and aspirations, their views regarding competition in the professional job marketplace and similar considerations, there is need for further research on women's aspirations, self-concept, societal and cultural impact as they relate to women's roles and expectations with regard to achieving greater equality in both the administration and academic realms.

## APPENDICES

SIGNIFICANT CHARACTERISTICS OF PROFESSIONAL WOMEN  
EMPLOYED IN PUBLIC TWO-YEAR AND FOUR-YEAR HIGHER  
EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS IN MICHIGAN

QUESTIONNAIRE

Code Number

Note: For this study, the term "administrator" was defined as one who was involved in decision-making, supervision of staff, and general management functions in line or staff positions.

Your response to each item should reflect your personal belief or opinion. Please circle the most appropriate response according to the following:

1. SA--I strongly agree with the statement
2. A--I agree with the statement
3. D--I disagree with the statement
4. SD--I strongly disagree with the statement

PLEASE RESPOND TO ALL STATEMENTS

A. A small number of administrative positions in higher education are held by women. It has been suggested that women do not have the necessary qualifications or commitment for appointment to these positions.

The lack of women administrators has been most effected by:

- |   |                 |
|---|-----------------|
| 1. Women lacking administrative ability                         | SA   A   D   SD |
| 2. Women not being as committed to careers as men               | SA   A   D   SD |
| 3. Women not wanting to work for another woman                  | SA   A   D   SD |
| 4. Women preferring to stay home when they have small children  | SA   A   D   SD |
| 5. Women being too emotional to be good administrators          | SA   A   D   SD |
| 6. Women not wanting positions of authority and responsibility  | SA   A   D   SD |
| 7. Women preferring teaching and counseling roles               | SA   A   D   SD |
| 8. Married women not wanting to exceed their husband's position | SA   A   D   SD |

9. The belief by some people that women are not good administrators SA A D SD

B. Women have actively sought administrative positions in higher education but some did not obtain them.

The decision not to appoint women to administrative positions has been most influenced by:

- |   |           |
|---|-----------|
| 10. Women applicants lacking educational qualifications | SA A D SD |
| 11. Women applicants lacking administrative experience  | SA A D SD |
| 12. Staff reluctance to work for a woman                | SA A D SD |
| 13. University nepotism rules                           | SA A D SD |
| 14. Women applicants being too young                    | SA A D SD |
| 15. Women applicants being too old                      | SA A D SD |
| 16. Women applicants being single                       | SA A D SD |
| 17. Women applicants being married                      | SA A D SD |
| 18. Sex   | SA A D SD |
| 19. Race  | SA A D SD |
| 20. Past Involvement in controversial campus issues     | SA A D SD |
| 21. Other _____   | SA A D SD |

C. In some cases women have been offered a more advanced administrative position which they did not accept.

Women's decisions not to accept administrative positions would most likely be influenced by the fact that:

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 22. The position offered no opportunity for advancement  | SA A D SD |
| 23. Position would exceed husband's                      | SA A D SD |
| 24. The position required excessive traveling            | SA A D SD |
| 25. The position left little free time to be with family | SA A D SD |

- |   |    |   |   |    |
|---|----|---|---|----|
| 26. They felt incapable of handling the conflict inherent in the position | SA | A | D | SD |
| 27. They preferred to remain in teaching or counseling                    | SA | A | D | SD |
| 28. Other _____   | SA | A | D | SD |

Da. My own career development has been most influenced by:

- |  |    |   |   |    |
|--|----|---|---|----|
| 29. Parental support for educational and career goals    | SA | A | D | SD |
| 30. Encouragement from high school teachers              | SA | A | D | SD |
| 31. Encouragement from college faculty                   | SA | A | D | SD |
| 32. Contact with an active career woman                  | SA | A | D | SD |
| 33. Support from husband for career commitment           | SA | A | D | SD |
| 34. Support from colleague or supervisor for advancement | SA | A | D | SD |
| 35. Acceptance of extra responsibility                   | SA | A | D | SD |
| 36. Participation in extra responsibility                | SA | A | D | SD |
| 37. Participation in professional associations           | SA | A | D | SD |
| 38. Affirmative action policies at your institution      | SA | A | D | SD |
| 39. Geographic mobility                                  | SA | A | D | SD |
| 40. Other _____  | SA | A | D | SD |

Db. The following are sometimes considered barriers to career development.

In your own career development to what degree have these served as barriers.

