

A COMPARISON OF UNIVERSITY FACULTY MEN'S AND WOMEN'S
ASPIRATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

by

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

During this century continually increasing numbers of women have taken jobs outside the home. During the last decade alone approximately 13 million women entered the labor force as compared to nine million men (U. S. Department of Labor, 1979), so that today women comprise 41.2 percent of the total work force (U. S. Bureau of Census, 1979).

Noticeably absent from these statistics are comparable increases in the number of women in management or leadership positions, and the administrative ranks of education are no exception. In fact, the percentage of women in some administrative positions in education has declined over the century. For example, in 1950-51, 6 percent of the nation's senior high school principalships were held by women, by 1977 women accounted for only 2 percent of these appointments (McCarthy and Webb, 1977). An even more dramatic example of women's losses in educational leadership positions can be found in the data on elementary principals. In 1921, 55 percent of the elementary principals were female, but by 1973 reports showed that the percentage of women principals had dropped to 19 percent (Grambs, 1976).

In higher education comparable patterns of decreasing representation of women in administration have not developed, probably because women have never occupied a significant number of the top level

administrative posts in colleges and universities. Evidence of the scarcity of female administrators at this level is offered in a 1970 report of the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC), which noted that 60 percent of the universities included in the survey did not have any women administrators who met the study criteria (1978).

Since 1970 though, employment patterns in academia have been changing. Women have been moving into administration in unprecedented numbers. The NASULGC found that for the 70 institutions for which they had comparative data for the years 1975 and 1978, the overall number of women administrators had increased by 30.5 percent (1978). It should be pointed out, however, that women still comprised only a small percentage of the total number of administrators. This becomes apparent in a breakdown by sex of the 13,638 administrative positions identified in 106 major universities in the same report. Of this number only 2,905 (just over 21 percent) were women: a closer look reveals that 1,960 (67.4 percent) of these women were serving as assistants to those in the top level administrative positions. This leaves 945, or 32 percent, of the female administrators who were serving as presidents and chancellors, chief officers of administrative divisions, chief officers of academic/research units (deans), or as chief officers of administrative units (department heads or chairmen).

In contrast to these figures, 48.9 percent of the men were assistants to top level administrators while 51.1 percent of the men were in the top level positions. It should also be noted that of the 6,432 line

officers, 5,487 (85.3 percent) were men and 945 (14.7 percent) were women (NASULGC Report, 1978).

As might be expected, the number of female administrators varies according to the type of institution. Women are best represented in women's colleges where they hold 56 percent of the administrative positions. These figures are less impressive when compared with the fact that men's colleges have 88 percent male administrators (Taylor and Shavlik, 1977).

A 1977 report on 2,986 accredited colleges and universities (there were a total of 3,095 colleges, universities and branch campuses in the United States) indicated that only 154 (5 percent) of the presidents or chancellors were women and that the major portion of these served in two- and four-year church related colleges. Of these 154 women executives, only 16 (10.4 percent) served as president or chancellor of two- and four-year public coeducational institutions (Taylor and Shavlik, 1977). When only land-grant colleges and universities were considered the percentage of women presidents and chancellors dropped to 1.6 (NASULGC Report, 1978).

The fact that women have not been appointed to positions of leadership proportionate to their move into the work force or, more importantly, in ratios similar to their appointment to lower level administrative posts, has attracted considerable attention within the academic community, leading to extensive research attempting to identify the reasons for this imbalance. In general, the studies have sought to discern whether or not the problems for women were ones

resulting from a lack of opportunities due to discriminatory practices. Institutions of higher education, as employers, however, have often defended the low representation of women in higher education administration on the basis that there has been a lack of candidates. They have claimed that few women were both interested and/or qualified (Carroll, 1972), but the only data to support this assumption have been compiled from studies on elementary and secondary women school teachers who indicated proportionately less interest in administration than that indicated by men (Gross and Trask, 1976; Henry, 1977; McIntosh, 1974). To interpret the results of these studies as having application to university faculty is probably inappropriate in that university faculty usually have made a much greater commitment of time, money and effort and might, therefore, have different career goals from their elementary and secondary counterparts. University faculty would, for the most part, hold the academic degrees needed to qualify for administrative positions, whereas elementary and secondary school teachers are less likely to be certified for an administrative position. In addition, administrative responsibilities in elementary and secondary schools are not necessarily comparable to administrative responsibilities at the university level and, therefore, should not be assumed to be equally attractive to faculty at both levels of education.

A lack of data to support the prevailing assumption that women faculty at colleges and universities are not interested in administration led to this study. The primary purpose of this study was to survey the pool from which university administrators are drawn to gain insights as to whether women faculty aspire to administrative positions in the same

proportions as men faculty. This study also attempted to determine if men and women faculty aspire to similar levels in the administrative hierarchy. In addition, the reasons men and women faculty have for seeking an administrative position were examined to see if there were differences in their motives for wanting to become an administrator.

Significance of the Study

The 1970's brought both attitudinal change and legal support for women to move into various non-traditional jobs, but in institutions of higher education little change has been effected in the top level administrative roles. Men still tend to hold the most influential positions. Concern has been expressed for this persistent trend and how it perpetuates traditional role patterns in the minds of young people (Rossi and Calderwood, 1973).

Several factors have been identified as serving to discourage or even prevent women from moving into these positions. One commonly held belief is that women do not aspire to the college and university administrative positions in the same ratio as do men (Gross and Trask, 1976; Rossi, 1973; Timmons, 1973). No studies on the aspirations of college and university faculty, however, are offered as support for this belief.

Little is known about the pool of potential candidates for administrative jobs in colleges and universities. A study such as this could offer new insights into the problem of low ratios of top level women administrators. If it could be shown that the percentage of

women aspiring to top level administrative positions is as high as that for men, then in the future the low representation of women administrators can no longer be justified on the basis that women "are just not interested." Also, if there were no differences in the aspirations of men and women faculty for administrative positions, researchers in the future could then focus on other reasons which might account for the low percentage of women administrators in influential positions.

The need for this study was confirmed by the lack of information available in the current literature on the people who tend to become administrators and what characteristics, if any, typify those who desire to be administrators in institutions of higher education. A delineation of the characteristics of those who aspire to administrative careers could provide useful information for the development of educational programs in higher education administration. The study might also be beneficial to those counseling women in the development of their career goals.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to determine if women faculty aspire to administrative positions in higher education in the same proportions as do men faculty. The study also sought to compare administrative levels to which both groups aspire and to compare the reasons they have for their interest, or lack of interest, in obtaining an administrative position.

In addition, the variables of age, marital status, number of children living at home, academic rank, years of experience in education, previous administrative experience, previous encouragement to apply for an

administrative position, and tenure status were studied to determine whether they interacted with sex to produce an effect upon aspirations for an administrative position.

Definition of Terms

For the purpose of this study, the following definitions were used:

Administrative Levels. The organization of administrative units within the hierarchical structure of each university can vary not only in titles, but sometimes in the designated responsibilities. The administrative units, however, form an order of rank or "chain of command" at most institutions of higher education. In this study, each rank in the order of command was referred to as an administrative level and the titles used for each level were as follows:

President or Chancellor

Assistant to the President or Chancellor

Chief Officer of Administrative Division

Assistant to Chief Officer of an Administrative Division

Dean of a College

Assistant to the Dean

Assistant or Associate Dean

Chairman or Head of a Department or Division

Land-grant University. Unless otherwise designated, land-grant universities refer to just those institutions which were created by the Morrill Act of 1862 and are located in each of the 48 contiguous states.

Line Officer. A direct line of authority exists from the presidency to the faculty through the line offices. The person placed at the head of each line office has "charge of everything under him and is responsible only to the executive who is directly above him" (Gentry and Taft, 1971, p. 179).

Staff Officer. Staff officers are separate from the line officer, so that "they may counsel, advise, and assist the line." They are responsible for getting the facts upon which decisions can be based (Morgan, 1973, p. 41).

Professor. Teachers in colleges and universities were referred to as professors while their counterparts in elementary and secondary school systems were called teachers.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Chapter 2 presents some of the historical events which help to give perspective to women's involvement in education today as students, faculty and administrators. Other topics relative to this study were also examined such as aspirations, the administrative candidate pool, the role of administrators, leadership traits, and land-grant universities.

Historical Background

Women are moving into the labor force but few are making their way into the most influential positions of leadership, particularly in education and specifically in coeducational colleges and universities (Carroll, 1972). To offer some insight as to women's present situation in higher education administration, this section examines the history of women in education and their participation in the American educational systems.

