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Similarities and Differences in the Leadership Styles and Personal Characteristics of Women in Educational Administration and Women in Business Administration

Clara R. Benedetti
Western Michigan University

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SIMILARITIES AND DIFFERENCES IN THE
LEADERSHIP STYLES AND PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS
OF WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AND
WOMEN IN BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION

by

Clara R. Benedetti

A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment
of the
Degree of Doctor of Education

Western Michigan University
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To my mother, father and brother for allowing me to break barriers.

Clara Rose Benedetti
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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Statement of the Problem

The purpose of this study is to determine if there are similarities or differences in the leadership styles and personal characteristics of women in educational administration and in the leadership styles and personal characteristics of women in business administration.

This study will present four aspects of the problem. The first aspect is to study two samples of women, one from educational administration, and the other from business administration in order to note the similarities and differences in the leadership styles they presently exhibit.

The second aspect is to compare the leadership styles of these two groups of women to the existing norms reported for predominately male occupational groups.

The third aspect is to study the biographical data gathered from these two groups of women in order to determine similarities and differences in their backgrounds.

The fourth, and, final aspect is to study the nature of the problem itself; the possible reasons why there are so few women in top leadership positions in both education and business, what is presently being done about the problem, and what the future holds as to possible solutions.
Rationale for the Study

Women have always been a part of the labor force. As early as the 1890 census, four million women, or one sixth of the work force, were counted as working outside the home. This number has steadily increased until in 1973 there were 35 million women on the labor force. This represents 39% of the total labor force. These women represent all ages from 16 to 70 or more and are of every race and color. They include the married, the single, those widowed, and the divorced or separated; and they live on farms, in suburbs, and in central cities.

Of this 39%, only 5% are categorized by the U.S. Department of Labor as administrators or managers. While these women hold positions labeled as administrators or managers, they earn a median wage of only $7,306 which represents 53% of a man's earnings in this category (U.S. Women's Bureau, 1973). The attitudes toward acceptance of women in top management positions and the question of economic value has changed very little in the last century.

That change is long overdue, is the present cry from the feminist movement. It is time this vast untapped resource be utilized. As Cynthia Epstein noted, "Our best women - those in whom society has invested most heavily - underperform, underachieve, and underproduce. We waste them and they waste themselves (1970, p. 4)."

That an inequality exists is evident. The reasons for this inequality are not so evident, however. Sex discrimination is a simple (and frequent) answer, but the causes are many and complex. They range from biological, sociological, psychological and educational factors...
with continuing controversy in each area.

In the field of education where women constitute a majority of the teaching force, only a small number are in positions of administrative leadership. A 1973 report issued by the National Education Association states that of the 13,000 public school superintendents, only sixty-five are women. This is less than one-tenth of one percent. Certainly part of the problem is that women may not have pursued positions of leadership. However, the literature suggests that much of the cause is either discrimination, the lack of encouragement, or the lack of present role models. Readers of educational leadership literature will find that there are few, if any, references to women as leaders. In most cases the authors of these books are male. Is the implication of this that women do not make good leaders because they are not capable, or simply that there have been so few women in leadership positions that it has not been possible to write about them?

The same paucity exists in literature about women administrators in business. Such authors as Drucker, Leavitt, Reddin or Halpin seldom, if ever, refer to the manager as "she". Although bookkeepers, secretaries, bank tellers, and typists are but a few of the business occupations in which women hold at least 50% of the total jobs (Lyle & Ross, 1973). Women seldom leave these low-status, low-paying occupations to rise to top management levels.

However, there are women who have attained leadership roles. They have demonstrated their abilities and achieved recognition. These accomplishments should clearly dispel the notion that women are not
able to be administrators and managers. Their voices have been heard by others who are now pressing for change; they are no longer willing to accept the myths and old patterns. Change is occurring; laws, executive orders, governmental and administrative actions all point toward this. This investigator found that attitudes, expectations and aspirations of males and females have also changed, although more slowly than many would like.

Limitations of the Study

This study is intended to determine the nature of women in leadership positions in education and business. It is not intended to present a total picture of the women's liberation movement. It is not intended to present the on-going controversy of basic sex-differences. Neither is it intended to present a history of leadership theory or management theory.

This study will be limited to an examination of the current status of women in education and business, therefore, the review of literature will concentrate on the past three years. Older studies will be utilized where it is deemed important to make comparisons.

Research Questions

The study was undertaken in an effort to find answers to the following research questions:

1. Do women in educational administration have a leadership style different than women in business administration?
   a. In tabulating the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, how
did each group of women score on the dimension of Consideration?
b. In tabulating the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, how did each group of women score on the dimension of Structure?

2. Are these leadership styles consistent with those found in predominately male groups tested with the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire?

3. Has either group of women had more education or leadership training?

4. Do both groups of women exhibit the same variables in their family backgrounds?

5. Are these patterns of variables consistent with other studies?
   a. birth order
   b. parental career influence

6. Is one group of women more mobile than the other?

7. How do the two groups of women compare as to marital and family status?

8. Do these women perceive any role conflict?

9. Do any of the following variables affect the results of the responses of either group:
   age
   salary
   size of institution or organization
   publications
   feminist affiliation

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10. Has Title VII of the Civil Rights Act had an impact on promotions and job placement?

11. How do these women perceive the problems for women in administrative positions?

12. What factors have been most influential to these women in obtaining their current position of leadership?

13. What do these women believe to be the greatest advantage of being a female in an administrative position?

The answers to these questions may provide information which may help solve the many complex problems faced by those who will select and train women for positions of leadership.

Definition of Terms

In order to provide the reader with a precise understanding of the nature of this study, it seemed necessary to stipulate certain definitions of terms frequently used in this text.

1. a) **Leadership style**, when it is used as a general term, is the consistent manner in which actions are performed in helping a group move toward goals acceptable to its members (Boles, 1973).

   b) **Leadership style**, when it is used in specific instances, is that style which has been measured by the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (Fleishman, 1969) and consists of the following two important dimensions:

   - **Consideration** reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships with his subordinates characterized by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, con-
sideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth between himself and them - a high score is indicative of a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. A low score indicates the individual is likely to be more important in his relations with group members.

Structure reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his own role and those of his subordinates toward goal attainment. A high score on this dimension characterizes individuals who play a very active role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, criticizing, trying out new ideas, and so forth. A low score characterizes individuals who are likely to be relatively inactive in giving direction in these ways.

2. Women in educational administration refers to women who hold positions in educational institutions with a title of president, vice-president, assistant vice-president, dean, principal, headmistress, director, or other corresponding title.

3. Women in business administration refers to women who hold positions in business organizations with a title of owner, president, vice-president, assistant vice-president, manager, director, editor or other corresponding title.

Research Methodology

Population and Sample

The population for this study consists of women in educational
administration and women in business administration on a nationwide basis.

To obtain a sample of this population the following procedure was employed:

Women in educational administration - names of women fitting the definition were selected from the category of Educational Administrators from the Index for Who's Who in America, 1974 edition. The total number of women listed in the U.S. was 128. In addition, names were also selected from the category of Educators. Any woman listed with the title of Dean or above was chosen. This category provided the remaining 22 in the total sample of 150.

Women in business administration - names of women fitting the definition were selected from Who's Who in Trade and Industry, 1974 edition. A random sample of 150 names were selected. The number in the total population was not determined.

All women described in the sample were sent two questionnaires, the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire developed by Edwin A. Fleishman, and a Biographical Questionnaire developed by the investigator. In addition, the subjects were sent a letter explaining the study and enlisting their cooperation, as well as a return envelope, stamped and self-addressed.

Data Tabulation

The results of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire were tabulated and analyzed for each individual and for each group. The results of the Biographical Questionnaire were tabulated for each group and analyzed according to the numerous variables.
An Overview of the Study

This chapter has presented a statement of the problem, a rationale for the study, the limitations of the study, the research questions to be answered, and the research methodology employed. The remainder of the study is presented in four chapters. Chapter II presents a review of the literature relevant to each aspect of the problem. Chapter III presents the design of the study. Chapter IV presents the findings of the study. Chapter V presents a summary of the study, conclusions, and recommendations for further study.
CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Overview

This study focused on the leadership styles utilized by women in educational administration and women in business administration and the personal characteristics of these two groups of women. A review of the literature was conducted in five interrelated areas: 1) leadership theories, 2) women in educational administration, 3) women in business administration, 4) characteristics of women administrators, and 5) the possible reasons for the lack of women administrators in both these areas, education and business.

Leadership Theories

It has always been a problem, when trying to select, train or place a person in a leadership position, to determine what constitutes a leader. This is evidenced by the plethora of definitions of "leader" or of "leadership". A few of these definitions are as follows:

The leader is one who succeeds in getting others to follow him. (Crowley, 1938, p. 154.)

Leadership is the process of influencing group activities toward goal setting and goal achievement. (Stodgill, 1948, p. 35.)

Leadership is the process of influencing thoughts, behaviors, and feelings of others in pursuit of common goals. (Cummings, 1971, p. 184.)

Leadership is a process in which an individual takes initiative to assist a group to move toward production goals that are acceptable to maintain a group, and to dispose of those needs of the individuals within the group that impelled them to join. (Boles, 1973, p. 3.)
The literature presents a variety of theories about what a leader is; however, leadership itself continues to be a perplexing phenomenon, with each theory emphasizing a different aspect. The emphasis in leadership research has gone from simple explanations of observable behaviors to examinations of complex relationships.

The Traits Approach

Early research shows that for many years the most common approach to the study of leadership concentrated on leadership traits per se, suggesting that there were certain characteristics that were essential for effective leadership. These were generally thought of as being inherent qualities, therefore only those who manifested these characteristics could be considered eligible to hold leadership positions. This made the selection process a relatively simple one. Instruments were developed to assess those persons who had the necessary characteristics and only they were placed in leadership positions.

This approach, however, did not produce equally effective leaders. Lippitt (1955) found, in reviewing over 160 leadership studies, that only 5% of the traits appeared in four or more of the studies. Jenkins (1947) in reviewing the literature dealing with leadership traits through the 1940's concluded that no single trait would be found that would distinguish a leader from any of the followers.

Stogdill (1948) examined 124 studies on the relationship of traits to leadership and summarized the evidence as follows:

The qualities, characteristics and skills required as a leader are determined to a large extent by the demands of the situation in which he is to function as a leader (p. 63).
A person does not become a leader by virtue of the possession of some combination of traits, but the pattern of personal characteristics of the leader must bear some relevant relationship to the characteristics, activities, and goals of the followers (p. 64).

This introduced the idea that the situation and the followers affected the leadership phenomena.

Gibb (1954) suggested that the incorporation and integration of four major variables were important for a comprehensive theory of leadership. Those were: 1) the personality of the leader, 2) the followers with their attitudes, needs and problems, 3) the group itself, in two regards, a) the structure of interpersonal relations and b) the syntality characteristics, and 4) the situation as determined by the physical setting, nature of task, etc. (p. 914).

Myers (1954) analyzed over 200 studies of leadership studies since 1900. His conclusions concerning the relationships of personality traits to leadership were:

1. No physical characteristics are significantly related to leadership.

2. Although leaders tend to be slightly higher in intelligence than the group in which they are members, there is no significant relationship between superior intelligence and leadership.

3. Knowledge applicable to the problems faced by a group contributes significantly to leadership status.

4. The following characteristics correlate significantly with leadership; insight, initiative, cooperation, originality, ambition, persistence, emotional stability, judgment, popularity, and communication skills.

5. . . . the personal characteristics of the leaders differ according to the situation. Leaders tend to remain leaders only in situations when the activity is similar. No simple characteristic is the possession of all leaders. (pp. 105-107.)
Mann (1959) concluded that a leader's abilities, aptitudes and background tended to be related to those goals set by the group.

The Situational Approach

Stemming from Mann's conclusions, the situational approach was developed and refined. The focus in the situational approach to leadership is on observed behavior, not on any hypothetical inborn or acquired ability or potential for leadership. The emphasis is on the behavior of leaders and their group members (followers) and various situations (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972).

This led to an attempt to analyze leadership behavior in terms of the tasks, processes and skills that occur in any leadership situation. Harris (1963), for example, outlines five processes; planning, organizing, leading, controlling, and assessing, any or all of which may be involved in differing amounts in leadership effectiveness, depending on the situation.

Katz (1955) proposed the existence of three classes of skills - human, conceptual and technical.

He defined each of these classes by suggesting behaviorally descriptive words for each skill category:

Human:
- empathizing, interviewing, observing, leading discussions, participating in discussions, role-playing, and reflecting feelings and ideas.

Conceptual:
- visualizing, analyzing, diagnosing, synthesizing, criticizing
and questioning.

Technical:

speaking, writing, reading, listening, outlining, demonstrating, chairing a meeting, graphing and sketching.

A leader uses these skills as needs arise in each situation. Livingston (1971) stated there are three skills essential for leadership: opportunity finding, problem finding and problem-solving, each varying with the situation.

The situational approach also led to research of the leadership phenomena in small groups. Bavelas (1948) found, while developing a communication paradigm, that when people are placed around a table in small groups, those in the center of the group tended to be the decision-makers of that group.

The notion of "emergent" leadership was evidenced in work done by Kahn and Katz (1956). They found when leadership was not provided, by a foreman in this case, informal leaders arose and provided the needed functions.

The difficulty in studying leaders when using the situational approach is that the determining factor of successful leadership is the right situation. This approach needs an assessment of the type of existing situation in order that a successful leader can be placed or selected.

The Leadership Styles Approach

This brought researchers back to examining the leader's behavior. In essence, leadership involves accomplishing goals with and through
people. Therefore, a leader must be concerned with both tasks and human relationships. In accomplishing this the leader's behavior is displayed through leadership acts.

Hemphill (1961) classifies these into three groups: 1) attempted leadership acts, which are attempts to influence the behavior of others in order to achieve a common goal; 2) successful leadership acts, which result in changing the behaviors of the group members; and 3) effective leadership acts, which lead to the achievement of the desired goals. A leader's style, then, is a reflection of the individual's traits and how these interact with members of the group.

Some leaders are very demanding in a group. Some allow group members to share in decision-making, while some make all the decisions individually. Some leaders use a combination of styles.

One of the earliest studies to attempt to define these styles was conducted by Lewin, Lippit and White (1939). Even though the original studies were done by observing the behavior of four similar groups of ten-year-old boys, they have been often replicated, in adult groups, with similar findings. The styles of leadership interaction were labeled autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire. It was found that the most favorable results came when a democratic style is used. The autocratic style brought resistance and aggression and the laissez-faire style resulted in frustration, lack of purpose and indecision. Leaders concerned with the members of the group tend to be viewed as democratic while those dealing with a concern for tasks tend to be autocratic. McGregor (1960) postulated that those who operate with a belief that the followers are innately lazy and unreliable fall...
into his Theory X category. Those who believe that people can be basically self-directive and creative if properly motivated and act in a democratic manner are a part of Theory Y.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1957) contend that there are a wide variety of styles of leader behavior between these two extremes. They depict these on a continuum, as illustrated in Figure 1.

(Authoritarian) ←------------------------→(Democratic)
Task Oriented ---------------------- Relationships-Oriented

Use of Authority by the Leader

Area of Freedom for Subordinates

A = Leader makes decision and announces it
B = Leader "sells" decision
C = Leader presents ideas and invites questions
D = Leader presents tentative decision subject to change
E = Leader presents problem, gets suggestions, and makes decision
F = Leader defines limits; asks group to make decision
G = Leader permits subordinates to function within limits defined by superior

Figure 1*
Continuum of Leader Behavior

Those leaders whose behavior is observed at the authoritarian end tend to be task-oriented and use their power to influence their followers, while those whose behavior is group-oriented are at the democratic end, giving their followers considerable freedom in their work. This continuum does not include the laissez-faire aspect since it implies a "leave-alone" attitude; the leader establishing no policies or procedures. This is felt to be an absence of leadership with no leadership behavior being exhibited, consequently not included.