- |  |    |   |   |    |
|--|----|---|---|----|
| 41. Interrupted employment due to pregnancy or family responsibilities | SA | A | D | SD |
| 42. Terminated position because husband obtained employment elsewhere  | SA | A | D | SD |
| 43. Inadequate child care facilities                                   | SA | A | D | SD |

44. Impossibility of relocation	SA	A	D	SD
45. Difficulty in obtaining research grant(s)	SA	A	D	SD
46. Difficulty in publishing journal articles	SA	A	D	SD
47. Assignment of only large undergraduate courses	SA	A	D	SD
48. Offer of only part time appointment	SA	A	D	SD
49. No acceptance as professional peer by colleagues	SA	A	D	SD
50. No opportunity to participate on university policy-making committees	SA	A	D	SD
51. Other _____	SA	A	D	SD

## BACKGROUND DATA

Please check the most appropriate answer for each of the following items. Indicate your response by writing in the answer when called for.

Professional History

1. How many years have you been professionally employed full-time?  
(Enter appropriate number) \_\_\_\_\_
2. Are you presently professionally employed full-time?  
☐ Yes  
☐ No
3. How many years of administrative or supervisory experience did you have prior to assuming your present position? (Enter appropriate number) \_\_\_\_\_
4. What was your immediate previous position?
5. How long did you hold your previous position?  
☐ 0-3 years  
☐ 4-6 years  
☐ 7-9 years  
☐ 10 or more years
6. What is your present position?  
☐ Instructor (What academic discipline? \_\_\_\_\_)  
☐ Department Chairperson/Head (What department? \_\_\_\_\_)  
☐ Registrar  
☐ Library Director  
☐ Administrator (What title? \_\_\_\_\_)  
☐ Combination assignment (Specify: \_\_\_\_\_)  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
7. How long have you held this position?  
☐ 0-3 years  
☐ 4-6 years  
☐ 7-9 years  
☐ 10 or more years
8. What is the official rank of your position?  
☐ Professor  
☐ Associate professor  
☐ Assistant professor  
☐ Instructor  
☐ Administrative appointment only  
☐ Other (please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)



9. Do you hold tenure at your institution?  
☐ Yes  
☐ No
10. How did you acquire your present position?  
☐ Was recruited  
☐ Made application to this institution  
☐ Was promoted from within the institution  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
11. What per cent of your time is devoted to each of the following?  
(Total should equal 100%)  
☐ Administration  
☐ Research  
☐ Teaching  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
12. Have you had periods of non-employment since you received your highest degree?  
☐ Yes  
☐ No
13. If yes, what was the longest period during which you were not employed?  
☐ 0-1 year  
☐ 2-3 years  
☐ 3-4 years  
☐ 5 or more years
14. What was your reason for leaving your previous employment?  
☐ Position  
☐ Husband changed employment  
☐ Family responsibility  
☐ Pregnancy  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
15. Please indicate the number of professional organizations to which you currently belong.  
☐ 1-3  
☐ 4-6  
☐ 7 or more
16. Have you held office in any professional organization?  
☐ Yes  
☐ No

17. Indicate which committee within your college or university you currently serve or have served on.

Department:	Personnel	( )	( )	University:	Senate	( )
	Curriculum	( )	( )		Curriculum	( )
	Welfare	( )			Welfare	( )
	Budget	( )			Budget	( )
	Other	( )			Affirmative	( )
					Action	
					Other	( )

18. Have you attended any management or administrative training seminars?  
 ( ) Yes  
 ( ) No
19. Have you participated in an administrative internship program?  
 ( ) Yes  
 ( ) No
20. If yes, what was the length of the internship?  
 ( ) 1-6 weeks  
 ( ) 6 weeks-3 months  
 ( ) 3-6 months  
 ( ) Over 6 months
21. Have you ever applied for an administrative position?  
 ( ) Yes  
 ( ) No
22. If "yes" to question 21, did you obtain the position?  
 ( ) Yes  
 ( ) No
23. If "no" to question 21, please indicate why not.  
 ( ) Satisfied with current position  
 ( ) Did not know of vacancy when it occurred  
 ( ) Not qualified by education  
 ( ) Not qualified by experience  
 ( ) Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
24. Do you have reason to believe you last promotion or job was secured due to compliance with recent legislation on women's rights?  
 ( ) Yes  
 ( ) No
25. Do you desire to advance to a higher position within your institution?  
 ( ) Yes  
 ( ) No

26. What professional position is your highest career goal?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
27. Do you perceive any conflict between your family role, your role as a woman and your role as an administrator?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_
28. What do you perceive to be the greatest advantage of being a female in an administrative position?  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

### Personal History

Please check the most appropriate answer for each.