Throughout the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries, an American woman's role was one of domestic responsibility and total subjugation to a husband. The colonists believed that a woman was made to serve and obey man. When she married, and all women were expected to, she was to give up all her legal rights and all her property to her husband. The only purpose for a woman's being taught to read was to enable her to study scripture under male guidance (Conway, 1974). It is not surprising

then, to find that as many as 50 percent of the women were illiterate in 1656, and that even in 1697, 38 percent were still signing deeds with a cross mark (Peiser, 1976).

At this time the opportunities for either boys or girls to receive a formal education were rare. Some Latin grammar schools had been opened in the seventeenth century for the purpose of preparing males for the colonial colleges and at the same time, dame schools were made available to girls for learning the basic skills in reading and writing but, more importantly, for learning the social graces (Goodsell, 1970). The level of education received in the dame schools was questionable as many of the "dames" who staffed these schools had little or no formal education beyond what they were teaching.

In the middle of the eighteenth century a few private schools, often referred to as academies, were opened and, for the most part, were attended by children of the most prominent families. Some of these schools were coeducational, but they usually were designated for the separate sexes. The academies provided the first opportunity for girls to obtain a form of secondary education, since the curriculum offered some reading, writing, arithmetic, English, grammar, composition, rhetoric, and geography (Woody, 1974).

Educational opportunities remained relatively scarce until after the Revolutionary War. At that time a number of advocates for educating women began to be heard and, also, new facilities for their education appeared. Secondary education became more accessible to girls with the opening of female seminaries which were modeled on the English finishing

schools for girls (Sexton, 1976). The purpose of these schools was to prepare young women for life, so the early curriculums, in particular, emphasized religious and domestic training (Woody, 1974). Upon receiving encouragement from leaders in the movement to improve education for women, the programs in the seminaries gradually became more academic with courses being offered in Latin, Greek, French, mathematics, history and political sciences, to name but a few.

The idea of the female seminary was very popular during the first half of the nineteenth century. By 1850 they could be found in nearly every state in the union (Woody, 1974). The public school systems, which were also emerging at the same time, gave an added importance to the seminaries when they turned to the seminaries for training school teachers.

Some of the more prominent seminaries had been opened during the first half of the nineteenth century by a few of the early educational reformers, such as Emma Willard, Catherine Beecher, and Mary Lyon (Rudolph, 1965). These women, and other men and women like them, were ceaseless in their efforts to improve the level of education available to girls. As each experiment met with success, their aims were set higher until enough support was gathered to open colleges for women. As the opportunities for college level education for women developed, the seminary movement lost momentum and was in a steady decline in enrollment by the time of the Civil War.

The first experiment in women's collegiate education came in 1839 when the Georgia Female College at Macon began accepting students. A few

other efforts to open colleges for women were quick to follow, but these schools were not wholly successful, being described by Catherine Beecher as "mere high schools" (Rudolph, 1965).

Actually, the first opportunity for women to attend a college had come six years prior to the opening of the Georgia Female College. Unexpectedly, this opportunity developed in the Midwest, rather than in the Eastern states where education had been available in some form for nearly two hundred years. The chance came when a coeducational college was opened in Ohio in 1833. The coeducational plan would have seemed radical at that time because many still had considerable doubts about the appropriateness of educating women. To allow women, not only to enroll in college, but to attend classes with male students could have evoked years of controversy, but there was little debate because Rev. J. Shipperd, a Presbyterian minister, simply took his plans for a college to a wooded area in northern Ohio and announced that Oberlin College would be open to both sexes and would not discriminate by color (Henle and Merrill, 1979).

Oberlin served as a model to other early experiments in coeducation in the Midwest. These colleges, along with a few female colleges on the East coast and two Midwestern land-grant universities were all available to women before the Civil War, but the number of women who attended remained small until after the War. Attitudes about women's proper role had not changed sufficiently to allow "good families" to send off a young woman to college without their being viewed as

"reckless" or "foolish" and the idea was seen by many as being "subversive of the American home and family" (Rudolph, 1965).

In addition, the notion prevailed throughout the nineteenth century that too much education for women would be deleterious to their health. Many theses were offered on the subject. One example was written by a former Harvard professor, Dr. Edward H. Clarke, who explained in Sex and Education, that a woman's physiology was such that if she were to follow the demanding regime expected of men, the result could eventually be death and she, for sure, would be risking the loss of her feminine attractions and perhaps even her "chief feminine function" (1873, p. 115).

Between 1875 and 1900 a dramatic increase was noted in the number of women seeking a college education and the coeducational colleges and universities played a major role in providing the opportunities. The number of women in these institutions grew from 3,044 to 19,959, a sixfold increase, while the number of men students in the coeducational colleges increased from 26,352 to 81,084, a threefold increase. During the same quarter century, students at women's colleges increased only from 9,572 to 15,977 (Woody, 1974). The coeducational idea was received with such enthusiasm that by 1900, 71 percent of all American colleges were coeducational (Rudolph, 1965).

The growth of colleges in America during the nineteenth century was only partially reflective of the even more rapid growth encountered in the common school movement which sought free, compulsory public education for every child. In response to the demand for teachers that the

common schools presented, normal schools were opened for the specific purpose of training women to become school teachers. Women readily took the opportunity, for teaching was the only acceptable profession open to them. School boards were eager to hire women because they were willing to work for lower wages than were the men teachers. Sexton, in Women in Education, cites one example from the mid-nineteenth century where male teachers worked for \$15 a month and the female teacher for less than five dollars (1976). The demand for, and the supply of, women teachers quickly turned teaching into a "woman's profession."

The opportunity for women to teach was not limited to the elementary and secondary levels. The first faculty at Oberlin College had one female faculty member, and according to Pollard (1965) there were seven women faculty by 1840. Both the women's colleges and the coeducational colleges and universities hired women faculty. National statistics for 1879 showed that women comprised an estimated 37 percent of the number of college teachers (Grant and Lind, 1979). Even though women did not maintain this high proportion of the faculty positions for very long (19.6 percent was reported in 1889-90), the percentages of female students enrolled at all levels continued to increase (Grant and Lind, 1979).

The new independence realized by women as a result of the nineteenth century educational movement fostered support for the suffrage movement and the suffragettes, in turn, inspired women to greater educational achievements. Both movements rose to their greatest heights at the end of the first two decades of this century. The suffrage movement obtained the right for women to vote in 1919, and the proportion of

women in college reached a peak in that same year, when women comprised 47.3 percent of the total number of resident degree enrollments (Grant and Lind, 1979).

With the 1920's, however, came a slowdown in the rate of increase of women attending college. Bernard has suggested that this development partially resulted from the loss of the excitement that the pioneering women in education had felt. The pioneers knew they were innovators and enjoyed the attention they drew (1964). By the 20's, the glamour was gone. Women had established that they were capable of collegiate work, that it was not harmful to their health, and they were also capable of teaching at all levels, including college. The motives for seeking an education had become personal rather than political.

In the 1930's an actual decline occurred in the proportion of women in higher education. The depression could account for some of the curtailment in attendance, but the trend persisted for the next three decades suggesting more than economic reasons. One interpretation of this withdrawal of women from education was that there was a lack of demand for women's services between 1930-1960, suggesting sex discrimination on the part of employers. Others interpreted the decline as having resulted from a lack of a supply of women graduates. Bernard (1964) examined the evidence for both cases and presented a convincing argument for the latter. She felt the situation was

. . . one not of women seeking positions and being denied but rather one of women finding alternative investments of time and emotion more rewarding, one in which academic professions . . . seem relatively less attractive than in the past (p. 67).

Another explanation was offered by Friedan in the early 1960's, when she identified the "alternative investments of time and emotion," as the "problem that has no name," which she later labeled "The Feminine Mystique." She claimed that the reason women had started to disappear from the academic scene during the previous thirty years was due to their interest in seeking fulfillment as wives and mothers. Besides, said Friedan, they learned that truly feminine women did not want careers or a higher education (1963).

In the 1960's, however, a new consciousness about the roles of women evolved, partially as a result of the challenges laid down by such leaders as Betty Friedan, Germaine Greer, and Gloria Steinem. Many women besides those who were already working out of economic necessity, reexamined their role as wife and/or mother and then sought to find greater fulfillment by taking a job, by continuing their education, or by seeking a career rather than a job. As a result of this new mood, 50.8 percent of the female population was employed outside the home as of May, 1979 (U. S. Bureau of Census, 1979). This was in considerable contrast to the 33.9 percent who were employed in 1950 (U. S. Department of Labor, 1976).

Women had also started back to college and were completing higher degrees. In 1959-60 women received 35.3 percent of the bachelor's degrees; this increased to 44.3 percent in 1976-77. Women were also seeking graduate degrees in ever-increasing numbers, with the greatest changes occurring in the proportion of women completing doctorates. In 1959-60,

only 10.4 percent of the doctorates were awarded to women; in 1979 they received 24.3 percent (Grant and Lind, 1979).