The recognition of two leadership styles, one emphasizing tasks and the other stressing relationships gave rise to several subsequent studies. The University of Michigan studies attempted to locate clusters of characteristics that seem to be related to each other and to tests of effectiveness. These studies identified two concepts which they called employee orientation and production orientation. A leader who stresses the relationships aspects of the job is described as employee-centered, while the production-centered leader emphasizes production and the technical aspects of the job. These two orientations can be viewed as paralleling the authoritarian-democratic concepts of the leader behavior continuum (Hersey and Blanchard, 1972).

Comprehensive studies were also conducted by Halpin (1959) and others at Ohio State University in an attempt to identify various dimensions of leadership behavior. These resulted in the definition of two dimensions, Consideration and Initiating Structure. Halpin (1959) defines these as follows:

CONSIDERATION refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of the group.

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INITIATING STRUCTURE refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting the job done (p. 2).

In order to gather data about the behavior of leaders the Ohio State staff developed the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (LBDQ). It is designed to describe how a leader carries out activities. The LBDQ contains fifteen items pertaining to Consideration and fifteen for Initiating Structure. Respondents, subordinates or superordinates, judge the frequency with which the leader engages in each form of behavior by checking one of five descriptions - always, often, occasionally, seldom or never - as it relates to each item of the LBDQ.

One important factor is the aspect that these two dimensions, Consideration and Initiating Structure, are two separate and distinct dimensions. The behavior of a leader can be described as any mix of both dimensions. It was during these studies that leader behavior was first plotted on two separate axes rather than on a simple continuum as illustrated in Figure 2.

Four quadrants were developed to show various combinations of consideration (relationships behavior) and initiating structure (task behavior). Fleishman, et al. (1955) found that effective leadership behavior is characterized by high scores on both dimensions, while conversely, ineffective, undesirable leadership behavior is marked by low scores on both dimensions. However, it was noted that a leader could be high on one dimension, while low on the other and still be an effective leader, depending on the situation.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Low Structure and Low Consideration</th>
<th>High Structure and High Consideration</th>
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<tr>
<td>Low Consideration</td>
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<tr>
<td>(Low) ←----------------- Initiating Structure ----------------→ (High)</td>
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Figure 2*
The Ohio State Leadership Quadrants


Fleishman devised the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ), which was used in this study, based on the LBDQ. The LOQ differs from the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire in that the respondent is the leader, not a subordinate or superordinate. The items and scoring procedures are slightly different but the outcomes of measured behavior of the leader are interpreted as are the LBDQ; that is, an
effective leader is one who scores high on both dimensions while an ineffective one generally scores low on both consideration and initiating structure.

Blake and Mouton (1964) have used this same basic task accomplishment and personal relationships concept in the development of their Managerial Grid, which they use in organization and management development programs. The Managerial Grid utilizes the two dimensions, that of production (tasks) and concern for people (relationships) with the four quadrant aspect as in the Ohio State Studies. It identifies five different types of leadership styles as illustrated in Figure 3.

These five styles are described by Blake and Mouton (1964) as follows:

Impoverished (1-1) - Exertion of minimum effort to get required work done is appropriate to sustain organization membership.

Country Club (1-9) - Thoughtful attention to needs of people for satisfying relationships leads to a comfortable, friendly organization atmosphere at work tempo.

Task (9-1) - Efficiency in operations results from arranging conditions of work in such a way that human elements interfere to a minimum degree.

Middle-of-the-Road (5-5) - Adequate organization performance is possible through balancing the necessity to get out work while maintaining morale of people at a satisfactory level.

Team (9-9) - Work accomplishment is from committed people; interdependence through a "common stake" in organization purpose leads to relationships of trust and respect.
Reddin (1970) has added a third dimension of effectiveness to this same basic model in developing his 3-D Management Style Theory. This results in an eight style model of management (leadership) behavior. These eight styles result from the eight possible combinations of Task Orientation, Relationship Orientation, and Effectiveness as illustrated in Figure 4.
figure 4*
3-D Theory


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A capsule description of each of these eight styles taken from the Manual for the Management Style Diagnosis Test (1972) follows:

EXECUTIVE - A manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is appropriate and who is therefore more-effective. Seen as a good motivator who sets high standards, who treats everyone somewhat differently and who prefers team management.

COMPROMISER - A manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a high Relationships Orientation in a situation that requires a high orientation to only one or neither and who is therefore less-effective. Seen as being a poor decision maker and as one who allows various pressures in the situation to influence him too much. Seen as minimizing immediate pressures and problems rather than maximizing long term production.

BENEVOLENT AUTOCRAT - A manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is appropriate and who is therefore more-effective. Seen as knowing what he wants, and knowing how to get it without creating resentment.

AUTOCRAT - A manager who is using a high Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is inappropriate and who is therefore less-effective. Seen as having no confidence in others, as unpleasant, and as being interested only in the immediate job.

DEVELOPER - A manager who is using a high Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is appropriate and who is therefore more-effective. Seen as having implicit trust in people and as being primarily concerned with developing them as individuals.

MISSIONARY - A manager who is using a high Relationships Orientation and a low Task Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is inappropriate and who is therefore less-effective. Seen as being primarily interested in harmony.

BUREAUCRAT - A manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is appropriate and who is therefore more-effective. Seen as being primarily interested in rules and procedures for their own sake, and as wanting to maintain and control the situation by their use.

DESERTER - A manager who is using a low Task Orientation and a low Relationships Orientation in a situation where such behaviour is
inappropriate and who is therefore less-effective. Seen as uninvolved and passive.

FOUR MORE-EFFECTIVE STYLES - The four more-effective styles may be equally effective depending on the situation in which they are used. Some managerial jobs require all four styles to be used at times, other jobs tend to demand only one or two styles consistently.

The research on leadership styles continues to be explored as attempts are made to be more definite and accurate as leaders are being selected, trained and placed.

Women in Educational Administration

Moving from the vast body of literature on leadership, this search focused more closely on that literature which dealt specifically with the leadership style of women in educational administration. In none of the foregoing discussion on leadership were women discussed, the leader or manager is always referred to as "he". Only recently is it that studies on women, or including women, have been conducted. Most of these studies have been doctoral dissertations, which have attempted to ascertain information about women in administrative positions. As the need for more women in leadership positions continues, it appears necessary to gather data that can affect the selection, training and placement of effective women leaders.

The problem, however, is as McGannon (1972) stated "... there aren't any women in administration ... hardly any to speak of, that is (p. 1)." The National Education Association (1973) stated that of the 13,000 public school superintendents, only sixty-five are women; less than one-tenth of one percent. In post-secondary, women are even less visible. Men dominate college and university administration,
particularly at the policy-making levels. A 1971-1972 NEA survey of higher education institutions found that of 953 presidencies in 4-year institutions, women held only 32 positions (USOE, 1972). Sandler (1972) states "... right now, the best way for a woman to become a college president is to get herself to a nunnery. Were it not for the Catholic Sisters the number of women college presidents would be far less than the number of whooping cranes (p. 1)."

A Carnegie Commission on Higher Education report, Opportunities for Women in Higher Education (1973) states, "If women are thinly represented on faculties, especially in traditionally male fields, they are so rarely represented in top academic administrative positions as to be practically nonexistent in the upper echelons (p. 123)."

The possible reasons for today's situation are many, as will be explored in-depth later, but a look at the background of women's education may provide a basis of understanding. World Book of Knowledge (1969) states that schools were set up as an institution when written languages first appeared. The main purpose of these schools was teaching a limited number of boys to read and write. They learned how to keep the record of laws, religious beliefs, write contracts and business transactions. Attendance at these schools was restricted to a small, privileged, and aristocratic class of priests or public officials. Girls did not usually go to school (p. 60).

The Greeks thought schools should be for the citizenship to become well-rounded individuals. The narration continues, "A youth went to a grammar school, where he learned to read, write and count. . . . The Athenian boy developed the intellectual, artistic and phys-
ical ability of a free man. He received a liberal education (p. 66)."
There is no mention of the Athenian girl, therefore the assumption is that they did not attend schools.

The description continues to tell the reader about Sparta, Rome, European Education in the Middle Ages and European Education 1400 to 1900, without mention of girls in the educational process. The first citation referring to girls comes as the Roman Catholic Church made an effort with education to offset the gains made by the Protestant countries during the Reformation. As several new teaching orders were established "the Ursuline Sisters established schools to promote the special education of girls (p. 68)."

Newcomer (1959) states that during colonial times in the United States girls were not included in formal schooling. They were considered intellectually inferior and too weak to maintain the rigors of academic life. Schools were officially established in the new country by the Massachusetts Law of 1642. It was not until the eighteenth century, however, that it was acceptable for women to teach in the dame schools; acceptable, that is, only if they needed the money.

Lee (1959) points out that in the nineteenth century female students were guided by the "Lady Principal". This position was the first administrative position for women in education. Tradition has it that education is a woman's field. Although women staff public school systems in the United States, men run them, says a position paper issued by the Recruitment Leadership and Training Institute (1974). The paper continues by pointing out that "women are a majority of public elementary and secondary teachers, yet they hold only an
insignificant percentage of such key administrative posts as those of superintendent, central office administrator, principal and assistant principal. Men are predominately at all administrative levels and thus enjoy significantly greater power, status and monetary return (p. 2)." The Institute contends that women in education are held at entry level positions as they are in business. Table 1 (Appendix A), cited in the Recruitment Leadership and Training Institute presents the national picture and illustrates the proportions of male dominance in administrative positions in 1972-1973 (1974).

The National School Boards Association (1974) in a report given by the Committee on the Role of Women in Educational Governance states that in a national survey only 10% of the school board membership is held by women. This figure has remained more or less constant for the past fifty years, with 9.7% membership in 1959, 10% in 1946%, 13.7% in 1932, and 10.5% in 1927.

The picture is as bleak in offices of education at both state and federal levels, says Suzanne Taylor (1973). In only two states, Montana and Wisconsin, were there women Chief Officers in the Department of Education. In the U.S. Office of Education, as of October 1972, there were four men and no women at GS Grade 18, and only three women among the 48 people at grades 17 and 16 (Taylor, 1973).

In schools of education, the places where administrators are trained, the figures are even worse, only 2% of all professors of educational administration were women (Lyon and Saario, 1973).

Although undergraduate education is equally accessible to men and women today, the hurdles for women become higher as the level of edu-
cation increases. The number of women relative to men decreases as one proceeds from bachelor's to master's, to doctor's and professional degrees (Cross, 1974). "Roughly 42 percent of the bachelor's and first professional degrees are earned by women, while 37% of the master's degrees and 13 percent of the doctor's degrees go to women (Cross, 1974, p. 124)."

Feldman (1974) in a Carnegie Commission report concurs with those figures and also points out that women have an especially high attrition ratio between bachelor's, master's and doctor's degrees, in certain fields. "Women are at least four times as likely to receive a bachelor's degree in mathematics, computer science, and business as they are to receive a doctorate in these fields (p. 6)." This report, Escape from Doll's House, is concluded by Feldman with the following statement: "Our data, however, do not substantiate either the presence or absence of discrimination. What has been borne out is that within graduate education there is a great deal of inequality based on sex. But inequality is not the same thing as discrimination (p. 137)."

What are the causes of this sexual imbalance? Studies dealing with women in education, both as students and administrators suggest that 1) women do not aspire to these positions, 2) that women fear their own success, 3) that institutional barriers keep them out, 4) that society's attitudes and especially males who hire, neither encourage nor support women for these positions and 5) that women are not qualified. How does the literature support these conclusions?

In an excellent, in-depth review of the literature dealing with
the barriers to women's participation in post-secondary education,
Ruth Ekstrom (1972) concludes that these barriers can be summarized
under three themes, 1) institutional, 2) situational, and 3) disposi-
tional. Institutional barriers include aspects of admission prac-
tices, financial aid practices, institutional regulations, curriculum
planning and student personnel services, and faculty and staff atti-
tudes. Situational barriers include factors such as sociological fac-
tors, familial factors, financial obstacles, residential factors and
personal factors. Dispositional barriers include women's own atti-
tudes toward fear of failure, intellectual activity, ambivalence about
educational goals, level of aspiration, passivity, dependence and in-
feriority feelings. Ekstrom points out that the emphasis of the study
is upon recent practices and not on those of the past.

Roby (1973) states "there is no way we can draw up a balance
sheet that distinguishes the extent to which discrimination operates
to exclude women from advanced graduate and professional training and
the extent to which self-exclusion from advanced training results from
the sex-role socialization that inhibits women's aspirations (p. 44)."

"The American Association of University Women conclude that in
view of these existing inequities there is a need for colleges and
universities to remedy institutional policies that contribute to the
preservation of those inequities (1971)."

Speaking specifically about women in educational administrative
positions, Alan Pifer (1971) concludes that higher education has been
institutionalized on a male basis, and the introduction of women into
its positions of power upsets the system and causes difficulties. Ma-
Theny (1973) found in her study that women in education do not see the selection process for top positions open to females. Most of the respondents in her study agreed that 1) women must work harder than men of similar talent and qualifications, 2) men receive more encouragement, 3) school boards would prefer to hire a male superintendent, 4) women are not counseled and encouraged by colleges and universities to work and prepare for administrative positions and 5) women are now in a position to obtain equal pay and job opportunities. Most of the respondents in this same study disagree that 1) men are better suited to administrative positions and 2) women worry over attitudes and traditions.

Taylor, (1971) in surveying the attitudes of superintendents and Board of Education members in Connecticut found that the attitudes toward women in administrative positions clearly represent a negative bias. She also found that those men who had previously worked with women had more favorable attitudes than those men who had not. All respondents replied that there were no written and very few unwritten policies which preclude appointing women to administrative posts, however.

Tipple (1972) found that the size of a district, urban, suburban or rural, made no significant difference in the attitudes of superintendents and board members toward hiring women for administrative positions; the evidence was that discrimination did exist equally in all areas.

In a study that dealt with the study of personnel policies in higher education, LaPuma (1972) found evidence of the presence of dis-
criminatory attitudes toward women faculty members and women administrators. These were most pronounced in the hiring practices at this level. In personal interview and by letter the author found that the respondents still believe that women are less qualified and less committed to an academic career.

Other studies that make similar conclusions include those by Crosby (1973, Timmons (1973), and Stevenson (1973), whose study dealt with the "Big Ten" universities. Scriven (1973) investigated administrative positions in the central offices of large school districts. Strong (1972) studies the attitudes toward the selection of women faculty in schools of business and Pfiffner (1972) in looking at California community colleges all draw similar conclusions.

Sandler (1972) says that since discrimination is immoral, illegal and costly, universities and colleges certainly need to adhere to the recent legislation. She points out that the governmental Revised Order #4 tells how to set up an affirmative action program to help universities and colleges meet the requirements. It includes 1) developing a data base on all job classifications, 2) having a policy statement which forbids discrimination, 3) appointing a person to be in charge of an affirmative action program, 4) examining recruiting, hiring, promotion policies, salaries and other conditions of employment, 5) identifying areas of under utilization of women staff and developing a specific plan to overcome this under utilization and 6) developing goals and timetables for the employment of women.

At this time, number six, that of developing goals and timetables is receiving much attention with outcries of "quotas". Sandler makes
the distinction that these goals and timetables are not quotas, they are numerical aims which the institution will try to achieve. If a goals is not met, the institution must show that a good faith effort was made to recruit, hire and promote women and that there is documentation to substantiate this claim. In agreement with Pifer (1971), Sandler states that since universities have never had to specify criteria for hiring and promotions, these regulations indeed upset the status quo. She concludes her article by citing some examples of the expense involved when women decide to resort to court actions; nine women at Florida State University are suing for one million dollars in back pay and damages naming individual members of the administration as the perpetrators of the discrimination; a women scientist at the University of Pittsburg is suing for one and one-half million dollars; other women are doing likewise at the University of California at Berkeley, the University of Maryland, Texas Technical State College and others.

In addition to affirmative action programs there are several other possible solutions offered to overcome the present situation. Fecher (1972) advocates that women must be more aggressive in making known their positions and views toward women in administrative positions. She also states that women presently holding administrative positions can exert pressures and be leaders in eliminating the barriers.