1. What is your age?  
☐ 20-29  
☐ 30-34  
☐ 35-39  
☐ 40-44  
☐ 45-49  
☐ 50-54  
☐ 55-
2. What is your race?  
☐ Caucasian  
☐ Black  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
3. Specify the number of children you have in each category.  
(Enter the number beside each category; put 0 if none.)  
☐ Under 6 years  
☐ 6-12 years  
☐ 13-18 years  
☐ Over 18 years
4. Are you the principal wage earner in your household?  
☐ Yes  
☐ No

5. What is your current marital status?  
☐ Married, living with spouse  
☐ Separated  
☐ Divorced  
☐ Widowed  
☐ Never Married
6. If currently married, how long?  
☐ Less than 4 years  
☐ For 5-10 years  
☐ More than 10 years  
☐ Not currently married
7. When did you first marry, if ever?  
☐ Before college  
☐ During college  
☐ After college, but before graduate school  
☐ During master's program  
☐ After master's program  
☐ During doctoral program  
☐ After doctoral program
8. If currently married, what is the highest level of formal education achieved by your husband?  
☐ Elementary  
☐ High School  
☐ College Two-year  
☐ College Four-year  
☐ Received graduate degree  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
9. What was the highest level of education achieved by your mother?  
☐ Elementary  
☐ High School  
☐ College Two-year  
☐ College Four-year  
☐ Received graduate degree  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
10. What was the highest level of education achieved by your father?  
☐ Elementary  
☐ High School  
☐ College Two-year  
☐ College Four-year  
☐ Received graduate degree  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
11. What is your husband's current occupation? (Leave blank if not married) \_\_\_\_\_

12. What was your father's principal occupation while you were growing up?
13. What was your mother's principal occupation while you were growing up?
14. Do you think your mother wanted to work while you were growing up?  
☐ Yes  
☐ No
15. Specify the number of siblings you had while growing up?  
(Enter 0 if none.)  
☐ Sisters  
☐ Brothers
16. Where were you in the birth order in your family?  
☐ Only  
☐ Youngest  
☐ Oldest  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)

### Educational History

Please check the most appropriate answer for each.

1. What is the highest degree you now hold?  
☐ BA or BS  
☐ MA or MS  
☐ Ed. S.  
☐ Ph. D.  
☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
2. In what major academic field is your highest degree?  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Are you currently working toward another degree?  
☐ Yes  
☐ No  
If yes, what degree? \_\_\_\_\_
4. What year did you receive your highest degree?  
☐ prior to 1950  
☐ 1951-1955  
☐ 1956-1960  
☐ 1961-1965  
☐ 1966-1970  
☐ 1971-1975  
☐ 1976 or later

5. At the graduate level, did you receive financial support from any of the following? (Check those appropriate)
- ☐ Fellowship
  - ☐ Scholarship
  - ☐ Assistantship
  - ☐ Sabbatical pay
  - ☐ None
  - ☐ Other (Please specify: \_\_\_\_\_)
6. Any other comments: \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
7. If you would like a summary of the results of this study, please check here. \_\_\_\_\_

## INTERVIEW GUIDE

1. The small number of women administrators is attributed to the lack of qualified women, women's reluctance to leave teaching and counseling roles, the dislike of conflict roles; to what factors do you attribute the shortage of women administrators?
2. What factors do you feel may act as incentives and barriers in women's professional advancement?
3. Do you feel women are generally accepted as professional peers by their colleagues?  
Do you now feel/in the past accepted as a colleague?
4. What responsibilities/duties do you enjoy most in administration?  
Enjoy least?
5. Have you ever actively sought a more advanced position?  
If you were not appointed, why not?
6. What talents, education, experience, personal characteristics do you feel would contribute to women's upward mobility in higher education administration?  
Would tend to inhibit advancement?
7. What personal factors do you feel contributed to your own upward mobility? (Ability-Past experience-Hardwork-Mentor)
8. What are the reasons women do not seek the more advanced administrative positions in higher education?  
What factors prevent you from seeking the more advanced administrative positions?

G-4606 Beecher Rd. F-6  
Flint, Michigan 48504  
November 8, 1978

Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

Although there have been some recent studies of college and university administration in general, we know very little about women who hold the decision-making appointments in public institutions of higher education in Michigan.

I am a doctoral candidate in higher education at Michigan State University. My experience as a resource person, faculty member and administrator has led me to this study.