During the 1960's and 1970's women not only sought higher educational goals and careers of their own, but also careers in fields that previously had been held exclusively by men. Legislation was passed in the late 1960's and early 1970's designed to ensure that women would not be discriminated against because of sex, which helped to make it possible for women to move into previously all-male domains. The fact that women took advantage of new opportunities is reflected in the statistics on the bachelor's and master's degrees granted in each discipline in 1977. The greatest percentage of increase of female graduates was in those fields which traditionally had small female representation: agriculture and natural resources, architecture and environmental design, business and management, computer and information services, engineering, law, military science, and physical science (Brown, 1979). A slight decrease in the percentage of female bachelor's and master's candidates was noted for the fields of study generally regarded as women's fields, such as education, home economics, letters, and public affairs and services. The same patterns have not held for women receiving doctorates though. The percentage of women recipients of doctoral degrees has more than doubled in the last twenty years, but the increases were greatest in the traditionally female fields and least in the traditionally non-female fields (Brown, 1979).

In spite of women's recent movement into the work force and into higher education, there has been little change in the male/female ratios

of faculty in colleges and universities. In 1929-30, women represented nearly 28 percent of the faculty in higher education, a high mark for this century. Following that year, a steady decline in the porportion of women faculty occurred and continued unabated until the 1960's. After reaching a low of 19 percent in 1959-60, a reversal began which brought the average percentage of women on college and university faculties to 25.4 percent in 1977-78 (Grant and Lind, 1979).

These women faculty in 1977-78 tended to hold positions in the lower ranks while men faculty predominated the upper ranks (Table 1). Over 66 percent of the male faculty were ranked as either full or associate professors, as contrasted with 32.7 percent of the women holding the same ranks. Nearly 60 percent of the women were ranked as assistant professors or instructors, while only 33 percent of the men held these ranks.

An examination of the faculty by type of college and university shows that women are unevenly represented in the various institutions. For instance, at two-year colleges, women make up 35 percent of the faculty, while at four-year colleges they represent 26 percent. The lowest percentage of women faculty is found in universities where they comprise only 18 percent of the faculty (Dearman and Plisko, 1979).

The previously male-dominated character of administration in systems of higher education has been affected by the new wave of career women. A 1978 survey comparing data from 70 universities for the years 1975 and 1978, showed a 30.5 percent increase in the number of female administrators (NASULGC Report, 1978). Figures such as these have been

Table 1
University Faculty by Rank and by Sex

Rank	Men %	Women %
Professor	40.9	12.3
Associate Professor	26.4	20.4
Assistant Professor	22.3	35.1
Instructor	5.9	22.8
Other Rank	4.6	9.4

W. Vance Grant and C. George Lind, Digest of Education Statistics, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1979), p. 103.

questioned because when closely examined, two points become evident. First, a 30.5 percent increase does not represent many people since there were so few female administrators in 1975 with which to compare and, second, most of the women were hired for staff positions as opposed to the line positions. Like faculty women, the proportion of administrative women varies according to the type of institution; with universities, especially public, coeducational universities, having the lowest percentage of top level women administrators (Taylor and Shavlik, 1977). Critics of both business and higher education have noted that the number of women administrators also varies with the prestige of the institution; the greater the prestige, the fewer the women (Carroll, 1972; Haines and Penney, n.d.).

During the 1960's and 1970's, as a result of a new consciousness about women's roles in society, attention has been focused on the American educational systems. Higher education has the reputation, whether justified or not, of being "citadels of progressive thought, of freedom of the mind and of the spirit" (Goldstein, 1973). This image has led to the expectation that educational systems would be in the forefront in the process of eliminating societal attitudes which have promoted sex biases. But, in the opinion of Goldstein (1973), most institutions of higher education have been the least responsive to remedying the imbalance in the male/female ratio of administrators. Sexton confirms this opinion when she points out that educational institutions have been slow to respond to mandates for supporting sex equality. As a result "no

institution has had more charges of sex discrimination brought against it than have colleges and universities" (1976, p. 75).

In attempting to identify causes for the imbalance in the male/female ratio of administrators, researchers have tended to focus on the public school systems. Their particular interest may be a result of the almost precipitous decline which took place in the employment of women administrators in elementary and secondary school systems after 1930. Women at one time dominated the administrative ranks of these schools. For example, in 1928, 55 percent of the elementary school principals were female, but over the past 50 years their representation has been reduced to less than 20 percent (Clement, 1977).

The disappearance of women administrators from the elementary and secondary schools has been especially surprising in light of the fact that women continue to dominate the teaching forces in these schools. While 1,432,580 (66.5 percent) of the elementary and secondary teachers in 1973-74 were women, only 722,868 (33.5 percent) were men (Grant and Lind, 1979). Yet, men held 80 percent of the elementary, 97 percent of the junior high, and 99 percent of the senior high principalships (Fishel and Pottker, 1975).

This dramatic loss in positions of leadership by women was of special concern during the 1960's and 1970's when so much emphasis was directed toward ensuring career opportunities for women and also access to the upper reaches of these careers. To attempt to understand the reasons which might account for the employment patterns of elementary and secondary leaders, investigators have been exhaustive in their

questions to administrators, teachers, students, and parents. They have examined the performance of women administrators, compared their performance to that of men administrators, measured the effects of women's performance on students, and so forth. After reviewing the findings of numerous studies, Fishel and Pottker made the following observation:

These behavioral studies clearly indicate that in terms of ability to supervise and administer a school and to maintain good relations with students and parents, the few women who have been able to obtain administrative positions have performed as capably as, if not more capably than, their male counterparts (1975, p. 113).

This positive report on female administrators in elementary and secondary schools was confirmed by Frasher and Frasher. Their 1979 review of the literature led them to state that "In nearly every comparison of actual administrative performance . . . there have been either no sex differences or women have received the higher ratings." They go on to say that ". . . clearly, the women who have served as public school administrators have provided ample proof of their effectiveness" (p. 1).

Since the evidence suggests that women are capable of doing the job and tend to do it well, their low representation as administrators in elementary and secondary schools probably relates to other conditions such as the amount of interest women have in becoming administrators, special certification required of administrators, or the number of opportunities.

According to law, the "amount of opportunities" are to be as plentiful for women as for men. Affirmative action legislation requires that employers be committed to "eliminating discriminatory

employment policies and practices" and also, that they "actively remedy the current effects of past discrimination" (Silver, n.d., p. 19). The threat of withholding federal dollars has encouraged institutions to comply with the law. There is disagreement as to the effectiveness, or even the appropriateness of these regulations; however, most statistics cited on the employment of women since the laws were enacted show an increase in the numbers of women hired. How much credit should be given to the passing of the laws and the effect they have had on creating opportunities, is a question beyond the scope of this study.

Of particular significance to this study though, is the question of how much interest women have in administration. Based on the studies that have been completed in public schools, the overwhelming response is that women have few aspirations for positions of leadership (Carroll, 1972; Taylor and Shavlik, 1977). Support for this response was also contributed by Hilton (1977), who surveyed 800 elementary and secondary female teachers in the Colorado public schools as to their intent to seek administrative positions. From the findings, she concluded that most women teachers do not aspire to the top management positions. Henry (1977), in her study on men and women elementary teachers' aspirations toward upward mobility, found that a greater percentage of women (50 percent), than men (26 percent), were satisfied to remain in the position of classroom teacher and did not desire a change. When public school teachers were asked their aspirations for an administrative position in education by Warrington (1977) only one out of five female teachers indicated

an interest, while one out of three male teachers responded that they were interested in administration.

Not only do female public school teachers have lower aspirations for administrative careers than do male teachers, those women who do seek administrative jobs have indicated that they would accept lower level posts than would men. McMillin's survey of prospective men and women teachers supports this assumption. He found that for women the likelihood of accepting leadership in a school or educational organization decreased as the level of responsibility increased (1975).

Reports have been consistent: women do not aspire to administrative positions in the same way as do men. The studies tend to support this premise; however, they have been limited to either prospective or employed elementary and secondary school teachers.

In colleges and universities, the top level administrative positions also have been noticeably without women. One justification for the low representation has been that women are not interested in these positions, but no data are available to support this notion about the people who would typically make up the pool from which university administrators are selected. It is, therefore, the purpose of this study to examine the aspirations university faculty have for college and university administration.

Aspirations

The idea that men and women are socialized to achieve differently has been well-documented. The differentiating of role expectations for

boys and girls begins at the time the child is born. The differences resulting from the socialization processes are incorporated into the self-concepts of both men and women (Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz, 1975). This internalization of attitudes toward proper male and female roles affects their self-images and aspirations (Timmons, 1973). One of the most powerful influences on the socialization of young people are the educational systems of America.