Lewis (1968) says women must change their own attitudes. They must exhibit interest in promotion, hold greater expectations of themselves, demonstrate their equality, support other females and "be en-
couraged to view themselves as individuals and to make plans in accordance with their unique qualities (p. 5)." He further states "that any dramatic or profound change in societies' attitudes will have to be instigated by women themselves . . . (p. 10)."

JoAnn Fley (1972) corroborates this attitude by stating that women must assume more initiative and leadership. She has a six-step campaign to help women gain entry and advancement in higher education. This plan includes 1) recreate a strong national and local informal system. An "old girl" system is as necessary for women as it is for men. She maintains that each woman holding an administrative position at present should maintain a file containing names of a) women she knows who are searching for positions, b) those who hold key positions in institutions throughout the country, c) those who head offices of women in professional associations and d) those within their own institution who should be an integral part of the local informal system; 2) establishing a "watchdog" selection committee to follow the process as soon as a position is open until it is filled; 3) communicate information about that process to others on campus, including the affirmative action offices; 4) alert women in agencies dealing with higher education (but not a part of it), of openings and of the on-going recruitment processes: 5) advise women nearing graduation to look at one-year appointments and non-tenured teaching lines with a cold astringent eye; and 6) advise a candidate, after securing a position, to notify all those who have helped her (p. 56).

Carroll (1972), in essence, agrees with these ideas, and offers several suggestions to help reverse the present trend. She believes
the most important step is for women to apply for administrative positions. She advocates the assertiveness of women in making their talents known and being willing to help others in their career development. She cautions women to be prepared to make the commitment to the rigors of an administrative position. And finally, she urges all women to decline any assignments that perpetuate a stereotype role for women.

Koontz (1972) has a few suggestions of a wider nature that may help to alleviate the situation. She believes that the media must revise their support and perpetuation of discriminatory attitudes. She urges investigations, of the thousands of ways our society molds, restricts and perhaps even deforms the growth of the girl child.

Women in Business Administration

The third aspect of this literature search, women in business administration, involves establishing a background on women in the labor force in general. The U.S. Department of Labor Manpower Report to the President (1973) states that the female labor force almost doubled between 1947 and 1971, increasing from 16.7 million workers to over 32 million workers. At the present time the Women's Bureau (1974) claims there are nearly 35 million women, or 39%, in the labor force. It points out that those who work do so for the same reasons men do, basically for economic need. Twenty-three percent of these are single women and nineteen percent are widowed, divorced, or separated, all needing to support themselves. Of the remaining fifty-eight percent, forty percent have husbands who earn $7,000 and over, seven percent
have husbands who earn $5,000 to $6,999, six percent have husbands who earn $3,000 to $4,999 and only five percent have husbands who earn under $3,000. While they work to contribute to the economic support of their families or themselves they continue to earn less than men do. Department of Labor statistics for 1972 show that white males earn a median income of $10,766, minority males earn $7,548, while white females earn $6,131 and minority females fare the worst by earning $5,320 (1974).

As women move into administrative positions the picture is not much improved. Figures vary regarding the percentage of women holding administrative positions. Schwartz (1971) claims her study found 10% women in managerial and professional positions in 1968. However she cites a 1965 Fortune study as saying that women only contribute about 2% of all "real executives". The U.S. Women's Bureau says that, based on 1973 data published by the Bureau of Labor Statistics, women hold about 19% of the management positions.

Lyle and Ross (1973) point out that with respect to managerial positions, women do not hold a majority in any of the 24 non-farm occupations. They contend that women account for 17% of the 36 million management jobs. These are held in the fields of health administration, building supervisors and managers, general office managers, assessors, controllers and treasurers, and restaurant, cafeteria and bar managers.

It is believed that this discrepancy in numbers occurs due to the lack of a stable definition in each study of "manager" or "administrator".
Johnston (1974) found that of 305 women MBA graduates from Harvard, Stanford, the University of Pennsylvania and the University of Chicago from 1968-1972, only 10% of them believed their position qualified as a top management position. She also found that the mean salaries of these 305 women were approximately $1,000 less than those of males in similar positions.

What are reasons put forth for these meager numbers of women in administrative positions? The literature points to several possible reasons, 1) women do not aspire to these positions, 2) they are not qualified, 3) neither men nor women want to work for a woman superior, 4) the attitudes of society and those doing the hiring do not allow for the selection of women and 5) the organization operates on myths that tend to keep women out.

Cussler, in a study done in 1958, interviewed fifty-five women in top jobs in the Boston and Washington area and found several contradicting stereotypes at work. People who do not employ women do not do so because women are:

- too aggressive or too yielding
- too feminine or too masculine
- too emotional or too icy
- too rigid or too indecisive
- too personal or too impersonal

"to the person who fears the executive women the contradictions seem logical (p. 3)."

Rosen and Thomas (1974) report the results of a Harvard Business Review survey in which 1500 HBR subscribers participated. The results
suggest "that even the best-intentioned managers often fall back on timeworn ideas of what is the proper role for men and women, both in the home and on the job (p. 46)." If the survey findings are indicative of what occurs in most American companies, the authors conclude that "many women do not receive the organizational support that their male counterparts automatically experience (p. 58)." In response to a questionnaire based on hypothetical situations participants responded as though they were in the role of the executive vice-president. The results showed that managers expect male employees to give top priority to their jobs when career demands and family obligations conflict. In contrast, they expect female employees to sacrifice their career to family. Managers also make greater efforts to retain a valuable male rather than an equally qualified female if the situations threaten an employee's job. The conclusion of this survey was that in selection, promotion and career-development decisions, managers are biased in favor of males.

Edith Lynch (1973) in a survey of 94 women executives explored the attitudes of women toward several myths. In response to the myth that women can't take heavy responsibility, most replies were negative. Further say the respondents that women have had it drummed into them for so long that they can't achieve that indeed they do not reach top-level jobs. In responding to the myth that women cry too much, the replies indicate that emotionalism is no more prevalent in women than in men. That women ask for more special privileges received the reply, not true, unless some consider maternity a privilege. In response to the myth that women make terrible bosses, some respondents agreed
that men, and some women, do not like to work for women. One person replied that "Men do not necessarily hate to work for a woman boss. Some men hate to work for anyone (p. 22)." To the myth that management women have lost their femininity the response was that the old version of management women is gone, women usually dress well and choose apparel appropriate to the job, as do men. To the myth that women can't do two jobs well, either home or career must suffer, replies were negative. Women are returning to the job market unskilled received replies of both yes and no. The pervading comment was that reentry must be planned for by giving training and seminars especially geared to women.

Crowley and others (1973) did a national survey of personal interviews with 539 working women and 993 working men to investigate the attitudes toward stereotypes of women who work. In response to the stereotype that women are less concerned in the advancement on their job, it was found that while women might desire a promotion they did not expect to achieve one, therefore, "to avoid frustration, women, like men in the same situation, scale down their ambitions (p. 96)."

A stereotype that is often at work is that women do not stay on the job long enough to warrant top level jobs, however, Lyle and Ross (1973) found that all firms in their study complain of losing bright young men to other jobs in other locations but they do not use that as a reason for not hiring men. Johnston (1974) found that 72% of the respondents to her study felt that it was not applicable to use the excuse that the turnover for women was too great.
Doll (1965) found in studying 27 matched pairs of females and males in the same company that the males did have more education than the females. Recalling that Feldman (1974) pointed out that business was one of the areas in which women are at least four times as likely to receive a bachelor's degree as the doctor's degree, Doll's finding comes as no surprise.

Other studies that have been conducted have resulted in similar conclusions (Oppenheimer, 1970; Kreps, 1971; Madden, 1973; and Coover, 1973).

Coser and Rokoff (1971) say that as women step out of the expected normative pattern of the home and into the occupational world they not only cause disruption in the work area but they experience personal conflict.

Some of this disruption is spoken to by Touhey (1974) as he explores the effects of additional women in occupations. Touhey's hypothesis is that increasing proportions of women professionals may reduce the prestige and desirability of high-status occupations. He cites others who have stated that as large numbers of women enter a profession, men go elsewhere to seek employment.

What are the possible solutions to equalizing the current lopsided picture? In addition to those presented for women in education, writers in business are providing several possible and feasible alternatives. Schwartz (1974) says new work patterns are needed. She advocates fostering new part-time schedules such as: straight part-time, any job less than the regular eight-hour day; split-location, which allows a worker to perform his or her duties partly at home and
partly at the office; paired/shared, which is one job with two people sharing the duties, in some cases both workers doing the same type of tasks and in other cases the tasks are differentiated according to the skills of the workers and the needs of the job; and lastly, consultant, which employs a worker only when his or her particular expertise is required. According to Schwartz there are many advantages to part-time schedules, 1) they may be utilized by both women and men, 2) there is a larger recruitment pool which will enable an employer to be more selective, 3) because of a shortage of part-time jobs, the turnover rate is usually lower, 4) time off can decrease, workers will have free time to pursue other interests, and 5) employment can be tailored to fit the job, resulting in a greater utilization of workers' skills.

Martin (1974) advocates recruiting women through a plan of flexible hours. She contends that flexible hours eliminates tardiness, reduces time off for personal affairs, permits schedule adjustments to peak periods, extends the hours the organization is open each day which results in more efficient utilization of buildings, parking lots and transportation. Her article agrees with those advantages put forth by Schwartz.

Experimentation has been done with a four-day work week, including both women and men. Nord and Costigan (1973) found that employees had consistently positive attitudes toward the four-day week. Women in their study were able to see the influence on home life as more favorable. It gave them a free day to catch up on household chores, resulting in a better attitude toward that role.
Coston (1973) conducted a study of the effects of a four-day week on women workers. The study was conducted in two apparel factories with both results being similar. Production, absenteeism and turnover performance was positive. The women's attitudes were also studied in one of the two plants with the result that workers reported that they were happier even though they had a longer day.

Speaking specifically about women in management positions, Schwartz (1971) gives the following recommendations made by the respondents in her study:

1) Management should seek out qualified women.
2) Women who desire a career should make a lifetime commitment.
3) Management should ignore sex as a criteria and adopt a promotional policy based on ability.
4) Management should provide special management training for women.
5) Management should educate its own top management and personnel people concerning the effective use of women.
6) Create a professional awareness in women.
7) Encourage women to seek out companies that do not discriminate.
8) Encourage women to throw away feelings of male dominance.
9) Let Title VII and other legal orders take their course.

In agreement with numbers four and five, Jardim and Hennig have initiated a program at Simmons College especially to train women for management positions. They will also run seminars to help present managers, male and female, cope with the new role of women in business. This same Business Week article reports of a similar program at Pace University in New York City being funded by a grant from the
Mellon Foundation (February 23, 1974).

Xerox, I.B.M. and General Electric have financially backed a "Think Tank for Women". Under the direction of Amatai Etzioni it is designed to act as a catalyst for new thinking, developing options and alternatives for the future (Management Advisor, July, 1974).

Characteristics of Women Administrators

Since a focus of this study deals with a comparison of similarities and differences of women in educational administration and women in business administration, it necessitated a literature search relevant to what is special about those women who have achieved in the top levels.

In addition to the material previously presented Doll (1965) found in studying matched pairs of male and female that women were older than the men, and were employed in smaller firms. Women attributed their success to knowledge and ability while men cited determination and drive. Both women and men had attained a higher level of education than their parents. She found a significant relationship between age and salary for men while for women education and salary were significant.

In the study by Lynch (1973) she found the female executives to be between 23 and the 60's, with an approximate average age of 40. Salaries ranged from $18,000 to over $50,000 with the biggest cluster falling between $22,000 and $33,000. Even though birth order is spoken to in several studies, she found no pattern present among the 94 respondents. With regard to feminist affiliation, some were and some
were not. There was no significant trend regarding persons who influenced their careers. The respondents felt that the skill most difficult to develop was that of the delegation of responsibility.

In an in-depth study Hennig (1970) found that most of the women executives in her study had stayed with one or two companies for the duration of their careers. Most of these women were the eldest or only child, all 25 were the first-born females. They had a close relationship with their fathers and established an early preference for men rather than women.

She also found that all but three of the respondents had fathers in the middle-management positions, while the mother's primary activity was home and family. With the exception of two, mothers had education equal to the fathers; in fact, in thirteen cases mothers had a higher education level than the fathers. None of the subjects married before the age of thirty-five.

With respect to their leadership styles, most of the women developed a task-oriented style until a period of the late 40's or early 50's, when their styles changed to an open, interpersonal communication one.

Lyle and Ross (1973) found that women in their study had relied on mentors in obtaining their jobs. They found, as did Hennig, that most of them had ridden on the coattails of young executives. With reference to leadership styles they found one-third of the respondees were production-oriented, one-third were operating with permissive philosophy, one-sixth used a detached or under-controlling style while the remaining one-sixth used exploitive tactics. However, the
authors make no correlation between age groups and these styles.

Stevenson (1972) found in her study that the greatest number of administrators were in the forty-five to fifty-four year old bracket. Seventy-nine percent of the respondents, who were administrators in Big Ten universities, held a doctor's degree while the rest held master's degrees. Eighty-four percent indicated they had moved up in the organization for which they currently worked.

Schlack (1974) in a study of upper-management and middle-management women student personnel administrators found the average age of respondents was forty, unmarried, a holder of a master's degree and was earning approximately $11,000. A great majority of the women were only children or had only one sibling; over half in each management group were the oldest child.

With regard to leadership styles, Schlack found that about half of management levels scored high on both dimensions of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire.

In addition to the possible reasons already given, for the lack of women in administrative positions a few additional points are necessary. Many writers believe that the reason women do not aspire to administrative positions is due to the attitudes and expectations held by society and perpetuated by the system of education, both formal and informal. Harrison (1973) says the messages that are given to girls and boys are daily and unremitting, "they are trivial, perhaps, in each instance, but taken cumulatively, they articulate a world view; they tell our children what it is to be a male human being, and what it is to be a female human being (p. 6)." This conclusion was made
after a school committee looked at school books, physical setups of nursery and kindergarten classrooms, the curriculum, and at parent-staff relationships.

McCune writes in a National Education Association publication (1973) about the socialization process that takes place in the schools. She believes that schools provide five basic vehicles which they utilize to tell boys how to be boys and girls how to be girls. These vehicles are 1) the curriculum, 2) teacher behavior, 3) physical education and health education, 4) counseling and 5) extra-curricular activities.

Celeste Ulrich writes in this same NEA publication that the research findings of Rosenkrantz, Broverman, Reisman, Griffin, Maccoby, Horner and others have demonstrated that society values those attributes that are reserved for males.

Stacey, Bireaud and Daniels (1974) have edited a book of articles that deal precisely with this issue, sexism in American education.

Janeway (1971) writes a study in social mythology in which the attitudes of society are explored. She states in her introduction that "nothing much has happened. Man's world, women's place remain, and our society continues to ascribe different psychological attributes to each sex, and to assign different duties and ways of living to men and women because it is assumed that they have differing capabilities, moral, social and intellectual as well as physical . . . our society still takes for granted that one (woman's place) not only does, but should, exist (p. 9)."

Lewis (1968) sums up the controversy with, "Sex differences ex-
ist, of course, and will continue to exist, but differences do not imply that one group is superior to another. Both men and women have something worthwhile to contribute to society, and both should be given equal opportunity to make their contributions (p. 8).

Summary

A variety of sources were examined in order to provide a comprehensive survey of leadership theories. This survey dealt with: aspects of the traits approach, studies involving the situational approach and a more in-depth look at the leadership styles approach.

The leadership material was followed by an investigation of the available material pertinent to women in educational administration. It traced a brief history of the place of women in education, the present trend of young women in undergraduate and graduate programs and the entrance and problems of women in administrative positions.

The chapter next dealt with the aspect of women in business administration. It set a background of the present situation of women in the labor force and looked specifically at women in top level management positions; their numbers, and their problems.

Another thrust of this literature search dealt with the characteristics of women administrators, especially those in education and business in an attempt to discover if those women who have made it to the top are special, in any way.