The study focuses on significant characteristics of women administrators and faculty as related to their employment and has five purposes:

1. to determine how many women are employed full-time as faculty or administrators in public institutions of higher education in Michigan
2. to determine the racial background of these women
3. to determine the types of position held
4. to determine their professional aspirations
5. to draw some comparisons with respect to their academic, personal, and professional variables which affect their career development

The principal resource instrument is a questionnaire. Completion will take some of your time, but the lack of data concerning the role of professional women is quite evident and much needed. Therefore, your full response would be an important contribution.

The code number appearing on the questionnaire is only for the purpose of follow-up where necessary. Your name and your institution will not be identified in any way in the dissertation or any subsequent published material.

A self-addressed stamped envelope is enclosed for your convenience. I hope you will find it possible to respond within ten days from the time received. If you have any questions regarding the questionnaire or the study, please feel free to contact me at phone (313) 732-3563 or my advisor, Professor Walter Johnson, Dept. of Higher Education Administration, Michigan State University, East Lansing, Michigan 48824, phone (517) 353-8768.

The population of this study is quite small, therefore your participation is vital. Again, thank you for your cooperation.

Sincerely,  
*Bennie Woods*  
Bennie Woods

Enclosure



4606 Beecher F-6  
Flint, Michigan 48504  
November 15, 1978

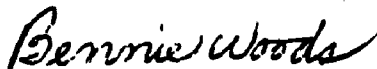
Dear \_\_\_\_\_:

Two weeks ago a questionnaire was mailed to you designed to obtain some significant characteristics of professional women in public institutions of higher education.

As of this date, I have not received a response from you. I realize that you perhaps haven't had time to complete it in two weeks as originally requested. Since completion of the questionnaire holds relevant information for my study, I am still interested in and in need of your participation. This study is being done in cooperation with the College of Education, Department of Educational Administration, Michigan State University, where I am a doctoral candidate.

In the event the questionnaire sent earlier is not readily available, I am enclosing another copy. If you have returned the questionnaire, please disregard this letter.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in cursive script that reads "Bennie Woods".

Bennie Woods

## MICHIGAN PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS OF HIGHER EDUCATION

## Four-year public institutions

1.	Central Michigan University . . . . .	Mt. Pleasant
2.	Eastern Michigan University . . . . .	Ypsilanti
3.	Ferris State College . . . . .	Big Rapids
4.	Grand Valley State College . . . . .	Allendale
5.	Lake Superior State College . . . . .	Sault Ste. Marie
6.	Michigan State University . . . . .	East Lansing
7.	Michigan State University . . . . .	Flint
8.	Michigan Technological University . . . . .	Houghton
9.	Northern Michigan University . . . . .	Marquette
10.	Oakland University . . . . .	Rochester
11.	Saginaw Valley State College . . . . .	University Center
12.	The University of Michigan . . . . .	Ann Arbor
13.	The University of Michigan . . . . .	Dearborn
14.	The University of Michigan . . . . .	Flint
15.	Wayne State University . . . . .	Detroit

## Two-year public institutions

1.	Alpena Community College . . . . .	Alpena
2.	Bay De Noc Community College . . . . .	Escanaba
3.	Delta College . . . . .	University Center
4.	Glen Oaks Community College . . . . .	Centreville
5.	Gogebic Community College . . . . .	Ironwood
6.	Grand Rapids Junior College . . . . .	Grand Rapids
7.	Henry Ford Community College . . . . .	Dearborn
8.	Highland Park College . . . . .	Highland Park
9.	Jackson Community College . . . . .	Jackson
10.	Kalamazoo Community College . . . . .	Kalamazoo
11.	Kellogg Community College . . . . .	Battle Creek
12.	Kirtland Community College . . . . .	Roscommon
13.	Lake Michigan College . . . . .	Benton Harbor
14.	Lansing Community College . . . . .	Lansing
15.	Macomb Community College . . . . .	Warren
16.	Mid-Michigan . . . . .	Harrison
17.	Monroe County Community College . . . . .	Monroe
18.	Montcalm Community College . . . . .	Sidney
19.	Charles Steward Mott College . . . . .	Flint
20.	Muskegon Community College . . . . .	Muskegon
21.	North Central Michigan College . . . . .	Petoskey
22.	Northwestern Michigan College . . . . .	Traverse City
23.	Oakland Community College . . . . .	Bloomfield Hills
24.	St. Clair County Community College . . . . .	Port Huron
25.	Schoolcraft College . . . . .	Livonia
26.	Southwestern Michigan College . . . . .	Dowagiac
27.	Washtenaw Community College . . . . .	Ann Arbor
28.	Wayne County Community College . . . . .	Detroit
29.	West Shore Community College . . . . .	Scottville

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