Women's aspirations for education or for careers, typically, have not been as high as those of men. When the freshmen students in institutions of higher education in the United States were asked what was the highest academic degree they planned to attain, 10.2 percent of the male students indicated a Ph.D. or Ed.D., while only 8.0 percent of the female students gave the same response (Grant and Lind, 1979). An investigation by Coates and Southern (1972) of the factors leading to the underrepresentation of women in the academic professions, found that the women (166 undergraduates) had lower educational aspirations than the men (198 undergraduates) even though they appeared equally intellectually capable.

Ory and Helfrich (1978) also selected equally intellectually capable students for their investigation of career aspirations. They chose two groups of National Merit Honor students in college, one male and one female. They found that it was far more common for men, than women, to aspire to the professional careers, and that women who aspire to professional careers saw themselves as less traditional, and

non-conforming to society's image. This suggests that women who do seek professional careers are also confronted with feelings of going against traditions.

Aspirations have been defined as one's goals: goals expressed both publicly and privately (Fryer, 1964; Heckhausen, 1976). One might assume that a person would express an aspiration privately which they would not necessarily express publicly, but Fryer (1964) found no significant difference between aspirations expressed in public or in private.

The term "level of aspiration" was introduced into the literature in 1930, by Dembo, a German, and was defined by Heckhausen as the "absolute level of the goal pursued in performing a given task" (1967, p. 84). Since that time research on aspirations has tended to use children and assign them short term tasks in order to measure levels of aspirations. The levels of aspirations then have been used mostly for diagnostic purposes or for success predictions (Fryer, 1964).

In examining the interests women have in leadership positions, researchers have also used the term "aspirations" and "level of aspirations," however, the application of the same terms for these studies is somewhat different. Often the research questions on aspirations concern long term goals, and aspiration levels are equated only with how far up the administrative ladder one is interested in moving.

Several factors can play into the aspirations one has, such as how well one can tolerate failure, how generally secure one feels, and how generally confident one is about his/her own ability to perform well (Fryer, 1964). A life time of experiences, or the socialization

processes, have, as Carroll points out, caused many women to have little confidence that they can perform effectively as administrators or that they have a chance of being selected for significant administrative positions. She concluded that women will not aspire to administrative responsibility "if they perceive the action as an exercise in futility" (1972, p. 215). Astin (1969) though, feels that the situation is different for college and university women faculty. She believes that to have completed the doctorate indicates a certain series of successes which might give a person the confidence to set their aspirations on administration.

Levels of aspirations also can be affected by what people think might be expected of them (Vernon, 1969). Several studies have compared men's and women's role expectations for themselves and the expectations others hold for them. For example, Dickerson (1974) studied the perceptions female undergraduates and graduate students held about the expectations the faculty and administrators had for them. She found that the students with higher aspirations also felt their faculty and administrators held high expectations for them.

Aspirations have been examined in numerous ways since 1930, when the subject was first introduced. It is recognized that multiple social factors affect the aspirations of people and the socialization processes tend to affect women differently than men. In the past women have consistently held lower educational and career aspirations than have men, and due to this pattern, the assumption is often made that women faculty do not aspire to college and university positions of leadership.

The Administrative Candidate Pool

Whether they aspire to the positions or not, policy-making administrators in higher education traditionally have been drawn from the faculty ranks (Clement, 1977; Mattfield, 1972; Rossi and Calderwood, 1973). Even though those who make up the faculty have invested years in preparing for an academic position and often have had no administrative training, they tend to be the source from which new administrators are selected.

In addition, moves into administration by both men and women tend to be made through an internal process. In a study of the career patterns of 650 women administrators in public, coeducational institutions, Fecher found that women generally accept new positions within the same institution rather than from the outside (1973). A study of women administrators in the Big Ten Universities showed that 84 percent last moved within their own institution (Stevenson, 1973).

Institutions which rely on an internal process for identifying potential candidates also tend to rely on an informal network operating among the faculty members and the administration to assist in the selection process. Typically, women are not part of the informal network and are, therefore, more dependent on having sponsors for their advancement (Ortiz and Covel, 1978). But, as Stevenson discovered in her study of female administrators, women often lack the support of sponsorship in their career development (1973).

Generally, potential candidates for administration in higher education have adequate academic credentials; however, the faculty status

requisite to an administrative post varies with the level of an office. And as Kantor and Wheatley suggest, the higher the office, the more impressive must be the candidate's tenure and scholarship reputation (1978).

Qualifications for an administrative position are perhaps as varied as the reasons faculty might have for seeking such a position. For the most part, university administrators do not have formal training in educational administration. Only the more technical administrative jobs, such as those involving finance or law, are placed in the hands of specialists (Kantor and Wheatley, 1978). According to Kantor and Wheatley, because qualifications for top level administrative positions are based on faculty status, "faculty members without administrative abilities continue to be promoted into high ranking positions, where they are aided by administratively proficient support staff" (1978, p. 5). Gaining prior experience is usually limited to what leadership experience can be acquired through department committee assignments or through serving in an administrative capacity at a lower level position.

At a time when increasingly more emphasis is being placed on colleges and universities for accountability, it would seem that hiring educational administrators from business with experience in management would be a more reasonable practice. Cangemi (1975) points out though, that good leaders in business do not necessarily make good educational leaders. According to him the reason for this is that the goals of institutions of higher education are very different from the goals of

business. Whereas, success in business depends on more materialistic, concrete goals, educational goals are more humanistic, more subjective.

Administration

A question to which this study has addressed itself is why some college and university professors are willing to give up their faculty assignments, which most likely were attained at considerable costs in time and money, to assume administrative positions. Administrative responsibilities can so differ from faculty assignments that a move from one to the other is similar to a career change.

The responsibility of administrators, according to Horn in Educational Administration, is to

. . . facilitate the objectives for which colleges and universities exist: teaching, research and public service. Since the specifics of these objectives vary greatly, as do the size, composition, complexity, and historical background of the institution, no standard pattern of organization is equally valid for all colleges and universities (Wilson, 1966, p. 352).

Walton sees all administrators as having a common responsibility, that being

. . . at least the activity that concerns itself with the survival and maintenance of an organization and with the direction of the activities of people working within the organization in their reciprocal relations to the end that the organization's purposes may be attained (Wilson, 1966, p. 29).

Whatever the purpose is in reality, the images of administration vary depending on one's experience. The term "administration" could connote, as Wilson suggests, "authority to one person, control to another, an image of a boss or an office, an act of managing, respect or disrespect,

decision-making, something pleasant or unpleasant, or perhaps the image of affluence" (1966, p. 2).

An image often implied in the literature on educational administration is that a move from faculty status to the administrative ranks would be a decided career advancement. Upward mobility in education seems to be synonymous with becoming an administrator. This may be a more accurate assumption for the public school systems where teachers do not have ranks to denote achievement. In colleges and universities, however, there are three avenues for vertical mobility. Faculty members can achieve through academic rank, through the administrative ladder, or in positions of power and influence with colleagues through election to important policy-making bodies (Bernard, 1964). The basis for the prevailing assumption which associates career success for faculty with a move to administration could come as a result of the practice of hiring top level administrators who have first achieved faculty status through academic rank and scholarly achievements (Kantor and Wheatley, 1978).

There are reasons, other than the potential for vertical movement, which attract faculty to administrative positions; one is the possibility of a higher salary. The "image of affluence," often associated with administrative jobs, may be no more than an image. Whether the salary would be attractive to the faculty member would vary according to the faculty member's rank, sex and academic discipline. Comparing the 1976-77 average annual salaries of full-time faculty on twelve-month appointments in institutions of higher education to the average annual salaries of selected college and university administrators for the same year, it

becomes apparent that not all moves would necessarily mean an increase in pay (See Table 2). For example, the average salary for male, full professors (\$29,040) was higher than the average salary for male, chief academic officers (\$27,757) and male, chief business officers (\$25,413). Male full professors received, on the average, higher salaries than the deans of some colleges. If, however, one were a woman, and an associate professor, the salaries for administrators might be more attractive (Grant and Lind, 1979).

Some faculty are drawn into administration for idealistic reasons. As Cangemi points out, "In a large sense, the university's goal is to serve society" (1975, p. 229) and the positions of leadership might be viewed by some as offering the greatest opportunities for influencing future generations, even though policy-making today tends to be a shared responsibility between faculty and administration (Campbell and Gregg, 1957; Wilson, 1966).