The chapter concludes with other causes that are given for the present situation of so few women in administrative positions. These basically deal with the educational and societal influences that are
placed on girls and boys.

Chapter III will present the design of this study.
CHAPTER III

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

Introduction

It was the purpose of this study to discover and report similarities and differences in personal characteristics and leadership styles between women in educational administration and women in business administration.

Chapter III includes: (1) A description of the population and sample, (2) The research questions of the study, (3) The measurements used to gather data, (4) The procedures used, (5) The methods utilized to analyze the data, and (6) A summary.

Population and Sample

The population for this study consists of women in educational administration and women in business administration on a nationwide basis. In order to obtain a representative sample of this population the current editions of Who's Who in America and Who's Who in Trade and Industry were used. Women in education listed as presidents, vice-presidents, assistant vice-presidents, dean, principal, headmistress, director or other corresponding title were selected from Who's Who in America. Women in business listed as owner, president, vice-president, assistant vice-president, manager, director, editor or other corresponding title were selected from Who's Who in Trade and Industry. It was considered that these titles would provide for
relative similarity in administrative situations in both occupational
groups. A sample group numbering one hundred fifty from each cate-
gory, women in education and women in business, was deemed appropri-
ate, and within the financial limitations of this study.

The Measurements

The data for this study were collected through questionnaires
mailed to the selected administrators. Two questionnaires were sent
to each woman selected. The information was obtained by a leadership
style questionnaire, The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, (L.O.Q.)
and a Biographical Questionnaire (Appendix B).

The mail questionnaire method was chosen for two reasons. First,
the financial and time limitations of this study would not have al-
lowed for the personal interview of each of the selected administra-
tors because of the large number in the sample and the fact that it
was a nationwide sample (including women from Alaska and Hawaii).
Second, the use of a written questionnaire allows the respondent to
understand and give deliberate thought before selecting appropriate
responses to each question. Several questions, such as numbers twen-
ty-three, twenty-four, twenty-six and twenty-seven on the Biographical
Questionnaire required adequate time for the respondent to reflect on
her career and life roles.

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (L.O.Q.) was used in an at-
tempts to discover the style of leadership utilized by each adminis-
trator. This instrument measures two important dimensions of super-
visory leadership - Consideration (C) and Structure (S), originally identified in the Ohio State University leadership studies (Halpin, 1959). "The instrument in its present form, is the product of more than eighteen years of research and use in a variety of industrial and other organizational settings (Fleishman, 1969)."

This instrument was chosen for several reasons: (1) It is self-administering, (2) Responses are made by the administrator selected for the study rather than by a subordinate of that person and (3) It has been successfully administered to other groups and consequently has an established norms table that may be utilized to establish comparative data.

The L.O.Q. gives scores on two dimensions of leadership - Consideration (C) and Structure (S). These two dimensions are defined as follows:

**Consideration** reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships with his subordinates characterized by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, consideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth between himself and them. A high score is indicative of a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. A low score indicates the individual is likely to be more impersonal in his relations with group members.

**Structure** reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his own role and those of his subordinates toward goal attainment. A high score on this dimension characterizes individuals who play a very active role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information,
scheduling, criticizing, trying out new ideas, and so forth. A low score characterizes individuals who are likely to be relatively inactive in giving direction in these ways.

Fleishman makes the point that it is important to note that these dimensions are independent. This means that an administrator can be high on both dimensions, low on both, or high on one dimension and low on the other. The respondent answers forty items with alternatives scored 0, 1, 2, 3, or 4, twenty of which are scored for Consideration and twenty for Structure. Consequently, the maximum possible score is eighty for each dimension. It is noted, however, that scores generally range from 30 to 70. Internal consistency reliabilities for the L.O.Q. were obtained by the split half method (correlations for odd and even-numbered items within each scale, corrected for full length of each scale) (see Fleishman, 1969, pg. 1).

The author (Fleishman, 1969) apprizes the user of several features of the L.O.Q. which substantiate its choice for use in this study. One such feature is that the tendencies of the "halo" and "social desirability" do not seem to be operating in the L.O.Q. scales. These are two common biases found in other instruments which attempt to measure leadership style. Another common failing of instruments in this area is their high correlation with intelligence. The L.O.Q. is not dependent on either intelligence or verbal ability of the administrator responding. Indications are, also, that the L.O.Q. measures something other than that which is generally measured by a personality test.

Fleishman (1969) designates that construct validity was maximized
by each dimension, Consideration and Structure, being developed by factor-analysis procedures, and item-analysis procedures. He urges that empirical validity studies be carried out when relating these dimensions to independent criteria of effectiveness. Many significant validities have been established, but the pattern is not universal. However, since no conclusions will be drawn as to the effectiveness of the administrators in this study this feature was not viewed as a negative factor. Since the L.O.Q. has been utilized in a variety of organizational settings (see Fleishman, 1969) where the results have been consistent and have supported the importance of these two dimensions as identifying leadership style, it was deemed an appropriate instrument for use in this study.

The Biographical Questionnaire

The biographical questionnaire was developed specifically to be used in this study. It was designed to elicit information in three areas: (1) personal characteristics and background of each administrator; (2) professional characteristics of these women and (3) opinions pertinent to women as administrators.

The questionnaire was based, in part, on items and format suggested by similar questionnaires. Each item was evaluated by several persons, including the doctoral committee, women and men in educational administration, and graduate students. Some items were eliminated and others were reconstructed.

The rationale for the questions included in this questionnaire is given below:
Group I: Personal Characteristics. Question three, four, five, eleven, twelve, thirteen, fourteen, fifteen, sixteen, seventeen, and eighteen were designed to gather personal characteristics and background data on each woman and to establish a response pattern indicative of each group of administrator.

Group II: Professional Characteristics. The professional characteristics of these women were assessed by questions two, six, seven, eight, nine, ten, nineteen, twenty-one, and twenty-two. These questions were expected to contribute to the professional descriptions indicative of each group of women administrators.

Group III: Opinions. Questions twenty, twenty-three, twenty-four, twenty-six, twenty-seven and twenty-eight were intended to give the administrators an opportunity to express their opinions about their roles as women in administration.

The above questions were treated statistically and were used to facilitate interpretation of the data.

Research Questions

The information gathered from the responses of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire and the Biographical Questionnaire were appropriately compared as they related to the following questions.

1. Do women in educational administration have a leadership style different than women in business administration?
   a. In tabulating the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire how did each group of women score on the dimension of Consideration?
   b. In tabulating the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire how did each group of women score on the dimension of Structure?

2. Are these leadership styles consistent with those found in predominately male groups tested with the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire?
3. Has either group of women had more education or leadership training?

4. Do both groups of women exhibit the same variables in their family backgrounds?

5. Are there patterns of variables consistent with other studies?
   a. birth order
   b. parental career influence

6. Is one group of women more mobile than the other?

7. How do the two groups of women compare as to marital and family status?

8. Do these women perceive any role conflict?

9. Do any of the following variables affect the results of the responses of either group:
   age
   salary
   size of institution or organization
   publications
   feminist affiliation

10. Has Title VII of the Civil Rights Act had an impact on promotions and job placement?

11. How do these women perceive the problems for women in obtaining their current position of leadership?

12. What factors have been most influential to these women in obtaining their current position of leadership?

13. What do these women believe to be the greatest advantage of
being a female in an administrative position?

The answers to these questions may provide information which may help solve the many complex problems faced by those who will select and train women for positions of leadership.

Procedures

Confidentiality

Respondents were assured in the initial letter that all responses would remain confidential. In order to accomplish this, names were deleted from the questionnaires after the responses were recorded. Names were used only for follow-up purposes in reply to those administrators who requested an abstract of the study. (This was tabulated from question twenty-five of the biographical questionnaire).

Procedures Used to Achieve a High Response Rate

A frequent criticism of mail questionnaires is the low response rate they usually generate. In addition, the characteristics of the non-respondents may be significantly different from those of the respondents, making it difficult to generalize from the returned questionnaires to the rest of the population (Kerlinger, 1964).

Consequently, a great effort was made to achieve a high return rate of questionnaires. The following procedures were used for the mailing and follow-up of the questionnaires.

Questionnaires and Cover Letter. The cover letter was prepared on letterhead paper provided by the Educational Leadership Department of Western Michigan University. It was anticipated this would estab-
lish credibility to the investigation. The letter stipulated that the study was being carried out under the cooperation of the Educational Leadership Department. The letter explained the study and its purpose, emphasized confidentiality and urged cooperation of those receiving it. (Appendix C). Stamped, self-addressed envelopes were also included in the mailing.

Follow-up. Three weeks after the mailing of the first letter and questionnaires, a second letter of reminder was sent to those who had not yet responded. A copy of this letter is presented in Appendix C.

Methods of Analyzing the Data

The methods of analyzing the data were chosen according to the research question that was to be answered.

Analysis of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire

As has been stated previously, the L.O.Q. yields two scores, one for Consideration (C) and one for Structure (S). Each scale is tabulated for a composite score, hence each woman has two individual scores, with a possibility of eighty for each.

The scores for each group of women were then compiled to determine if a pattern emerged. These scores were analyzed according to means and standard deviations. These are reported in Chapter IV.

Analysis of the Biographical Questionnaire

Descriptive and analytical statistics were used to illustrate the data gathered by the Biographical Questionnaire. The data were
compiled for each group of women to determine if a pattern was present. Each variable was analyzed to compare significant differences between the two administrative groups.

All of the questions were comparatively analyzed except for those questions that elicited opinions. Of these questions twenty-three and twenty-four were summarized and frequencies of responses were described. Question twenty-five and twenty-six were compiled and responses were categorized and compared. These are presented in Chapter IV.

Summary

Chapter III contains a discussion of the methods and procedures used in this study. The chapter consists of a definition of the population, the method for developing the sample, a description of the measurements used, the procedures used to obtain the data, and the review of the procedures used for analyzing the data.
CHAPTER IV

REPORT OF THE FINDINGS

Analysis of the Data

It is the purpose of Chapter IV to present and analyze the data gathered to answer the research questions posed by the study. The chapter is divided into the following sections: 1) Composition of the study, 2) Statistical procedures used, 3) presentation of the biographical data, personal and professional characteristics and job opinions, 4) Presentation of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire data.

Composition of the Study

Participants in this study were 150 women holding positions in educational leadership, who were selected from the current edition of Who's Who in America, and 150 women holding leadership positions in business, who were selected from the current issue of Who's Who in Trade and Industry. These 300 women were asked to respond, by mail, to two questionnaires, a Biographical Questionnaire and a Leadership Opinion Questionnaire. These two instruments were used to gather data for this study. Table 1 summarizes the responses to the mail questionnaire.
Table I
Responses to the Mail Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>EDUCATION</th>
<th></th>
<th>BUSINESS</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Biographical</td>
<td>L.O.Q.</td>
<td>Biographical</td>
<td>L.O.Q.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Complete</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>46.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Incomplete</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Retirees</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.7</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>8.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Returned Unfilled or Unusable</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>4.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Undelivered</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14.0</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>14.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not Returned</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>25.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>150</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

There were thirteen women educators who responded that had recently retired. They filled both questionnaires out on the basis of their information and opinions while being an administrator. These responses were analyzed on a first-run and found to correlate quite closely to the group of educators. The decision was therefore made to eliminate reporting the results for this group. This made the two remaining groups more equal in size and did not change the overall character of the results.
Several questionnaires in each group, seven in education and 18 in business were returned by the respondents, or another employee, unfilled with notes of explanation. Reasons for not filling the questionnaire included: no time, no longer an administrator, never had been an administrator, person deceased, and, two of the group were male and, therefore, returned.

A large number, twenty-one in education and fourteen in business, were returned by the postal service marked; moved, left no address; moved, not forwardable; and address unknown. This was thought to be due to two reasons; one, the lack of updating addresses in the editions of Who's Who, and two, the lack of reliability of the postal service, which was indicated by several second-mailings being returned, but first-mailings to the same address were not returned. Another indication of poor postal service was indicated by the range in length of time for letters to be returned, anywhere from two days to five weeks. Also, several respondents, who received the second mailing, but not the first mailing, took the time to write a letter of explanation.

Statistical Procedures Used

The statistical procedures used in this study were the \( t \)-test analysis and the Chi-square \( (X^2) \) analysis. The \( t \)-test analysis was used to determine any mean differences in scores on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (L.O.Q.) between the two sample groups. This was done for each dimension, Consideration and Structure, of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire. The \( t \)-test analysis was also used.
to determine any mean differences in responses to the following questions: 1) Question 19 which ascertained the length of time respondents held their past professional positions. This was used to answer Research Question #6, which dealt with mobility rate, 2) Question 21 which elicited information about the publishing record of the respondents. This was used to answer Research Question 9, which deals with the affect of different variables on the response rate of each group, and 3) Question 22 which gathered information about the respondents' membership in various categories of organizations. This was also used to answer Research Question 9.

The Chi-Square analysis was used for all other remaining questions to ascertain relationships between the two sample groups.

Descriptive techniques were also used to determine answers for research questions relating to: Question 26, which dealt with the respondents' perception of role conflict, and Question 27, which dealt with the opinions of the respondents as to advantages of a female in an administrative position.

Presentation of the Biographical Data

Table 2 presents a brief statistical description of each group of women in the study. The number of respondents (denoted by N in the table) for each variable was different since not all respondents chose to answer all questions.

The average woman administrator in education was 50 years old and, if married, had been married for an average of 6.2 years; 31 percent of the education women were married. The average number of chil-
Table 2
Profile of Selected Variables for Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th>Business</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Years Married</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>6.2</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>more than 10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td># of Children</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>.7</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size of Institution</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>1,850</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>under 250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>68</td>
<td>$23,300</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>$22,400</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3
Ages of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ages</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th>Business</th>
<th></th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30-44</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>9.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>45-54</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>28.2</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>40.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 54</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>62.0</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>46.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100.0</td>
<td>3.11*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

* not significant, $\chi^2$ at pL .05 (df=3) = 5.99
dren she had was .7. The university in which she was employed had an average of 1,850 employees. Her salary was an average of $23,300.

The average woman administrator in business was 47 years of age and, if married, had been so for over 10 years; 76 percent of the business woman were married. The average number of children she had was .9. The organization for which she was employed had under 250 employees. Her salary was an average of $22,400.

Personal Data

There appear to be differences in the age groups of these two groups of women administrators, as shown in Table 3. A substantial majority, about 62 percent, of women in education were recorded in the over 54 age category. Women in business, however, recorded about 40.3 percent in the category of 45-54 years of age, and about 46.8 percent were in the over 54 age group. However, the chi square value of 3.11 shows there was no significant age difference between the two administrative groups.

The largest percentage of the women administrators in education were not married as illustrated in Table 4. Adding to this figure that an additional seven percent of these women are separated or divorced and six percent have been widowed, the total for this group being single at this time becomes 82 percent. (Of those that are married fifteen percent are married for the first time and only three percent are in a second marriage.)

The group composed of women in business were more evenly distributed as to marital status. A total of 47 percent are at this time
### Table 4

Marital Status of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Marital Status</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th>Business</th>
<th></th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Single</td>
<td>49</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Married</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st time</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>35</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Remarried</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Separated/Divorced</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Widowed</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>71</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>62</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>29.41</strong>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*significant, $X^2$ at pL .05 (df=4) = 9.49

### Table 5

Length of Time Married for Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length of time Married</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th>Business</th>
<th></th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Less than 4 yrs.</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-10 yrs.</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>more than 10 yrs.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>56</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>85</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>16</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>33</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
<td><strong>20.31</strong>*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*significant, $X^2$ at pL .05 (df=4) = 9.49
single, with 24 percent never having been married, eight percent separated or divorced and 15 percent that have been widowed. Those in their first marriage number 35 percent while the percentages of remarriages is also higher for this group than those in education, being 18 percent. When the data were statistically analyzed the chi square value of 29.41 was very significant to the p value of 9.49.

The tabulation in Table 5 reports the length of time the women in each group have been married. In both groups, marriages of over ten years are the most common, with women in business indicating 85 percent and women in education having 56 percent. Women in education tend to have the marriages of the shortest duration, with their total in this category being 25 percent. In this same category women in business only report six percent. The remaining 19 percent of women in education have been married 5-10 years while 9 percent of the women in business have been married this length of time. The chi-square value of 20.31 is very significant compared to the p value of 9.49.

Table 6 summarizes the data in regard to the number of children had by each group of married women administrators. It is apparent that in both groups of women almost 75 percent in each group have two or less children; 27 percent of the women in education have no children, while 31 percent of the business group have none; 9 percent of the education group have one child, with women in business having one child, is reported at 28 percent. Those reported having 3 or 4 children are as follows: women in education, 23 percent and 21 per-
### Table 6
Number of Children of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of Children</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th>Business</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>28</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 or 4</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 or more</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $X^2$ at pL .05 (df=4) = 9.49

### Table 7
Number of Brothers of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of Brothers</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th>Business</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 or more</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $X^2$ at pL .05 (df=4) = 9.49
of the women in business. Only a total of 11 percent, 5 percent in education and 6 percent in business, indicate five or more children. The chi square value of 4.34 is not significant. Tables 7 and 8 contain a description of the siblings for each group. Neither chi square value show a significance; .92 value for number of brothers and .67 for the number of sisters. The overall numbers indicate near the same make-up of families for each group. Specifically, both groups show 34 percent having no brothers, while 41 percent education women had no sisters and 40 percent of the business women had no sisters. Women in education report 31 percent have one brother, while this was true for 37 percent of the women in business. Thirty-eight percent of the women in education have one sister and 39 percent of the women in business are in this category. Both groups report 11 percent having two brothers, while 12.5 percent of the education women and 10 percent of the business women have two sisters. The percentages decrease to 10 percent for women in education with three brothers and 8 percent for women in business. Only 5.5 percent of the women in education report three sisters as do 6 percent of the women in business. Both groups show 10 percent having four or more brothers, while 4 or more sisters is noted by 3 percent of the women in education and 5 percent for the women in business.

Table 9 displays the response to the question, which child are you? It appears that the family backgrounds of these two groups are fairly similar. As only children, 11 percent of the women in education responded affirmatively, while 13 percent of the women in business did so. Women in education indicate 25% of them were youngest
Table 8
Number of Sisters of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th># of Sisters</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>None</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Two</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Three</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>5.5</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 or more</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $X^2$ at $pL .05$ (df=4) = 9.49

Table 9
Sibling Order of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sibling Order</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Only</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Youngest</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oldest</td>
<td>26</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Middle</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $X^2$ at $pL .05$ (df=3) = 7.82
children and 23 percent of the women in business are. As oldest child, 27 percent of the educators respond yes, while the women in business achieved slightly higher with 41 percent. Reported as middle children were 27 percent of the educators and 23 percent of the business women. The chi square value of .97 is not significant. In addition, Table 10 shows the numbers of each group that were oldest female child. Both groups indicate 13 percent. In order to determine what percentage of these women are the only or oldest female a combined total was calculated. The result shows 61 percent of the women in education are, with 66 percent of those in business being in this category.

Table 11 reports the level of education reached by the mothers of each group of women. Very few report mothers who had a graduate or professional degree, 6 percent of the educators and 8 percent of the women in business. Having a college degree is reported by nearly the same for both groups, 15.5 percent for educators and 15 percent for business. Some college or other school is reported by nearly the same numbers also, 24 percent educators and 23 percent business. There is a difference in the number reported as high school graduates, 21 percent for educators and 32 percent for business. Having some high school is reported as 15.5 percent for educators and 6 percent for business. A grammar school level was reached by 17 percent of the educators' mothers and 13 percent of the business mothers. The chi square value of 5.13 indicates there is no significant relationship.

Fathers' level of education is displayed in Table 12. A larger
Table 10
Number of Oldest Females as Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oldest Female</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11
Mothers' Level of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of Ed.</th>
<th>Education F</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Business F</th>
<th>%</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some high school</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school grad.</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>21</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>32</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college or other</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>24</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College grad.</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>15.5</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grad. or prof. degree</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>5.13*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $X^2$ at $pL .05 (df=6) = 12.59$
number of fathers had graduate or professional degrees in both groups, 25 percent in education and 21 percent in business. As college graduates, 12 percent are reported for the educators and 16 percent for the business women. Some college or other school has 19 percent for educators and 23 percent for those in business. Both groups report 10 percent of their fathers as a high school graduate. A grammar school level was reached by 20 percent for educators and 19 percent for business. The chi square value of 1.216 indicates there is no significant relationship.

Moving to the data on parents' employment, Table 13 shows the number of mothers who were employed while these women were children. More than half of each group indicates their mother did not work at all; 66 percent of the women in education and 55% of the women in business. Mothers working full time account for 7.5 percent of the women in education and 10 percent for those in business. Mothers who worked part-time, full time on and off, were recorded as 8.5 percent for women in education and 8 percent for women in business. Those who did not work while their children were young but then worked full time received 6 percent for women in education and 11 percent for women in business. Those who did not work while their children were young and then worked part time is at 10 percent for both groups. One percent of the women in education had a mother not at home while six percent of those in business were without a mother at home. One woman educator did not respond to this question. The chi square value of 5.38 shows this was not significant.

The level of employment of mothers for women administrators is
Table 12

Fathers' Level of Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Levels of Ed.</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th>Business</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some high school</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school grad.</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college or other</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College grad.</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Grad. or prof. degree</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Chi Square Value

1.216*

*not significant, $\chi^2$ at pL .05 (df=6) = 12.59

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Table 13
Mothers Employed of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mothers' Employment</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worked full time</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7.5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worked part time on and off</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8.5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not work while children were young - full time</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not work while children were young - part time</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Did not work at all</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>34</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother not at home</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $X^2$ at pL .05 (df=6) = 12.59
displayed in Table 14. It is apparent that the majority of mothers of both groups of administrators worked as housewives; 70 percent for women in education and 68 percent for business women. Of those who had mothers working the largest numbers were in professional and business/managerial. Women in education had 13 percent in professional and 6 percent in business/managerial, while women in business had 9.5 percent in each category. Skilled workers are reported for 6 percent of the mothers of women in education and 8.5 percent for those in business. Unskilled and semi-skilled have the smallest percentages with 3 percent unskilled and 1 percent semi-skilled for women in education and 1.5 percent in each category for women in business. The chi square value of 1.54 indicates this was not significant.

The statistics for the employment levels of the fathers of each group is presented in Table 15. Half of the fathers in each group worked at the business or managerial level; 54 percent of the fathers of the women in education and 50 percent of those in business. Professional levels were held by 23 percent of the fathers of the women in education and 10 percent of the fathers of women in business. At un-skilled, semi-skilled or skilled levels were 13 percent of those fathers of women in education and 18 percent of those of women in business. Farmers and service occupations held 11 percent for women in education and 23 percent for women in business. The chi square value of 8.37 shows a significant relationship of the fathers' level of employment to the daughters' administrative level.

Table 16 reports the responses of each group of women as to
Table 14
Level of Mothers' Employment of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Employment</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semi-skilled</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business/managerial</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Homemaker</td>
<td>50</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, \( X^2 \) at \( p = 0.05 \) (df=6) = 12.59

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Table 15

Level of Fathers' Employment of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Employment</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Farmer/service</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business/managerial</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*significant, $X^2$ at pL .05 (df=3) =7.82
which parent had the greater influence on them. A large percentage in either group said both had equally influenced them, 52 percent of the women in education and 37 percent in business. Influences from neither parent were reported by 11% of the women in education and by 19 percent of those in business. Mothers influenced 20 percent of the women in education and 18 percent of the women in business, and fathers influenced 14 percent of those in education and 26% of women in business. Two of the women in education chose not to answer this question. The chi square value of 7.24 indicates this is not significant.

Question 22, which asked the respondents to indicate the number of organizations to which they belonged was used to gather data for Table 17. It reports the mean number of feminist organizations belonged to by both groups of women. Women in education hold an average of 1.24 memberships in feminist organizations. A t-value of 1.16 indicates this was not significant at .05 level of significance.

Professional Characteristics

Table 18 presents a summary of the levels of positions held by the women administrators who responded to this study. The titles (complete list may be found in Appendix D) have been grouped into three levels; first, second and third level administrators. In education, those women who held titles of president and vice-president are considered first level, they represent 23.5 percent of the total group. Women in business at the first level are those women who hold titles of president, owner or editor. They represent 48 percent of
Table 16

Parental Influence of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parental Influence</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F  %</td>
<td>F  %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neither</td>
<td>8  11</td>
<td>12  19</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mother</td>
<td>14  20</td>
<td>11  18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Father</td>
<td>10  14</td>
<td>16  26</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Both, equally</td>
<td>37  52</td>
<td>23  37</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>2  3</td>
<td>0  0</td>
<td>7.24*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $x^2$ at pL .05 (df=4) = 9.49

Table 17

Number of Feminist Organizations Belonged to by Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>N</th>
<th>X</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>.35</td>
<td>6.41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>1.24</td>
<td>.74</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t = 1.161$, not significant at pL .05

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the total. Second level administrators in education, those who hold staff positions such as Dean of a college, Dean of students or Director and Associate Directors, represent 45.5 percent of the total. Second level administrators in business, those with titles of vice-president, partner or secretary treasurer, represent 34 percent of the total. Third level administrators in education, those who hold titles of academic deans, represent 31 percent of the group, while in business, third level administrators, director, managers represent 18 percent. It becomes apparent that the women in business in this sample held higher levels of position than did those in education. The chi square value of 8.61 is significant.

The size of the institution or organization employing these women administrators is presented in Table 19. It is apparent that women in business are employed by smaller organizations, under 999, than women in education, 84 percent as compared to 42 percent. Women in education who work at institutions employing 1,000 to 5,000 represent 30 percent of this sample, while women in business at the same size is at 6 percent. The large organization of 5,000 or over employs 28 percent of the women in education and 10 percent of the women in business. The chi square value of 29.58 displays a very significant relationship being present.

The salary distribution for each group of women is displayed in Table 20. The majority of women in education earn between $20,000 and $30,000, with 39 percent in the category of $20,000 to $29,999 and 31 percent in the category $30,000 to $40,000, while women in business are unevenly distributed. In the category of $20,000 to
Table 18

Level of Positions of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F %</td>
<td>F %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1st level</td>
<td>17 23.5</td>
<td>30 48</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd level</td>
<td>33 45.5</td>
<td>21 34</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd level</td>
<td>22 31</td>
<td>11 18</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>72 100</td>
<td>62 100</td>
<td>8.61*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*significant, $\chi^2$ at pL .05 (df=2) = 5.99

Table 19

Size of Institutions and Organizations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Size of Inst./Org.</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F %</td>
<td>F %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under 999</td>
<td>30 42</td>
<td>52 84</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1,000 to 5,000</td>
<td>21 30</td>
<td>4 6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5,000 or over</td>
<td>20 28</td>
<td>6 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71 100</td>
<td>62 100</td>
<td>29.58*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*significant, $\chi^2$ at pL .05 (df=2) = 5.99
$29,999 there are 31 percent reported and 8 percent in the category $30,000 to $40,000. Only 3 percent of the women in education earn under $15,000 but 13 percent of the women in business do. Earning between $15,000 to $19,999 is nearly equal in both groups, with 13 percent of the women in education and 15 percent to those in business. More women in business earn over $40,000, 27 percent, while over 10 percent of those in education earn in this category. Four educators and three women in business chose not to answer this question. The chi square value of 19.82 shows this is a significant relationship.

The levels of education reached by both groups is displayed in Table 21. It is apparent that the women in education hold a higher level of education, with 75 percent holding the doctoral degree and only 5 percent of the women in business with this degree. The largest group of women in business report having some college, 45 percent, while only 3 percent of the educators report this level. As a college graduate 21 percent of the women in business responded, and only 4 percent of those in education did so. Holding a master's or professional degree is reported by 18 percent of those in education and 29 percent of those in business. The large chi square value of 72.33 indicates this is clearly a significant relationship.

Table 22 depicts the number of women in both groups pursuing an advanced degree. The no response is reported by a large number in both groups, 94.5 of those in education, which is expected from the number holding doctoral degrees, and 95 percent by those in business. Only 4.5 percent of those in education and 5 percent of those in bus-
### Table 20

**Salary Distribution of Women Administrators**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Salary Range</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th>Business</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Under $15,000</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$15,000-$19,999</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$20,000-$29,999</td>
<td>28</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$30,000-$40,000</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over $40,000</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Blank</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*significant, $X^2$ at pL .05 (df=5) = 11.07
Table 21

Levels of Education of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level of Ed.</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Some college</td>
<td>2 3</td>
<td>28 45</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College grad.</td>
<td>3 4</td>
<td>13 21</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Masters/Prof.</td>
<td>13 18</td>
<td>18 29</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Doctoral</td>
<td>53 75</td>
<td>3 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71 100</td>
<td>62 100</td>
<td>72.33*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*significant, $X^2$ at pL .05 (df=3) = 7.81

Table 22

Number of Women Administrators Pursuing Advance Degrees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Pursuing Degree</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>3 4.5</td>
<td>3 5</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>67 95.5</td>
<td>59 95</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71 100</td>
<td>62 100</td>
<td>.90*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Not significant, $X^2$ at pL .05 (df=1) = 5.99
iness are pursuing degrees. The chi square value of only .90 indicates there is no significant relationship present.

Tables 23, 24, 25 and 26 present the responses to the numbers of women having had any leadership training. In response to the question respondents could check more than one choice, therefore, the percentages do not total 100. It is apparent very few women in either group has had a formal degree program of leadership, with only 10 percent of each group responding yes to this type. Of the women in education, 45% indicate they have had leadership training on the job, while an almost equal number, 48% of those in business so indicate. Many have had leadership training in seminars and workshops, 45 percent of those in education and 60 percent of those in business. However, an almost equal number indicate they have had no leadership training of any type. 70 percent of the educators and 69 percent of those in business. None of the relationships indicate any statistical significance.

In order to determine if either group demonstrates more mobility than the other, the average length of time spent on each job was determined and compared. Tables 27, 28 and 29 depict this information. The respondents were asked to relate information as to their past three positions. A significant relationship can be seen in Table 27. The women in education have spent an average of 7.31 years in their present job while women in business spent nearly double that amount, 14.79. The second most current job is not significant with 6.65 the average number of years spent by women in education and 4.76 years by those in business. Table 29 shows the third most current position
Table 23  
Leadership on Job

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership on Job</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $X^2$ at pL (df=1) = 3.84

Table 24  
Leadership Seminar/Workshop

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership Seminar/Workshop</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>39</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $X^2$ at pL (df=1) = 3.84
Table 25
Leadership Training by Formal Degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Leadership by</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
<th>Chi Square Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Formal Degree</td>
<td>F %</td>
<td>F %</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>10 14</td>
<td>6 10</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>61 86</td>
<td>56 90</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>TOTAL</td>
<td>71 100</td>
<td>62 100</td>
<td>1.61*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*not significant, $\chi^2$ at $pL .05$ (df=1) = 3.84

Table 26
Women Administrators Having Had No Leadership Training

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Education</th>
<th>Business</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>No Training</td>
<td>50 70</td>
<td>43 69</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 27
Number of Years Spent in Present Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years in Position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\bar{X}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>7.31</td>
<td>15.07</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>14.79</td>
<td>6.98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t = 3.7$, significant at $p < .05$

Table 28
Number of Years Spent in Second Most Current Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years in Position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\bar{X}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>4.96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>4.76</td>
<td>6.25</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t = -1.9$, not significant at $p < .05$

Table 29
Number of Years Spent in Third Most Current Position

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Years in Position</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\bar{X}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>5.81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>3.50</td>
<td>5.20</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t = -1.97$, not significant at $p < .05$
has been held for 5.39 years by women in education and 3.50 years by those in business.

In response to the question as to the effect Title VII has had the respondents were asked if they believed their last position was secured due to the recent legislation. The response to this was no, by every woman except one.