Potential candidates for administration are unlikely to openly express an interest in obtaining a position because of the power it might afford; however, administrative positions have acquired the image of offering extensive power to the holders of such offices. According to Fasel though, the idea that university administrators acquire power with an office is now just a myth. He explains that power has been vastly dispersed, almost to the point of extinction. These circumstances result from unclear definitions of responsibilities and from "countless bases to be touched and clearances to be obtained, both up and down the line" for

Table 2

Average Annual Salaries of Full Time Instructional Faculty
With 12 Month Contracts and Average Annual Salaries
of Selected College and University Administrators,
1976-77

Faculty	Salary	Administrators	Salary
Professors		President/Chancellor	
Men	29,040	Men	35,135
Women	25,584	Women	32,107
Associate Professor		Chief Academic Officer	
Men	23,033	Men	27,757
Women	21,025	Women	24,717
Assistant Professor		Chief Business Officer	
Men	19,336	Men	25,413
Women	17,376	Women	16,497
		Director of Admissions	
		Men	19,411
		Women	15,506
		Registrar	
		Men	18,845
		Women	13,185
		Dean/Director	
		Arts and Science	
		Men	29,021
		Women	24,631
		Business	
		Men	28,221
		Women	20,097
		Graduate Programs	
		Men	31,281
		Women	26,114

W. Vance Grant and C. George Lind, Digest of Education Statistics, U. S. Department of Health, Education, and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics (Washington: Government Printing Office, 1979).

even minor decisions. Fasel concluded that no administrator, regardless of level, possesses "anything like the absolute power of the most humble instructor in his capacity as giver of grades" (1979, p. 8). Whatever is the actual amount of power which accompanies the administrative office, the image of authority and control still exist for some people.

Women sometimes seek administrative positions in an attempt to help change the socialization processes which reinforce the stereotypic sex role image that only men are meant to be leaders. Proponents of the efforts to ensure equality in opportunities for women believe that education plays a crucial role in changing societal attitudes (American Association of School Administrators, 1975; Rader, 1973-74). More specifically, many hold the opinion that female role models are needed in higher education, particularly as leaders. Stockard, in her study "Public Prejudice Against Women School Administrators: The Possibility of Change," concluded that for "attitudinal change to occur, women must be hired specifically for the more powerful line positions as well as for staff positions" (1979, p. 93). Bernice Sandler, Director of the Project of the Status and Education of Women with the Association of American Colleges, lends her support to the need for role models in education when she says that "if our institutions are to be truly coeducational, we will certainly need not only more women faculty but also substantial numbers of women administrators, particularly at the upper reaches of administration" (Haines and Penney, 1973, p. 129).

Studies have found that female role models for women students affect the career achievements of the students. Tidball examined the

personal records and educational histories of women who had successful careers and found that the greater the women faculty/women student ratio, the greater the number of women graduates who subsequently had successful careers (Women on Campus, 1975). A review of current research convinced Clement, et al., that schools with women administrators increased the self-image and aspirations of the female students (Clement, DiBella, Eckstrom, Tobais, Bartol, 1977). Believing that it is possible to make a difference, women, out of a sense of duty to other women, are seeking administrative positions.

The previously mentioned reasons as to why faculty might seek an administrative position, are meant only to suggest the possible range of motivating factors. The lack of literature on the question of reasons for aspiring to administrative positions led to the inclusion of that question in this study.

Leadership Traits

The behavioral scientists have been intrigued with the idea of being able to identify the personal characteristics which would help determine who would make the most effective leaders. The results of their studies have been quite inconsistent though. What one study showed as essential to being an effective leader, another study contradicted (Hoy and Miskel, 1978).

Numerous attempts have been made to define leadership. But, as Hoy and Miskel point out, the "concept of leadership remains elusive because it depends not only on the position, behavior, and personal

characteristics of the leader but also on the character of the situation" (1978). Stogdill, however, has defined the term as "the process of influencing the activities of an organized group toward goal setting and goal achievement" (Borgatta and Lambert, 1968).

Concepts of leadership have, however, tended to fall into two distinct classifications: the titles (labels) of which vary with the researcher. The general categories designated by Hoy and Miskel were "concern for organizational tasks" and "concern for individual relationships." Halpin (1966), in his studies, used the labels of "initiating structure" and "consideration." Barnard distinguished the same two groups with the titles of "effectiveness" and "efficiency" (Hoy and Miskel, 1978). Regardless of the labels used, the first group is characterized by the leadership behavior which delineates the relationship between the leader and members of the work-group, and endeavors to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and methods of procedure (Halpin, 1966). The second grouping "refers to behavior indicative of friendship, mutual trust, respect, and warmth in the relationship between the leader and the members of his staff" (Halpin, 1966). More specifically, the first category is task-oriented, while the second category is people-oriented.

Educational administrators are increasingly gravitating toward the "considerate" or people-oriented type of leadership (Frasher and Frasher, 1979); a trend fostered by the student unrest on campuses during the late 1960's. Descriptions used to characterize a leader of this type might be accommodating, compliant, sensitive, nurturant, compromising,

patient and empathetic. It is interesting to note that these are also the traits frequently used to characterize women (Frasher and Frasher, 1979). Killian, in The Working Woman, makes the point that the popular style of leadership in recent years has been shifting from the "physically strong, loud, aggressive, and always-in-motion type to one characterized by teaching, persuading, informing, helping and being sensitive to human needs and reactions" (1971, p. 146). Whether by nature, or due to social conditioning, there is little disagreement about women being both nurturing and adapting, and that they have been "socialized to submerge their egos within the context of the social unit in which they function" (Adickes, 1977, p. 14). This would suggest that women may ultimately be better suited for the leadership roles of the future. And, as noted before, the researchers observing the women who have become educational administrators in elementary and secondary schools, have found women to be as successful, if not more successful, than men administrators (Fishesl and Pottker, 1977; Gross and Trask, 1976).

Land-Grant Institutions

Astin and Hirsch (1978) have noted that universities with the lowest percentages of women as faculty or administrators often have similar characteristics:

They were sometimes formerly a male institution; they are often oriented toward science and engineering (if they are land-grant institutions, toward agriculture as well); and they are not located in the inner city, but may be located in small communities (p. 120).

Most land-grant universities tend to fit this profile.

The land-grant universities were established by an Act of Congress. According to Anderson (1976), the first Act, the Morrill Act of 1862, was the culmination of a political ideal accomplished by the organized industrial and agricultural interests of the nation. The Act ensured that these particular universities would (1) democratize education, (2) conduct applied or mission-oriented research to benefit the people of the states, and (3) render services directly to these people through extension agents, short courses, and continuing education. There were 72 land-grant universities in the fifty states and three territories and in 1974-75 they enrolled approximately 16 percent of all students in higher education (Anderson, 1976).

In 1890, the Morrill Act was revised to provide funds for establishing agricultural and industrial arts schools for Blacks. The funding for these schools was meager then, and the 1890 institutions have continued to remain small in comparison to those created by the 1862 Act. A 1974 report showed that none of the fourteen 1890 schools had an enrollment above 5,000 for that year (Anderson, 1976).

The land-grant universities have an early history of accepting women as students. The State of Iowa is given credit by many historians as having been the first coeducational state university when it was opened in 1856. Newcomer, however, in A Century of Higher Education for American Women, claims that the University of Deseret (now the University of Utah) was the first since it opened in 1850 and accepted a few women in 1851 (1959). Even though other universities were considering the

coeducational issue at this time, these were the only two universities to initiate coeducation before the Civil War.

Some land-grant universities began as coeducational institutions while many others turned coeducational soon after they opened. Ironically, land-grant universities were among the first to accept women into their programs, but have been among the slowest to incorporate women into their faculty and administrative ranks (Rossi, 1973). Today, in comparing all types of colleges and universities, land-grant institutions are among the institutions which have the lowest proportions of women administrators in policy-making positions (NASULGC Report, 1978).

The preceding chapter presented some of the historical events which led to the role of women in higher education today. In addition, topics were reviewed which are relevant to this study on women's aspirations and potential for positions of leadership in college and university administrations.

Chapter 3

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The purpose of Chapter 3 is to describe the methods, procedures, and instrument used to identify and determine the relationships between male and female university faculty's administrative career aspirations. A definition of the study's population and sample is included along with a description of the procedures used for data collection, and the statistical treatment used in analyzing the data. Limitations of the study are also included in this chapter.

Research Questions

For this study the following questions were investigated:

- A. Do university men and women faculty differ in their interests for an administrative position?
- B. Do university men and women faculty aspire to the same administrative levels?
- C. Do university men and women faculty have the same reasons for seeking an administrative position?
- D. Do university men and women faculty differ in their administrative interests when compared within groups of age levels; marital status; academic ranks; tenure status; years before tenure review; years of teaching experience; respondents with, and without, previous

administrative experience; and respondents who had, and had not, been asked previously to apply for an administrative position.