The publishing records of the women administrators were determined by comparing the average number types of publications for each group. This information is presented in Tables 30, 31, 32 and 33. Women in education have published an average of 9.59 articles within their field while women in business have published an average of 11.77. The women in education have presented twice as many publications at professional meetings, with an average of 13.9 as opposed to 6.8 for women in business. This is the only type of publication record that depicts a significant relationship. Neither group has published many books, educators reporting .89 and women in business, .45. Women in education report having published an average of 4.35 publications not related to their profession while women in business report 3.23 for this category.

Tables 34 and 35 report the average number of organizations to which women administrators belong. The average number of memberships in professional organizations held by women in education is 5.39 with an almost equal number held by women in business, 5.16, therefore, there is no significant relationship. There is also no significant relationship with the numbers of civic organizations belonged to; women in education hold an average of 3.09 and women in business hold

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Table 30
Number of Articles Published in Respective Fields of Women Administrators

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Articles</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\bar{X}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>9.59</td>
<td>12.33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>11.77</td>
<td>26.11</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t = .63$, not significant at $p < .05$

Table 31
Number of Papers Presented at Professional Meetings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Papers</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\bar{X}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>13.9</td>
<td>17.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>6.8</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t = -2.15$, significant at $p < .05$

Table 32
Number of Books Published

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Books</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>$\bar{X}$</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>.89</td>
<td>1.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>.45</td>
<td>1.86</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$t = -1.5$, not significant at $p < .05$
an average of 4.37.

Job Opinions

Question 23 of the Biographical Questionnaire asked respondents to check what they perceived as their top three problems experienced as a woman administrator. Tables 36 and 37 present the results of this question. The two highest rankings are the same for both groups, number one being the problem of equal salary for equal work and number two being able to maintain a private life. Being the only female at this level ranked high by both groups as did the feeling of being alone. Having sufficient energy for both roles was ranked 4th by educators and 7th by those in business. Advancement opportunities was more of a problem to women in business, 5th, than to educators who ranked it 7th. Being perceived as a woman first and an administrator second was ranked 6th by education women and 9th by women in business. Being accepted as an equal appears more of a problem for women in business, who rank it third, than for those in education, who rank it 8th. Providing leadership directions to male subordinates is ranked by educators 9th while women in business rank it 11th. Being a woman (your sex) was ranked 10th by women in business but only 14th by women in education. Tasks assigned have limited responsibility was ranked last by educators and 12th by women in business. Women in business rank not being taken seriously as an administrator last while women in education rank it 10th. Acceptance into informal clubs has been more of a problem to women in education (7th) than to women in business (13th). Setting priorities as administra-
Table 33

Number of Publications Not Related to Profession

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Publications</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>4.35</td>
<td>14.47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>3.23</td>
<td>13.17</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( t = .47 \), not significant at \( p \leq .05 \)

Table 34

Number of Professional Organizational Memberships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Organizations</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>5.39</td>
<td>5.15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>5.16</td>
<td>9.42</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( t = .18 \), not significant at \( p \leq .05 \)

Table 35

Number of Civic Organizational Memberships

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Number of Organizations</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>( \bar{X} )</th>
<th>SD</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Education</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>3.09</td>
<td>5.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>62</td>
<td>4.37</td>
<td>4.32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

\( t = 1.44 \), not significant at \( p \leq .05 \)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Item Number</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Equal salary for equal work</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Maintaining private life</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Feeling of being alone</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sufficient energy for dual roles</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being only female at this level</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perceived as woman first, administrator second</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Advancement opportunities</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Accepted as equal</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Providing leadership direction to male subordinates</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not being taken seriously as administrator</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Acceptance into informal clubs</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lacked experience and background for position</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Setting priorities as administrator, wife and mother</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Your sex</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tasks assigned have limited responsibility</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rank</td>
<td>Item</td>
<td>Number</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Equal salary for equal work</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Maintaining private life</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Accepted as an equal by male co-workers</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Being the only female at this level</td>
<td>12</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Advancement opportunities</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Feeling of being alone</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Sufficient energy for dual roles</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Setting priorities as administrator, wife and mother</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>Perceived as woman first, administrator second</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Your sex</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Providing leadership direction to male subordinates</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Tasks assigned have limited responsibility</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Lacked experience and background for position</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Acceptance into informal clubs</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Not being taken seriously as administrator</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
tor vs. wife and mother was more of a problem to women in business, who were more often married and rank it 8th, while for women in education, who were mostly single it was ranked 13th. Both groups ranked lacked experience and background for the position about the same, 12th by educators, and 13th by women in business.

Tables 38 and 39 display the results of the rankings of the most influential factors for individuals being in their present position. These are much more similar than the problems faced by each group. The top three factors are the same for both groups in slightly different order, demonstrated leadership ability as first for educators and second for business. Demonstrated professional expertise is first for business and second for educators, while both groups rank experience as third. The next three factors are also closely ranked by both groups, being in the right place at the right time is fifth for educators and fourth for business. Worked up through the organization is sixth for educators and fifth for business. Having their degree is fourth for educators while sixth for business. Being a woman and knowing someone in the organization is seventh and eighth for both groups in tied order. No one considered herself to be the only candidate available.

Both of these opinion questions had an option for others, those can be found in Appendix E.

Respondents were also asked their opinion about their perception of role conflict they have experienced. Over half, 56 percent, of the women in education and 61 percent of those in business indicated a straightforward no. Those that elaborated gave responses around
Table 38
Influential Factors for Placement in Current Position of Women in Education

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated leadership ability</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated professional expertise</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being in the right place at the right time</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worked up through the organization</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being a woman</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowing someone of influence in the organization</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No other candidate available</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 39
Influential Factors for Placement in Current Position of Women in Business

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Factor</th>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>f</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated professional expertise</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Demonstrated leadership ability</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Experience</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being in the right place at the right time</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Worked up through the organization</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Degree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowing someone of influence in the organization</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being a woman</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No other candidate available</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
three general trends: one, not now that my children are grown; two, conflict in time demands and setting priorities, and three, lack of energy to fulfill all roles. One woman in business stated travel was difficult on her children. Several women responded that it could be a problem but it is a matter of setting priorities. A complete list of responses can be viewed in Appendix E.

In response to the question of what was believed to be the greatest advantage of being a female in an administrative position, a few women answered none, 11 percent of educators and 16 percent of those in business, but those who elaborated made remarks around several themes. A complete list of responses can be found in Appendix E, but several of those themes will be reported here: the ability to express the woman's opinion, which is not always the same as the male; being able to be a role model for other women; provides an opportunity to correct societal conditions and attitudes; and provide a dimension of compassion and organizing skill. Many women felt the advantage was not in being female but in being an administrator, expressed in such views as; a feeling of satisfaction, appreciation of my work, being efficient, and helping people.

Several women took time to make additional comments, which can be seen in Appendix D, but basically they focused on extensions of the question as to the advantage of being a female.

Leadership Opinion Questionnaire Data

The results of response to the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire are present in Table 40. The results are highly significant on both
Table 40
Leadership Opinion Questionnaire

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Dimension</th>
<th>Education</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th>Business</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>SD</td>
<td>N</td>
<td>X</td>
<td>SD</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consideration</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>60.13</td>
<td>5.85</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>56.77</td>
<td>6.90*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Structure</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>42.85</td>
<td>5.78</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>48.2</td>
<td>7.86*</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*1 t value 3.007, significant at pL .05
*2 t value 4.45, significant at pL .05
dimensions of the L.O.Q. The women in education score 60.13 on Consideration while women in business score 56.77 on this variable. On the dimension of Structure the significance is in the other direction. The women in business score 48.2 while women in education score 42.85.
CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

It is the purpose of Chapter V to summarize the study, draw conclusions, and make recommendations.

Summary

It was the purpose of this study to discover and report similarities and differences in personal characteristics and leadership styles of women in educational administration and women in business administration. To accomplish this, four steps were taken. First, a sample of 150 women in educational administration were selected from the current edition of Who's Who in America, and a sample of 150 women in business were selected from the current edition of Who's Who in Trade and Industry. Second, pertinent biographical data and leadership style data were gathered from this sample through a mail questionnaire. Third, a literature search was made in the areas of leadership behaviors and women in education and business in order to trace the major trends in these areas. Fourth, the data gathered were analyzed to determine if there were similarities and differences between these two groups of women.

Many sources were examined to produce a comprehensive summary of leadership behavior studies. These sources indicate that leadership theories have evolved from simple explanations of observable behaviors to complicated, detailed analyses of complex relationships. Early
research, stressing the traits theory, delineated specific traits that could be found in leaders that would distinguish the leader from other individuals. This made selection of leaders a relatively simple matter. However, when the effectiveness of leaders was not consistent and research could not adequately support the trait theory, theorists introduced the situational approach.

The situational approach concluded that the leader's effectiveness depended on the abilities, aptitudes and background of the leader as well as on those factors operating in the situation. Such factors, as the abilities, aptitudes, backgrounds and goals of the group members, then could determine if a leader was to be successful. This approach made the selection of leaders more difficult than the traits approach had been. It implied that a correct assessment of the situation had to be made before the proper person could be identified to be its leader. This brought researchers back to the study of how leaders operate in a situation.

The leader's behavior was then spoken in terms of a style of interaction with group members. Researchers began to speak in terms of a leader being oriented toward the accomplishment of tasks or the stressing of human relationships. Several studies were cited that focused on these two dimensions (Hemphill, 1966; Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1957; Halpin, 1959; Blake and Mouton, 1964 and Reddin, 1972).

A review of the literature revealed few references, other than doctoral dissertations, concerning the emergence of women in educational leadership positions. The review of the literature traced a brief history of the place of women in education, the present trend...
of young women in undergraduate and graduate programs, and the bar-
riers and problems facing women in administrative programs. Several
studies were cited to give substance to these barriers (Feldman, 1974;
Ekstrom, 1972; Taylor, 1972; Matheny, 1973; LaPama, 1972; and Steven-
son, 1973). Suggestions were made by several authors for change to
alleviate present attitudes (Fecher, 1972; Fley, 1972; Carroll, 1972;

The background on women in business was introduced with the pre-
sent situation of women in the labor force. Studies done by Schwartz,
1972; Lyle and Ross, 1973; and Johnston, 1974 were used to substantiate
and expand figures presented by the U.S. Women's Bureau, indicating
the lack of women in administrative positions. Several studies were
reviewed that explained causes for these small numbers and the reasons
behind them (Cussler, 1958; Rosen and Thomas, 1974; Lynch, 1973; Doll,
1965; and Lyle and Ross, 1973). Alternative solutions were provided
by Schwartz (1974) and Martin (1974) that focus on restructuring pre-
sent work situations. Nord and Costigan (1973) and Coston (1973) both
relate positive attitudes from experiments with a four-day work week,
which is seen as a possible solution.

Data were gathered for this study using a standardized instrument,
the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, developed by Fleischman out of
the Ohio State Leadership Studies, and a Biographical Questionnaire
designed by the investigator. These two instruments were used to
gather data to answer thirteen research questions. Discussion of the
comparative findings has been organized around these thirteen ques-
tions. These questions can only be answered in terms of the women who
participated in this study. However, the results may provide information about leadership styles and personal characteristics of women in the general population in these two areas.

1. Do women in educational administration have a leadership style different than women in business administration?

   a. In tabulating the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire how did each group of women score on the dimension of consideration?

   b. In tabulating the L.O.Q. how did each group of women score on the dimension of structure?

   The L.O.Q. data indicate there is a significant difference in leadership styles. On the dimension of Consideration, which emphasizes the human relations aspect, women in education scored significantly higher than women in business. The mean scores of 60.13 for women in education and 56.77 for women in business indicate that women in education place more emphasis on human relations aspects of their positions than do women in business.

   On the dimension of Structure, however, the reverse is true, women in business scored significantly higher than women in education. The mean scores of 48.20 for women in business and 42.85 for women in education indicate that women in business are more task-oriented than women in education.

   Schlack (1974), in a study comparing upper management and middle management student personnel administrators, found when using the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, mean scores of 59.70 and 59.93 respectively on the dimension of Consideration. The women educational administrators in this study, some of whom were in student personnel positions, scored slightly higher reaching 60.13. On the dimension of
Structure, Schlack (1974) found scores of 43.17 for upper-management and 44.50 for middle-management personnel. The women in this study scored slightly lower, 42.85, than either of the student personnel categories.

Hennig (1970) found in her study that executive women reported a change in their leadership style at about age 40. They reported a change from a closed, task-oriented style to one that was a more open, friendly, human-relations oriented. The business women in this study do not appear to have made that transition. This is not conclusive, however, since there is no data to indicate what their style was at an earlier age.

2. Are these leadership styles consistent with groups predominately of males who have been tested with the L.O.Q.?

Fleischman (1969) does not publish mean scores specifically for educational administrators. He does, however, publish means for Hospital Administrators who would appear to be closely aligned with educational supervisors, in that they deal with a service as opposed to a product. The mean given for this group are, 56.0 for Consideration and 43.0 for Structure. In comparing the two scores for educators in this study, 50.13 for Consideration and 42.85 for Structure, it is apparent that they compare favorably. Scores for women are much higher on the dimension of Consideration but slightly lower on Structure.

Fleishman (1969) presents a category of Educational Supervisors in the Norms Table (p. 13). A score of 60.13 for Consideration is in a low-average range, while a 42.85 is in a middle-average range.

From this data it can be concluded that women educational adminis-
trators are consistent with similar groups of predominately males.

With regard to women in business, Fleishman (1969) presents scores, as well as norms, for executives. The mean given of 55.3 for Consideration indicates that the women in this study, in business, score slightly higher with a mean of 56.77. For the dimension of Structure, the women in business in this study scored 48.2 while the mean given by Fleishman is 50.6, indicating the women score lower on Structure. In reference to the Norms Table, the women in business in this study fall in the range of high-average for Consideration and low-average for Structure.

It can be concluded that women in business are consistent with similar groups of predominately males on the dimension of Consideration, and not consistent, in that they are lower, on the dimension of Structure.

3. Has either group of women had more education or leadership training?

The data indicate a significant difference in the level of education of these two groups of women. Of the women in education, 75% held the doctorate degree with only 5% doing so in business. The largest number, 45% of women in business indicated some college while 21 percent were college graduates and 29 percent held the masters or professional degree. Only 18 percent of those in education held a masters degree and only 3 percent indicated they had had some college.

Stevenson (1972) found the largest percentage, 79 percent, of the women administrators in Big Ten Universities also held the doctorate.
Schlack (1974), however, found that women in general in student personnel, at both the upper and middle-management level, held the masters' degree.

Neither group was pursuing advanced degrees in any great number; 94.5 percent of the educators and 95 percent of the women in business indicated they were not while only 4.5 percent and 5 percent, respectively, indicated they were.

There were no significant relationships shown by the data with regard to leadership training. In response to whether or not they had had leadership training on the job, 45 percent of the educators and 48 percent of those in business responded affirmatively. A slightly higher percent, 60 percent of those women in business, replied that they had leadership training in a seminar or workshop, compared to 45 percent for those in education. Only 14 percent of those in education and 10 percent of those in business indicated having had a formal degree training in leadership. As to having had no training in leadership the response was nearly equal, 70 percent for educators and 69 percent for business. Several women in both groups indicated they had more than one type of training, consequently the numbers do not total 100 percent.

In conclusion, the women in business indicate a slightly higher percentage of seminar or workshop training, while women in education indicate a slightly higher percentage having had formal degree programs.

4. Do both groups of women exhibit the same variables in their family backgrounds?
To answer this question data will be examined relative to the employment and educational levels of the parents and the number of siblings for each group. Other aspects of family background will be discussed later.

Responses from both groups of women indicate that many mothers did not work at all, 66 percent of those in education and 55 percent of those in business. An equal number, 10 percent, indicated their mothers did not work while the children were young and then worked part-time, while 6 percent of those in education and 11 percent of those in business had mothers who did not work while the children were young and then worked full-time. Women in education indicate that 7.5 percent had mothers who worked full-time as did 10 percent of those in business. Mothers who worked part-time, on and off, were reported by 8.5 percent of those women in education and 8 percent of those in business.