Population and Sample

The population to which the study was generalized was male and female faculty employed full time at the 1862 Land-Grant Universities in the 48 contiguous states. Faculty in the population held the rank of assistant professor or above and were employed in departments traditionally included in Arts and Sciences Colleges. Table 3 lists the departments along with the number of respondents by sex and rank.

Land-grant universities were selected for the study because (1) they are the type of university which has the lowest percentage of female administrators (public, coeducational), (2) most of these institutions have a long history of employing women as faculty members, (3) they have similar histories in that they were all established as a result of the Morrill Act of 1862, and (4) every state was represented, thereby giving a geographical distribution to the sample.

A sample of ten faculty members was selected from each of the 48 land-grant universities. To identify the population for the study, current college undergraduate catalogs were requested from each of the universities. When catalogs were not available, or when the catalog omitted a faculty listing, faculty telephone directories were used. By using catalogs and/or telephone directories, the academic ranks and departments were determined for each faculty name.

Table 3
 Respondents by Departments, Sex, and Rank

Department	M	F	Asst. Assoc.	Full	Total	%	
Anthropology	5	7	9	3	-	12	3.6
Art	6	5	6	5	-	11	3.3
Biochemistry/ Chemistry	5	4	4	4	1	9	2.7
Biology/Botany	15	8	11	9	3	23	6.9
Communications	16	9	13	11	1	25	7.6
Economics	8	5	7	2	4	13	3.9
English	32	23	14	34	7	55	16.6
Foreign Languages	12	10	10	11	1	22	6.6
History	21	18	16	19	4	39	11.8
Mathematics	11	8	5	11	3	19	5.7
Music	2	3	3	2	-	5	1.5
Philosophy	7	4	4	6	1	5	3.3
Physics	1	2	-	2	1	3	0.9
Political Science	10	7	4	11	2	17	5.1
Psychology	17	10	9	15	3	27	8.2
Sociology	16	10	16	10	-	26	7.9
Statistics	1	2	2	1	-	3	0.9
Zoology	7	4	5	6	-	11	3.3
Totals	192	139	138	162	31	331	
%	58.0	42.0	41.7	48.9	9.4		

The sample of ten faculty from each university included four females and six males. The men were oversampled in anticipation of a lower response rate from them. To obtain the sample, all female names which fit the description of the study were identified and numbered consecutively so that a random selection could be made using A Million Random Digits (1955). Once the four female names were identified, male names were selected by matching both rank and department. To obtain the 4:6 ratio, the first and third female names selected were each matched with one male of like rank and department, while the second and fourth female names selected were each matched with two male names with like rank and department.

Instrumentation

A four-part, four page questionnaire was developed for data collection. The form required approximately ten minutes to complete (see Appendix A).

Part I, with 14 items, sought to collect demographic data from the respondents as to sex; age; marital status; ages of children living at home; number of years of teaching experience; type of appointment (part/full time, 9-10/12 month); academic rank; percentage of time designated for teaching, research, extension and any other assignments; and tenure status.

In Part II, the respondent's administrative experience and interests were explored. The questions contained in this section were to determine (1) whether the respondents had an interest in an administrative position at the present time, (2) if they had no interest in

administration, or (3) if they had an interest, but also had reasons for delaying their plans. In addition, the questions were intended to determine if previous experience as an administrator was related to their interest in administration.

Only respondents who indicated an interest in educational administration were asked to complete Part III and IV. Part III was designed to gain an insight into the administrative level at which respondents wanted to begin an administrative career and the level they ultimately hoped to achieve. The following administrative levels were used for the study:

President or Chancellor

Assistant to the President or Chancellor

Chief Officer of Administrative Division*

Assistant to Chief Office of an Administrative Division

Dean of a College

Assistant to the Dean of a College

Assistant or Associate Dean

Chairman or Head of a Department or Division

Other

*i.e., Vice President of Academic Affairs, Vice President of Student Affairs, Vice President of Finance, etc.

The last item, "other," was used to allow the respondents to identify administrative positions which they were interested in, but felt did not fall into one of the administrative levels specified.

To determine if there was a relationship between interest in administrative work and one's perception of the amount of time which

might be involved in administration, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they saw the administrative position they ultimately hoped to achieve as being (1) more time consuming, (2) less time consuming or (3) requiring about the same amount of time as compared to their current position.

Part IV listed eight statements containing factors which could be motives for an individual to seek an administrative position. The items in this section were based on the literature and on the discussion given by Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey, in Individual in Society, on the topic of motivation. The authors identified six of the major social wants that influence the behavior of Western Man: affiliation, acquisition, prestige, power, altruism, and curiosity. At least one statement represented each of these "wants" or "needs" which could be the initiating forces (reasons) for someone to aspire to an administrative position.

The respondents were to indicate the level of importance each statement would have for them in accepting an administrative position by checking if each statement was of little importance (LI), moderate importance (MI), or of great importance (GI). To identify more precisely the reasons men and women have for aspiring to administrative careers, the respondents were asked to then select from the list of eight statements the three which were most important to them and to place the three in rank order. Space was also allowed for the respondents to make any additional comments concerning their administrative aspirations.

The instrument was field tested at Radford University, an institution which is not part of the land-grant system. The questionnaires were distributed to 12 members of the faculty to test the instrument for

clarity in instructions and in the questions. Following the return of the questionnaires, the instrument was revised and distributed the second time to prospective educational administrators enrolled in a class in the College of Education at Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University. The instrument was checked for time required to complete the form, and again the instrument was evaluated for clarity. A final revision was completed before the questionnaires were printed.

The Collection of Data

The instrument was printed as a four page booklet. General information about the study was included at the beginning of the questionnaire and specific instructions prefaced the separate sections. A space was provided on the first page for respondents to check if they wanted to receive a summary of the study.

In February, 1980, the questionnaires with cover letters were mailed to respondents at each of the 48 universities. Follow-up copies of the questionnaires along with revised cover letters were sent to nonrespondents three weeks after the initial mailing. Four weeks later, a random selection of 5 percent of the nonrespondents were surveyed by telephone to check for any nonresponse bias. Their responses were examined, but were not included in the data used for the study.

The nonrespondents numbered 115 out of the total sample of 480. Using a table of random digits, six people were identified for the needed 5 percent to be surveyed by telephone. Of these six, two (33.3 percent) had moved, one (16.6 percent) refused to answer the questions,

claiming that he never responded to surveys, and three (50 percent) answered the survey questions. From examining the responses of these three, it was determined that the nonrespondents, had they returned their questionnaires, would not have differed in their responses from those who did return their questionnaires.

Data Analysis

The data were coded for key-punching on data processing cards. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used for analyzing the data.

Frequencies and percentages were reported for all responses to personal and academic descriptive questions so that a general profile could be compiled of men and women faculty surveyed in this study.

A crosstabulation was carried out between sex of the respondent and (1) their administrative interests, (2) the administrative level to which they aspired, and (3) the reasons they held for their administrative interests. A chi square test of independence was applied to these tables to test for the significance of the relationship between sex membership and these variables. Similarly, to determine if the administrative interests of men and women were affected differently when compared with the variables of (1) age, (2) marital status, (3) academic rank, (4) tenure status, (5) year of review for tenure, (6) teaching experience, (7) previous administrative experience, and (8) having been previously asked to apply for a position, crosstabulations were carried out with a chi square test of independence. A Yates' correction for continuity was used in computing the chi square from 2 x 2 tables.

Pearson correlation coefficients were reported along with chi square scores to indicate the direction and strength of the relationship between the variables being compared assuming that the relationship was linear.

Limitations of the Study

The selection of the sample was limited to faculties in the 1862 Land-Grant Universities located in the contiguous 48 states in an attempt to include universities with the greatest similarities, and yet maintain some geographical uniformity. It was recognized that in spite of their similarities, these universities have many dissimilarities. For instance, their enrollments ranged from over 50,000 to just under 10,000; their organizational structures tended to vary, and they have acquired differing amounts of prestige over the years.

Departments were selected for the study which were typically organized within Arts and Sciences Colleges because these colleges tend to have a more balanced representation of both male and female faculty. The findings of the study, therefore, cannot necessarily be generalized to all the faculty of these land-grant universities since the composition of some of the other colleges on these campuses have been traditionally, and may still be, nearly all-female or all-male. An orientation from working in these different environments could promote different interests in administrative careers.

The female sample was randomly selected and then the male sample was matched to the females by rank and by department. As a result

of this process, the sample theoretically should be more reflective of the distribution of female faculty, rather than male faculty.

The method used to identify the population presented several unavoidable limitations. Some universities may not have included graduate faculty in their undergraduate catalog. College catalogs, regardless of how current the publication, do not necessarily provide an accurate list of faculty names. The lists may not have been carefully up-dated for that year, and staff changes could have occurred after the catalogs went to press. If part-time faculty were included in the listings, this type of appointment would not have been indicated. Sometimes administrators were listed also as faculty members. Each of these problems presented the possibility of selecting a name which did not meet the conditions of this study.

Faculty having first names which are names sometimes given to both sexes were eliminated. This was done in an attempt to ensure that four females and six males were selected for the sample from each institution.

Chapter 4

FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Of the questionnaires mailed to the sample of 480 professors from the 1862 Land-Grant Universities in the United States, 365 (76 percent) were returned after the original and one follow-up mailing. As a result of the procedure used to select the sample, 34 respondents did not meet the conditions of the study and as a result their responses were not analyzed. Those eliminated from the study were respondents who had (1) become administrators, (2) gone into business, (3) left, after not receiving tenure, (4) retired, or (5) held part-time appointments at the university. In addition, one respondent was a graduate student inadvertently selected for the study. The wife of one professor wrote of his recent death and one respondent wrote that she was no longer on the faculty but was involved in a discrimination lawsuit against her former employing institution.

Men comprised 58 percent of the respondents, women 42 percent (See Appendix B). Since 60 percent of the sample identified for the study were men, the response rate indicated that the assumption that the male faculty might not respond as well to the study as female faculty was correct, but the difference between the male and female return rate did not justify the 60:40 ratio used in the selection process.

According to Bernard (1964), in Academic Women, academic women differ from academic men. Both personal and academic descriptor

variables were included in the study to help ascertain whether women academicians still differ from men academicians.

Personal Profile

Questions on age, marital status and number and ages of children living at home helped to provide a personal profile of the respondents. It should be kept in mind when reviewing the data, however, that the women professors were randomly selected and the male professors were then matched to the women by rank and by department, so that the male sample would not necessarily be representative of the male population. The selection procedures for male respondents, however, theoretically should provide a more accurate indication of any differences which might exist between men and women faculty with the same rank and in the same departments.

Age

Women respondents tended to dominate both the youngest and the oldest age levels. Over 43 percent of the women, as compared to 39.6 percent of the men professors, were in the age range 26-35 (Table 4). The oldest age level was comprised of 21.6 percent of the women and 16.7 percent of the men respondents. The highest proportion of the men were 36 to 45 years of age. The mean age for all professors was 38.82; for the men 38.66, for women 38.99.

Marital Status

The marital status of men professors differed markedly from the marital status of women professors (Table 4). Over 82 percent of the

Table 4

Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents
by Age Levels and Marital Status

AGE LEVELS	M A L E S							
	MARRIED		PREVIOUSLY MARRIED		NEVER MARRIED		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
26-35 YEARS	64	40.5	7	31.8	5	41.7	76	39.6
36-45 YEARS	69	43.7	10	45.5	5	41.7	84	43.8
46-65 YEARS	25	15.8	5	22.7	2	16.7	32	16.7
MALE TOTALS	158	82.3	22	11.5	12	6.3	192	100.0
AGE LEVELS	F E M A L E S							
	MARRIED		PREVIOUSLY MARRIED		NEVER MARRIED		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
26-35 YEARS	30	40.0	10	38.5	20	52.6	60	43.2
36-45 YEARS	26	34.7	9	34.6	14	36.8	49	35.3
46-65 YEARS	19	25.3	7	26.9	4	10.5	30	21.6
FEMALE TOTALS	75	54.0	26	18.7	38	27.3	139	100.0
TOTALS	233	70.4	48	14.5	50	15.1	331	

men were married, as compared to 54 percent of the women. Women, then, made up the higher proportion of both the previously married and never married groups. Over 27 percent of the women were never married, while only 6.3 percent of the men had the same marital status. A chi square test of independence of the relationship between the sex of the respondent and marital status showed the difference to be significant at the .001 level ($\chi^2 = 35.8526$, $df = 2$).

Traditionally, higher education has attracted women who often remained unmarried. Since there has been evidence that increasingly more married women were pursuing professional careers, there was an attempt in this study to determine if this trend were developing in higher education. One indication that this same trend could be occurring within college and university faculties would be if the data showed that the oldest group of women were also the women who were unmarried. A comparison of age levels with marital status groups was reported in Table 4.

The findings did not support the thesis that the highest percentage of the unmarried women would be in the older age groups. Instead, the greatest proportion of unmarrieds (52.2 percent) were still within the youngest age level. It should also be noted that over 63 percent of the women in the 46-65 age level were married which is considerably more than the 50 percent figure for the youngest married women.

Ages and Numbers of Children Living at Home

Since children often affect the career plans of parents, and of mothers in particular, respondents were asked to list the ages of

children living with them at the present time. The ages ranged from less than one year old to 25 years of age. The ages were grouped according to the average ages for the different educational levels: pre-school (1-4), elementary school (5-10), junior high (11-13), and senior high or beyond (14 and older) (Table 5). This grouping pattern was selected because of the varying kinds and amounts of attention children need at these different stages in their lives.

The largest proportion of children living with the respondents (38.9 percent) were within the 5-10 age range. Over 24 percent of the children were ages 14-25. Women professors had a larger proportion of children in the two older age ranges, and men professors had the larger proportion of the two youngest age groups. Over 76 percent of the children lived with male respondents while 23.5 percent of the children lived with the female respondents.

Part II of Table 5 reports the number of respondents who have children. Only 42 women, or 30.2 percent of the women respondents, have children at home, while 123 or more than 64 percent of the men have children at home. Among the 139 women respondents, there were only 13 children of pre-school age, suggesting that few women were attempting to manage both a teaching position and small children.

The average number of children per parent was calculated to determine if there was a difference between the family size of male and female respondents. The families of male professors were found to be only slightly larger on the average than the families of female professors, with men's averaging 1.85 children and women's families, 1.66 children (Table 5, Part II).

Table 5

Frequencies and Percentages of Children Living at Home:
 Part I, Age Groups and Sex of Respondent;
 Part II, Average Family Size

PART I: AGES OF CHILDREN LIVING AT HOME	MALE PROFESSORS' CHILDREN		FEMALE PROFESSORS' CHILDREN		TOTAL	
	N*	%	N*	%	N*	%
1-4 YEARS	51	22.4	13	18.6	64	21.5
5-10 YEARS	91	39.9	25	35.7	116	38.9
11-13 YEARS	34	14.9	12	17.1	46	15.4
14-25 YEARS	52	22.8	20	28.6	72	24.2
*NUMBER OF CHILDREN	228	76.5	70	23.5	298	
PART II:						
NUMBER OF RESPONDENTS WHO HAVE CHILDREN	123		42		165	
NUMBER OF CHILDREN	228		70		298	
AVERAGE NUMBER OF CHILDREN PER PARENT	1.85		1.66		1.81	

In summary, the personal descriptive variables have indicated that women professors were more likely than men professors to have been (1) either in the youngest or oldest age group, (2) either previously married or never married, and (3) more likely to have no children, or if they had children the size of their families would be smaller.

Professional Profile

Certain academic descriptive variables were included in the study to provide a profile of men and women university professors which would aid in data interpretation. These variables were academic rank, university appointment, time designated for professional responsibilities, tenure status, year of tenure review (if applicable), years of teaching experience and the number of years since the terminal degree was received.

Academic Rank

For this study the male and female samples were matched by academic rank, so that any discrepancy in the numbers reported in Table 6 were due to differential response rates and/or the chance that some professors had been promoted beyond the rank indicated in the faculty listings used to identify the population.

The fact that women professors tend to dominate the lower academic ranks and men professors the upper ranks has been well-documented (Table 1, p. 19). Therefore, it was unexpected to find 48.9 percent of the women respondents ranked at the associate level and only 41.7 percent at the assistant level. These findings suggest that women are

Table 6
 Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents
 by Their Academic Rank

	FULL PROFESSOR		ASSOCIATE PROFESSOR		ASSISTANT PROFESSOR	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
MALES	20	10.4	95	49.5	77	40.1
FEMALES	11	7.9	67	48.2	61	43.9
TOTALS	31	9.4	162	48.9	138	41.7

N = 331

making inroads toward balancing the ratios of men and women at the upper academic levels. Perhaps as women are increasingly being hired, so are they being promoted.

University Appointment

Most of the respondents (86.3 percent) held 9/10 month appointments as opposed to 12 month appointments (Table 7). There was little difference between type of appointment and sex of the respondent: 87.0 percent of the men, and 85.4 percent of the women were on 9/10 month appointments.

Time Designation for Responsibilities

The current literature on academic women indicates that women invest their professional work time differently than do men and that their use of time is partially responsible for preventing them from being promoted at the same rate as are the men professors. The question asking the respondent to designate their use of time was included in this study in an attempt to determine if men and women at land-grant universities differed in how they perceived that they utilized their time.