The level at which mothers worked also did not display any significant difference. The largest percentage in either group of those whose mothers worked were educators who indicate 13 percent at the professional level; this compared to 9.5 percent for women in business. Women in business had a slightly higher number of mothers (9.5%) at the business/managerial level than educators, who report 6 percent. At the skilled level, 6 percent are reported by the women in education and 8.5 percent by women in business. Semi-skilled and unskilled have small numbers reported; a total of 4 percent for women in education and 3 percent for women in business.
The data for fathers' level of employment indicates there is a significant difference between the two groups. Women in education have a greater percent, 76 percent, of fathers employed at the professional or business/managerial level than women in business, who indicate a 60 percent total. Women in business have a larger percentage at the farm and service level, 23 percent compared to 11 percent for those in education. Women in business also have a larger percentage, 18 percent, at the unskilled, semi-skilled and skilled level than do women in education who indicate only 13 percent at this level.

Schlack (1974) also found that most of the fathers of the student personnel women were employed at the professional or business/managerial levels.

The data for the mothers' level of education indicates there is no significant difference between the two group of women. Both groups indicate a small number of their mothers had graduate or professional degrees, 6 percent of the mothers of educators and 8 percent of those in business. As college graduates, women in education report 15.5 percent and women in business report 15 percent. Some college or other school was reported by 24 percent of those in education and 23 percent of those in business. As high school graduates, women in education report 21 percent for their mothers while 32 percent of those in business. A grammar school education was reported by 17 percent of the educators and 13 percent of the women in business.

Neither group of siblings, brothers or sisters, show any significant differences. Both groups appear to have nearly the same family size. Only 10 percent of both groups indicate they had more than four
brothers and only 3 percent of the educators and 5 percent of the women in business report more than four sisters. The largest numbers, between 30 and 40 percent, for either group appear for one brother and one sister.

In conclusion, there appears to be little difference in the family background of these two groups of women, with the exception of fathers' employment level.

5. Are there patterns of variables consistent with other studies?
   a. birth order
   b. parental career influence

Several studies that focus on leaders ascertain that the only or eldest child learn to be leaders. In this study it was found that 61 percent of the women in education and 66 percent of those in business were only, oldest or oldest female in their family. Hennig (1970) found this to be true for all 25 executives she interviewed. Schlack (1974) also found that among the women student personnel administrators in her study, 75 percent were the oldest female child.

The women in this study did not report either parent to have had a greater influence on them. Both groups reported large percentages for both parents equally having influenced them, 52 percent for women educators and 37 percent for business women. Those that did choose, show fathers influenced 14 percent of the women in education and 26 percent of the women in business, and mothers influenced 20 percent and 18 percent respectively.

Hennig (1970) found the women executives had had greater father influence, while Schlack (1974) found the reverse, student personnel
women had been generally influenced by mothers.

From this data it may be concluded that the women in this study are consistent with other studies with respect to birth order but show no definite trend toward parental influence.

6. Is one group of women more mobile than the other?

Both groups have been at their present job for a relatively long period of time, but women in business have been at this job twice as long as women in education, the average number of years being 7 for women educators and approximately 15 for business women. In the two previous jobs there is little difference, women educators were on the job approximately 7 years and businesswomen 5 years. The third job reported also was not much different, 5 years for women educators and approximately four years for businesswomen.

In conclusion, with respect to the position currently being held, women educators appear to be more mobile than businesswomen.

7. How do the two groups of women compare as to marital and family status?

These two groups of women exhibit basic differences in terms of marital status and the size of their families. Approximately three-fourths of the women in education reported being single, whereas only one-fourth of those in business are. Of those educators who were married, most of them were in their first marriage. Of the women in business one-third are in their first marriage, about 20 percent in a second marriage and 15 percent have been widowed. The number of separations or divorces is less than 10 percent for both groups. Schlack (1974) found the same to be true for women in student personnel, two-
thirds were unmarried. Gardner (1966) concluded that of the women administrators in Illinois, single women attained administrative positions easier than did married women.

In both groups those who are married have been married for a relatively long period of time. Women in business, however, have been married significantly longer, 85 percent of these women have been married 10 years or more as compared to 56 percent of those in education.

There is little difference in the number of children each group have. Many report no children, 27 percent of the educators and 13 percent of the business women. Approximately one-half of each group have one or two children and about one-third have 3 or more.

The basic difference, then, in these two groups is their marital status; women in educational administration are more often single than women in business.

General population statistics reported in the 1974 Statistical Abstract show that women in the age group of 45-54 indicate 4.7 percent being single while 86.1 percent are married. In the 55-65 age group 5.4 percent are single while 69 percent are married. This indicates that the women in business are generally consistent with the general population but the women in education are not.

8. Do these women perceive any role conflict?

Even though most of the women in business were married and had children the responses to perceiving role conflict were mostly negative. The comments made were with respect to conflicts in managing time and setting priorities. The women educators responded likewise.
The conclusion based on the data provided by the businesswomen and a small percentage of the women educators in this study, it is possible to have a career, a marriage and a family and be successful at all three, but it does take skill in being able to manage one's time.

Based on the data provided in this study and similar data from the studies done by Schlack (1974) and Gardner (1966) it appears that women in educational administration have chosen not to combine marriage, family with a career. This has perhaps been the case since education, being a woman's field has not provided ample opportunity for mate selection. Consequently those women in education who have not married early in their career have had the time and energy to continue their education to become eligible for administrative positions. Another possible explanation of this phenomena is that those needs that are fulfilled through marriage and a family are also fulfilled through working with young people as students in education, therefore women educators have not felt the need to be married. It must also be remembered that when women began to teach they were required to remain single or they lost their position, so it has been traditional that women in education were single.

9. Do any of the following variables affect the results of the responses of either group:

   age
   salary
   size of institution or organization
   publications
feminist affiliation

A. Age - the women in both groups were evenly distributed. Approximately 90 percent of both groups were 45 or over. Stevenson (1971) found the women in her study were also in this age group. Schlack (1973) found the average age of the student personnel women to be 40.

B. Salary - the women in education in this study were receiving approximately one thousand dollars more, on the average, than women in business, $23,300 compared to $22,400. This did indicate a significant difference. This is to be expected in terms of the level of education reached by the educators. However, more women in business were earning over forty thousand dollars.

C. Size of institution or organization - there was a significant different in the employing agent. Approximately four-fifths of the women in business work for firms under a thousand employees. The women in education had about one-third of its group in each category.

This may be an indication that women in business have more of an opportunity to reach administrative positions with a small firm, while in education the size of the institution is not a determining factor.

D. Publications - the only type of publication that reached a significant difference is papers presented at professional meetings. Women in education have published twice as many as those in business. However, the other types of publica-
tions are nearly the same. Both groups have published books, articles in their field and articles outside their field.

E. Feminist affiliation - neither group reported being very active in feminist organizations. With respect to the average age of both groups of women, this is to be expected.

10. Has Title VII of the Civil Rights Act had an impact on promotions and job placement?

Only one women in either group indicated that her current job had been secured due to recent legislation. Since most of the women in business have been in their present position almost fifteen years this is not surprising. Even though women in education have been at their present job for approximately seven years, they also were too early for legislative impact.

This topic needs to be assessed with a group of younger women who have secured their current positions within the last three or four years.

11. How do these women perceive the problems for women in administrative positions?

The largest number in both groups see the problem of equal salary for equal work as the greatest problem. Maintaining a private life was also expressed by many as a problem. The feeling of being alone and being the only female at that level were reported as problems by many in both groups. Advancement opportunities and being accepted as an equal by male co-workers was also a problem to a few.

Many women in education responded that being in a typical woman's field they experienced no problems.

Lynch (1973) found that the skill most difficult to develop was

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that of delegation of authority, which in this study was only a problem to less than ten percent of either group.

12. What factors have been most influential to these women in obtaining their current position of leadership?

The most influential factors, reported by both groups are the following:

Demonstrated professional expertise
Demonstrated leadership ability
Experience
Being in the right place at the right time
Worked up through the organization
Degree, for those in education

13. What do these women believe to be the greatest advantage of being a female in an administrative position?

Several women in both groups felt there were no advantages, but those that did felt that basically it was serving as a role model for other women, helping other women, and helping people. Many felt that the advantages were not particular to women but in being an administrator.

As a result of further statistical analysis, the data from the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire suggested that there were differences between women in educational administration and women in business administration. Ten of these observations reached statistical significance:

1. More single women were found in the group of women in education.

2. Of those women who were married, women in business tended to be married for a longer period of time.
3. More women in education had fathers who were employed at the professional level.

4. Women in business were employed by smaller organizations than women in education.

5. Women in education were receiving a higher average salary.

6. Women in education had achieved higher academic degrees.

7. Women in business had been at their present position for a longer period of time.

8. Women in education had published more papers for professional meetings.


10. Women in business scored higher on the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire on the dimension of Structure.

To summarize these differences, the women in education are single, they more often have fathers at the professional level, they generally work for a large university, earn a higher salary than those women in business, present more published papers at professional meetings and score higher on Consideration in their leadership style. These definitely emphasize the aspect that women in education are career-oriented.

Women in business, however, are married, have been for a relatively longer period, are employed by a small firm, have been with this firm for a long time and score higher than education women on Structure in their leadership style. These emphasis an element of stability in both career and family.

These significant findings, together with those previously mentioned should indicate that the myth of "woman's place is in the home" is purely that, myth. It also indicates that women are capable of holding top-level positions. It assumes that they are being effective...
or they, most likely, would not have remained in their positions for such a long period of time. These findings, and others, should be a clear indication that if discrimination towards women as administrators is taking place, it is not valid.

The findings indicate that both groups of women could profit from leadership training to balance their leadership styles. This has implications for those who aspire to leadership positions in the future; this aspect can be planned for in advance.

It should be noted that these findings, even though they may be significant, should not be used as a criteria to select women for administrative positions. More women need to be in administrative positions and further research needs to be conducted before selection criteria can be specified.

Concluding Remarks

The focus of this study was to determine if there were similarities or differences in two groups of women administrators, those in education and those in business.

It appears that three basic differences stand out. First, the leadership styles of these groups are very different. Women in education have an emphasis on the human relations aspect while women in business are oriented toward task relations. This is to be expected since each group has a different emphasis in their work. Women in education deal more with people as a service while those in business are more concerned with production and profit and loss. The implications of this are that each group could benefit by some training in
the area in which they are low. Women educators may benefit by additional training to give greater stress to task orientation. There certainly are tasks that need to be accomplished in any administrative position. Additional training may improve effectiveness in this area and give a better balance to their overall style. Women in business definitely need to deal with people to accomplish their goals of production; training that would increase effectiveness in the area of improved human relations may also tend to increase production. It would also lead to a more balanced style for the women in business.

Second, the difference in marital status is astounding. Both groups of women started their careers long before it was fashionable for women to work, however, more women in business had a career and a family. Neither group claim to have had a serious problem with role conflict as is often reported in the feminist literature.

Third, the educational level has been of much greater importance to be able to reach an administrative level in education than it is in business. It results in more money, however, for those in education.

Consequently, it appears, based on data in this study, that it has been easier to reach an administrative level in business than it has been in education.

Suggestions for Further Study

The procedures and results obtained in this study were felt to be adequate for a preliminary study. However, several improvements would be advisable for any subsequent study. The use of the Leader-
ship Opinion Questionnaire is not advised. Many women expressed frustration and dissatisfaction with its questions. Many felt it was old-fashioned. Some women felt the author manipulated their responses by selection of choices. The Biographical Questionnaire could have elicited more specific information related to career orientation. The use of Who's Who as a source is not advisable. It was found that positions and addresses were not current.

Therefore, several suggestions for further study can be recommended. Among these are:

1. An assessment of leadership styles needs to be correlated with an assessment of effectiveness. Further study is needed to determine if people, female and male, who hold administrative positions are successful and why. This could be done by a survey of superiors, either in an interview or with the use of an assessment tool.

2. Similar research needs to be carried out with younger women, to determine if the differences that exist in this study both personal and professional are consistent. This could be facilitated by using another source from which to draw the sample.

3. Research is needed to determine the number of women who are interested in becoming administrators but who don't make it. The reasons why they didn't make it need to be explored. This could be facilitated by surveying women graduates in several areas to find if their interests have been thwarted.
4. Educational practices and policies at the elementary and secondary level need to be researched to determine where and if women are instilled with a "fear of success", also, where by omission, women are not encouraged to aspire to high-level positions.

5. Further research is needed to compare women in educational leadership with women in other leadership positions to determine if the results are consistent with those in this study.
REFERENCES


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Crowley, J.E., Levitin, T. and Quinn, R. Seven Deadly Half Truths About Women. Psychology Today, VI (March 1973), 96.


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Martin, V.H. Recruiting Women Managers through Flexible Hours. SAM Advanced Management Journal, XXXIX, No. 3 (July 1974), 46-53.


Today's Education. The Journal of the National Education Association (September-October 1973), 95-96.


TABLE 1
Estimated Number and Percent Distribution of Full-time Public School Employees, 1972-73, by Sex

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Number of Persons</th>
<th>Percentage Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>Men</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>INSTRUCTIONAL STAFF</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers</td>
<td>2,110,368</td>
<td>709,084</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Principals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary (including teaching principals)</td>
<td>48,196</td>
<td>38,750</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High</td>
<td>9,374</td>
<td>9,102</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior High</td>
<td>15,827</td>
<td>15,605</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total principals</td>
<td>73,397</td>
<td>63,457</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant principals</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Elementary</td>
<td>6,483</td>
<td>4,486</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Junior High</td>
<td>7,817</td>
<td>7,223</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior High</td>
<td>13,289</td>
<td>12,439</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total assistant principals</td>
<td>27,589</td>
<td>24,148</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other instructional staff</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School librarians</td>
<td>40,540</td>
<td>3,324</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Counselors</td>
<td>49,770</td>
<td>26,378</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>School nurses</td>
<td>17,074</td>
<td>239</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other (a)</td>
<td>33,691</td>
<td>16,812</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total other instructional staff</td>
<td>141,075</td>
<td>46,753</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total instructional staff</td>
<td>2,352,429</td>
<td>843,442</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(CONTINUED ON NEXT PAGE)
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>Number of Persons</th>
<th>Percentage Distribution</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Men</td>
<td>Women</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Central-Office Administrators</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Superintendents</td>
<td>13,037</td>
<td>12,972</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy and associate superintendents</td>
<td>853</td>
<td>800</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant superintendents</td>
<td>5,337</td>
<td>5,054</td>
<td>283</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other central-office administrators (b)</td>
<td>48,488</td>
<td>31,614</td>
<td>16,874</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total central-office administrators</td>
<td>67,715</td>
<td>50,440</td>
<td>17,275</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total Full-Time Professional Employees</td>
<td>2,420,144</td>
<td>893,882</td>
<td>1,526,262</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) includes heads of departments, social workers, visiting teachers, psychologists, and psychometrists

(b) includes central office administrators for General Administration, Finance and School Plant, Pupil Personnel Services, Instruction - Administration, and Special areas.
BIOGRAPHICAL QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Name

2. Title

3. What is your age?
   ( ) 30 or under ( ) 30-44 ( ) 45-54 ( ) over 54

4. What is your marital status?
   ( ) Single ( ) Married, first time ( ) Remarried
   ( ) Separated, Divorced ( ) Widowed

   If married, how long? ( ) Less than four years
   ( ) For 5-10 years ( ) More than 10 years

5. How many children do you have?
   ( ) None ( ) One ( ) Two ( ) Three or four
   ( ) Five or more

6. What level of education have you completed?
   ( ) High School ( ) Some college ( ) College graduate
   ( ) Master's or professional degree ( ) Doctoral degree

7. Are you now working on an advanced degree? ( ) Yes ( ) No

8. Have you had any type of leadership training? ( ) Yes, on
   the job ( ) Yes, Seminar, workshop, etc. ( ) Yes, formal
   degree program ( ) No

9. What is your salary range? ( ) Under $15,000
   ( ) $15,000 to $19,999 ( ) $20,000 to $29,999
   ( ) $30,000 to $40,000 ( ) Over $40,000

10. What is the size of the institution or organization in which
    you are employed, in terms of employees?
    ( ) Under 250 ( ) 250 to 999 ( ) 1,000 to 2,499
    ( ) 2,500 to 4,999 ( ) 5,000 or over

11. Did your father work while you were growing up?
    ( ) Worked full time throughout my childhood
    ( ) Worked part time, or full time on and off throughout
        my childhood
    ( ) Did not work at all
    ( ) Father not at home, deceased, separated

12. Your father's principal occupation while you were growing up.
    ( ) Unskilled ( ) Semi-skilled ( ) Skilled
    ( ) Farmer ( ) Service occupations; police, fire, etc.
    ( ) Business or managerial

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13. Did your mother work when you were growing up?
( ) Worked full time throughout my childhood
( ) Worked part time, full time on and off, through my childhood
( ) Did not work while her children were very young, then worked full time
( ) Did not work while her children were very young, then worked part time
( ) Did not work at all
( ) Mother not at home, deceased, separated

14. Your mother's principal occupation while you were growing up.
( ) Unskilled ( ) Semi-skilled ( ) Skilled
( ) Professional ( ) Business or managerial
( ) Homemaker

15. What is the highest level of education obtained by your parents or guardians? (Circle one for each parent or guardian.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Level</th>
<th>Father</th>
<th>Mother</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Grammar</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some high school</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High school graduate</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Some college or other school</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>College graduate</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Graduate degree or professional</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. Which parent do you believe had the greatest influence on your career aspirations?
( ) Neither ( ) Mother ( ) Father ( ) Both, equally

17. Which child are you?
( ) Only ( ) Youngest ( ) Oldest ( ) Middle child

18. How many brothers and sisters did you have while growing up? (Circle one for each group.)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Group</th>
<th>Brothers</th>
<th>Sisters</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 or more</td>
<td>4 or more</td>
<td>4 or more</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

19. List, in chronological order, beginning with the present, the last three professional, full time positions you have held:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>Type of Organization</th>
<th>Dates Held</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

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20. Do you have reason to believe your last promotion or job was secured due to compliance with recent legislation on women's rights? 
( ) Yes ( ) No

21. Have you published? (If so, enter the number)

Number of articles within your field ____
Number of papers presented in professional meetings, other than above ____
Number of books ____
Number of publications not related to your profession ____

22. Indicate the number of any of the following organizations in which you currently hold membership.

____ Professional organizations
____ Feminist organizations
____ Civic, church or other organizations

23. What have you experienced to be your most significant problems as a woman administrator? (Check the top three.)

( ) Your sex
( ) Advancement opportunities
( ) Maintaining a private life
( ) Accepted as an equal by male co-workers
( ) Tasks assigned have restricted scope of responsibility
( ) Equal salary for equal work
( ) Feeling of being alone
( ) Being the only female at this level
( ) Sufficient energy for family and professional roles
( ) Providing leadership directions to male subordinates
( ) Lacked essential experience and background for position
( ) Setting priorities as administrator vs. wife and mother
( ) Acceptance into the informal clubs, meetings, luncheons, etc.
( ) Not being taken seriously as an administrator
( ) Perceived as a woman first and an administrator second
( ) Other, please specify: ________________________

24. In your judgment, what do you consider to be the most influential factors that caused you to be in your current position of leadership? (Check the top three.)

( ) Degree
( ) Experience
( ) Demonstrated professional expertise
( ) Demonstrated leadership ability
( ) Being a woman
( ) Being in the right place at the right time
( ) Knowing someone of influence in the organization
( ) Worked up through the organization
( ) No other candidate available
( ) Other, explain: ________________________________________

25. Would you like a copy of the abstract for this study?
( ) Yes ( ) No  If yes, indicate address where it is
to be sent: ______________________________________________

26. Do you perceive any conflict concerning your family role,
your role as a woman and your role as an administrator?
____________________________________________________________________________________

27. What do you perceive to be the greatest advantage of being
a female in an administrative position? _______________________
____________________________________________________________________________________

28. Any additional comments: ____________________________________________________________
____________________________________________________________________________________
APPENDIX B

INSTRUMENTATION
January 10, 1975

Dear Ms.,

I have selected your name as an educational administrator from the 1974 edition of Who's Who in America. As part of a research project under the supervision of the Department of Leadership at Western Michigan University, I am completing a study on the leadership styles and personal characteristics of women in educational administration and women in business administration.

I think you will agree, that there are very few women in top level positions in either education or business administration. There are even fewer in-depth studies that deal with the leadership styles or personal characteristics of these present leaders. I am attempting to add to these studies with this research. With your cooperation I believe this is possible.

There are two questionnaires to be completed: The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, which elicits your opinion. With this instrument I hope to establish a pattern of responses of successful women administrators and determine if they are comparable to published male norms. The second instrument is a basic biographical questionnaire. This will be used to gather basic data and provide information to substantiate or refute many of the myths of "woman's place". I believe both instruments should take a minimum of forty-five minutes to complete. It is most important that you make a response to all of the questions on both questionnaires.

I am aware that you are very busy at this time of the year, but I am confident that the time spent will be well worth the results; with your cooperation I believe I can insure a study that will provide an impact in this area. All information will remain confidential and unidentifiable.

Enclosed is a return, stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience. If you are interested in the results of this study, please indicate on the Biographical Questionnaire (Question #25).

Please return this information as soon as possible. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Clara R. Benedetti
January 10, 1975

Dear Ms.,

I have selected your name as a woman in business administration from the 1974 edition of *Who's Who in Finance and Industries*. As part of a research project under the supervision of the Department of Leadership at Western Michigan University, I am completing a study on the leadership styles and personal characteristics of women in educational administration and women in business administration.

I think you will agree, that there are very few women in top level positions in either education or business administration. There are even fewer in-depth studies that deal with the leadership styles or personal characteristics of these present leaders. I am attempting to add to these studies with this research. With your cooperation I believe this is possible.

There are two questionnaires to be completed: The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire, which elicits your opinion. With this instrument I hope to establish a pattern of responses of successful women administrators and determine if they are comparable to published male norms. The second instrument is a basic biographical questionnaire. This will be used to gather basic data and provide information to substantiate or refute many of the myths of "woman's place". I believe both instruments should take a minimum of forty-five minutes to complete. It is most important that you make a response to all of the questions on both questionnaires.

I am aware that you are very busy at this time of the year, but I am confident that the time spent will be well worth the results; with your cooperation I believe I can insure a study that will provide an impact in this area. All information will remain confidential and unidentifiable.

Enclosed is a return, stamped, self-addressed envelope for your convenience. If you are interested in the results of this study, please indicate on the Biographical Questionnaire (Question #25).

Please return this information as soon as possible. Thank you in advance for your cooperation.

Sincerely,

Clara R. Benedetti
January 31, 1975

Dear Administrator,

I recently mailed to you materials pertinent to my study on women administrators in business and education.

I know you have a very busy schedule and a mountain of paperwork, but there are so few women like you in responsible administrative positions, I really need your cooperation.

If you have already returned the material, I thank you.

Sincerely,

Clara R. Benedetti

Clara R. Benedetti
APPENDIX D

TITLES RECORDED FOR RESPONDENTS
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Title</th>
<th>f</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>President</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>17</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice-President</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dean of the College</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dean of Students</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Dean of Students</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Associate Director</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Director</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dean of Nursing</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dean of Home Economics</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dean of Library Science</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dean of Law School</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td>71</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Title</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>-----</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>President</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Owner</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Editor</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice-President</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretary/Treasurer</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partner</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Manager</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrator</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Executive</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>TOTAL</strong></td>
<td><strong>62</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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APPENDIX E

Written Comments on Questions 23, 24, 26
and 27 from The Biographical Questionnaire
Additional problems experienced by women administrators, Question 23.

Women in education:

being involved in decision-making

trying to be honest in a rip-off world

need to demonstrate competence before accepted by males, their need

am a member of a religious order and therefore have had no problem-I have always been competent and hope that I have accepted for it

learning the job

Women in business:

no opportunity to serve in high positions in state or national organizations

hard work

men attempted to take the business through devious court action

keeping a husband happy while working

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Additional influential factors, Question 24.

Women in education:

my husband'd assistance

Women in business:

willing to work to succeed regardless of hours, it was my own money

hard work

damn hard work

drive to succeed in the effort

born leader

hard work and long hours

I had to make money

willing to risk owning my own company

took over after death of my husband
Written comments to Question 26.

**Question:** Do you perceive andy conflict concerning your family role, your role as a woman and your role as an administrator?

**Comments:** Women in educational administration

- not much
- many difficult decisions and priorities to establish
- occasional time conflict, but my husband is very supportive
- rarely
- not now that children are grown
- conflicts in time demands
- maintaining private life and having enough energy for both
time problems, setting priorities
- yes
- yes, time allocation, work and family leave no time for "me"
- not personally, but time conflicts are present
time conflicts
- none except time and energy
takes skill in organizing
- some
- not now, children are grown
- no, there are needs for establishing priorities
- none, my husband shares
- increased administrative responsibilities make it difficult to maintain a private life
when my children were young
problem of time and energy

Comments: Women in business:
  no, but takes thought, planning and understanding
  yes, when I was younger
  yes
  yes, men are uncomfortable with women who are more successful
  yes, due to not enough hours in a day--women executives need
  old fashioned wives at home
  not now, but had guilt feelings when my children were small
  mainly family conflicts
  it's a difficult adjustment for my husband because I earn more
  than he does
  no, I am in business with my husband and have no problem
  potential is there-a matter of setting priorities
  no, but my housekeeping is not the best
  not at the moment, but in the past yes, mainly time
  yes, my husband was not interested in my working and it was
  difficult when the children were young
  not necessarily
  some
  no, I can assign priorities as must any person who wants to
  succeed
Written comments to Question 27.

**Question:** What do you perceive to be the greatest advantage of being a female in an administrative position?

**Comments:** Women in educational administration.

- if you're good, you're good and more visible
- ability to express concern for women, not always identical to those of men
- with equal ability a female can "expect" personal behavior to be more appropriate
- style range is broader than conventional male, less career, ego, identity identification
- opportunity to influence important events
- no particular advantage, the advantage is a competent person who is a woman
- able to feel sense of accomplishment in competent performance
- perhaps women possess more empathic understanding
- neither an advantage or disadvantage
- women have more conciliatory approach to problem-solving
- none at present
- none
- provides me with an understanding, empathy, genuine womanly concern for those whom I serve
- none, I don't think in terms of sex, but character
- helping other females fulfill aspirations
- helping other women in the future
- logical to be Dean of Students in a women's institution
administrative position makes it possible to involve what one believes in, as a person though
no special advantage
enjoyable
getting the job done
not aware of any scarcity
correct societal conditions
role model for other women
opportunity to effect changes to represent women, to take action in behalf of women's problems
brings prestige and recognition to other women too
adding a new dimension in decision-making
bring a dimension of compassion and skill
having enough creative energy to deal with it
wider perspective, identify with minority groups
diversity of skills in organization and dealing with conflict
the opportunity for professional growth and development
none, unless humanistic interpretation
ability to listen and be emphatic, but not necessarily female characteristics
sex has nothing to do with administration
one can mix both roles
there are not many others
better able to understand the problems of women colleagues
I like administration
nothing special
can advance equality for women and demonstrate that women can succeed

pioneer of sorts, it will make it easier for the next generation

the advantage lies in being a good, well prepared woman, it sometimes surprises men

I can be myself

none, I had to work harder than a man would

being a role model, opportunity to be vocal on behalf of other women and administrators

possessing sensitivity of a woman

males do help and advise

do not think people should accept advantage because of sex

input in policy that presents a different view

I have been treated as equal, not as a female

achievement is more unusual

uniqueness

everyone knows you

Comments: Women in business

possibly good understanding of those working under me

opened doors in business world, received more respect and acceptance from males

respect and courtesy shown by males that they don't show one another

enjoy the work

have been the only female at meetings, conventions, etc., therefore if ability and expertise are outstanding it was easy to remember me and I advanced faster

feeling of satisfaction

proving to males that a female can do as well or better as they
being a female places one in a competition with males, which presents a greater challenge

none, women don't count here

personal satisfaction and success financially

freedom of movement and creative thinking

none, unless a feeling of sensitivity for subordinates

people are nicer and more considerate than to a male

uneasiness by men at first encounter

love people and have ability to sense their needs and offer assistance on both emotional and business level

being underestimated, especially in trial work

perceptions are not clouded by usual male biases, competitiveness

ability to be judged on merit and results rather than as a woman

men are more cautious in discussions, treat me with certain respect for being a jobber

opportunity is unlimited

advantage is in being an administrator not particularly a woman

can be your own boss with your own business

being in a position to stimulate, motivate and advance other women in the business world

being good

being a good listener, detailed in my work and compassionate for those I am in contact with

doing a good job in a man's world

with current emphasis on percentages of women a female has a chance for due consideration

some situations can be handled more easily as men tend to be helpful

the time is right
people listen better since a woman is a rarity
appreciation of my work
greater willingness to put forth true effort into work and re-
lationships than men
just a feeling of well-being
being just human
regardless of sex, people listen if you are sincere
many doors open to me because I am a female (which some men find
difficult to pass through)
never considered the thought
if you have efficiency you need no other advantage
to demonstrate that a female can handle it as well or better
than males
men like to help
privilege and honor of helping other women, realize it is nec-
essary to use creative talents to know fulfillment
females usually have more empathy and can grasp human side of
dealings very quickly
more respect and courtesy than would be extended to a man
different viewpoints in a man's business world, compliments the
male view
being a leader for other women who have goals for advancement
no discrimination in salary or commission
money and personal satisfaction
ability to get along with people
more freedom, less responsibility
Additional comments made by women administrators.

Education women

Comments:

opportunities for "achievers" should be the emphasis, not male, female, black, white, etc.

single sex college important in decision of career or homemaker choice

began in a traditional woman's role therefore in a non-threatnng role

traditional woman's field therefore had fewer problems

in a woman's field, therefore felt no discrimination until feminist movement, recently feeling discrimination in salary and policy therefore leaving this position

many variables to the above questions, one x does not tell the whole story

do not believe in quotas due to past inequities

real problem to decide what to do out of all that I wanted to do

woman needs wife at home to do the 1000 little personal tasks that a wife does for a husband

have had no problems perhaps because I am in a woman's field

no time for "me"

counteracting my own and others traditional expectation of what is right for women

capability, competence, preparation, leadership potential are essential criteria not sex

in a typical woman's field

best chance women have had to display talents but without a sense of humor would not survive slings and arrows of men
Women in business

Comments:

I believe anyone can succeed if they try hard and prepare themselves.

I have taken a leadership role in the community which has been of tremendous value to my business relations.

worked while my friends did only social things, I was not popular as I would be today.

had some difficulty in early career with acceptance to clubs, meetings, etc., I still do with a few insecure male egos.

I am aware that being a female has cost me money and promotions.

I have a great respect for our administrators but management in general do not believe in women administrators.

need a wife at home.

biggest professional problem is male idea that women don't know anything about, and can't cope with, profit and loss, always introduced as a speaker with a funny remark about not being fooled by my looks.

constant challenge since the markets I serve are all male.

pressures for women's movement have changed climate for females favorably in the past decade.

family woman must have cooperation and understanding and mutual love of all members to succeed.

always have been liberated, my family never bound me to a role, therefore I am able to do anything, feel much has been wasted with women my age, I am glad it is changing.

being yourself, regardless of man or woman is greater than any formal training, too many go by the book.

real estate is a natural field for a woman, I have a daughter who is a stockbroker and finds it difficult to be allowed to compete or earn equal money for equal work.

for both administration and homemaker, the challenge is to live and achieve all I can.
A female administrator will expend energy even to minor details where a male might hand them to an assistant.

Sex has nothing to do with capability, neither does stupidity.

As more women perform successfully, society will realize that one's brain and ability need not be inferior due to sex, race, color, etc.