As can be seen in Table 8, men's and women's responses to this question showed little difference. Men did indicate a slightly higher proportion of their time was spent on research (29.1 percent vs 27.8 percent) and women indicated that they spent 61.9 percent of their time teaching as opposed to the 60.6 percent spent by men.

Very few professors from the Arts and Sciences Colleges gave time to extension work, and men and women did not differ in their view of the amount of time spent in this service.

Table 7
 Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents
 by Type of Appointment

	9/10 MONTH APPOINTMENT		12 MONTH APPOINTMENT	
	N	%	N	%
MALES	167	87.0	25	13.0
FEMALES	117	85.4	20	14.6
	284	86.3	45	13.7

N = 329

Table 8
 Mean Percent of Time Designated by Respondents
 for Teaching, Research, Extension
 and Other Responsibilities

	% TIME TEACHING	% TIME RESEARCH	% TIME EXTENSION	% TIME OTHER
	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}
MALES	60.6	29.1	2.5	7.8
FEMALES	61.9	27.8	2.5	7.9
COMBINED \bar{X}	61.1	28.6	2.47	7.8

Respondents were asked to specify the responsibilities they listed as "other." Many listed committee assignments. Some reported administrative duties resulting from being selected as either undergraduate or graduate program directors within their department. Again, men and women differed very little in how much time they reported that they gave to these responsibilities.

A national report on all types of institutions of higher education showed that women at universities spent 3.7 percent of their time with research: a figure higher than the amount of research time reported for women in any other type of educational institution (Grant and Lind, 1979). If the premise can be accepted that faculty members can accurately designate the amount of time that they spend on teaching and research, these data could indicate that women professors at land-grant universities are more oriented toward research than women in other types of colleges and universities. Another possible reason for the increased proportion of time spent on research by women at land-grant universities, is that they have become aware of the importance of research to their academic success.

Tenure Status

Sexton (1976) writes that at universities men are twice as likely to be tenured as women (57 and 28 percent, respectively). The data in Table 9 present what appears to be a considerably different report on the tenure status of women with 59.0 percent of them being tenured as compared to 65.1 percent of the men professors. It should be kept in mind though, that according to the figures in Table 1 (p. 19),

Table 9
 Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents
 by Their Tenure Status

	TENURED		UNTENURED	
	N	%	N	%
MALES	125	65.1	67	34.9
FEMALES	82	59.0	57	41.0
	207	62.5	124	37.5

N = 331

as much as 32.2 percent of the female faculty population may have been eliminated from the study as a result of using only those professors ranked at the assistant level or higher and that this process would have omitted only 13.3 percent of the male population. The ranks eliminated from this study are the ones most likely to have the highest proportion of untenured professors.

Year of Review for Tenure

The respondents who were untenured were asked to identify the year in which their review for tenure would take place. The potential responses ranged from the academic year of 1978-79 to 1984-85. Those who were reviewed in 1978-79 would have been completing their last year of teaching at that institution when they were asked to be part of this study. Correspondence with two faculty members who would have been in this group indicated that a self-elimination process may have taken place because they felt it was not realistic to consider an administrative position when they did not have continued employment, at that time, in higher education.

Of the 124 untenured respondents, only 117 gave the year of their review. Table 10 shows that a larger proportion of the men professors (13.6 percent) than women (9.8 percent) have just passed their review year, whereas a slightly larger percentage of women (27.5 percent) than men (25.8 percent) will be reviewed in the academic year 1980-81.

Years of Teaching Experience

The number of years of teaching experience the respondents had in

Table 10
 Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents
 by Year of Their Tenure Review

YEAR TO BE REVIEWED	MALES		FEMALES		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1978-79	4	6.1	2	3.9	6	5.1
1979-80	9	13.6	5	9.8	14	12.0
1980-81	17	25.8	14	27.5	31	26.5
1981-82	16	24.2	7	13.7	23	19.7
1982-83	11	16.2	10	19.6	21	17.9
1983-84	4	6.1	5	9.8	9	7.7
1984-85	5	7.6	8	15.7	13	11.1
	66		51		117	

higher education ranged from one to 35 years. The years were divided into three groups: 1-10 years, 11-20 years and 21-35 years (Table 11). The mean number of years of teaching experience was 10.4. The largest proportion of both female and male professors (61.8 percent) had 10 or fewer years of teaching experience. In light of the figures in Table 4, which showed that a larger proportion of women than men were in the oldest age level, it is interesting to note that a smaller proportion of the women than men have had over 20 years of teaching experience. These findings suggest either interrupted careers for women or a late entry into the profession.

Years Since Degree Was Awarded

The sample was to have been drawn from those faculty members who held either a doctorate or another terminal degree. Usually the listings of professor's names in the college catalogs and/or telephone directories included the degree title, so few problems were encountered in selecting a sample with the necessary degrees. Of the 331 respondents included in the study, 96.4 percent had doctoral degrees. The remaining 3.6 percent of the respondents held terminal master's degrees, which were in the Fine Arts.

The number of years since the terminal degrees were awarded to the respondents ranged from one to 31 years. The years were divided into three groups: 1-10 years, 11-20 years, and 21-31 years (Table 12). Nearly 70 percent of the respondents had the degree for no more than ten years, and the women professors tended to have had the degree for slightly fewer years than men professors. Less than 5 percent of the

Table 11
 Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents
 by Their Years of Teaching Experience

	1-10 YEARS		11-20 YEARS		21-35 YEARS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
MALES	116	60.7	58	30.4	17	8.9
FEMALES	88	63.3	45	32.4	6	4.3
	204	61.8	103	31.2	23	7.0

N = 330

Table 12

Frequencies and Percentages of Respondents
by the Number of Years Since Their
Terminal Degree Was Awarded

	1-10 YEARS SINCE DEGREE AWARDED		11-20 YEARS SINCE DEGREE AWARDED		21-31 YEARS SINCE DEGREE AWARDED	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
MALES	131	68.9	49	25.8	10	5.3
FEMALES	97	69.8	37	26.6	5	3.6
	228	69.3	86	26.1	15	4.6

N = 329

sample have had the degree for more than 20 years.

The preceding findings were presented so as to give some perspective on the results reported in the following section which compares men and women professor's responses to questions on their interests in assuming an administrative position, the levels of administration to which they aspire, and the reasons they have for an interest in becoming an administrator. Crosstabulations were computed on the sex of the respondent and their interest in administration with eight of the personal and academic descriptor variables.

Faculty Interests in University Administration

The belief that women are not interested in the administration of educational systems has frequently been used to justify the low representation of women in the highest echelons of university administrations (Carroll, 1972). Particularly noticeable has been the absence of women in the administrations of public, coeducational universities. To investigate the accuracy of this assumption, the following hypotheses were formulated:

I. There will be no difference between male and female respondent's interest in an university administrative position.

II. There will be no difference between male and female respondent's administrative aspiration levels.

III. There will be no difference between male and female respondent's evaluation of the importance of eight given reasons for seeking an administrative position.

IV. There will be no difference between male and female

respondent's administrative interests when compared within

- a. age levels
- b. marital status groups
- c. academic ranks
- d. tenure status
- e. years for tenure review groups
- f. years of teaching experience groups
- g. groups with, and without, previous administrative experience
- h. groups who had, and had not, been asked previously to apply for an administrative position.

Administrative Interests

HYPOTHESIS I

There will be no difference between male and female respondent's interest in an university administrative position.

The responses to the question on interest in an administrative position showed that over half of the university professors would like to assume an administrative post (Table 13). Of specific importance to this study was the comparison of women's and men's aspirations for an administrative career. Based on the data in Table 13, no significant difference was found to exist between the interests of men and women, therefore H_0 I was not rejected. However, the fact that a greater proportion of women professors (58.8 percent), than men professors (50.0 percent), expressed an interest in an administrative position was of primary importance to this study in that all previous studies on

Table 13

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents
and Their Interests for an
Administrative Position

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 2.13969$ p > .05 r = -0.08725 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALES	95	50.0	95	50.0	
FEMALES	80	58.8	56	41.2	
TOTALS	175	53.7	151	46.7	

N = 326

administrative aspirations have shown women to have relatively fewer aspirations for positions of leadership. These data suggest that the low representation of women as administrators in land-grant universities should no longer be justified on the basis of their lack of interest.

Within the group of 175 respondents who indicated an interest in assuming an administrative position, 60 professors would like to have an administrative position at the present time and 115 wanted an administrative post, but had reasons for delaying their move. Their reasons fell into three general categories: (1) they wanted more time for developing their credentials, (2) they felt that opportunities would be limited for securing the right position and, therefore, a delay would most likely be required of them, and (3) they had various personal reasons which might delay their move to an administrative position.

Over one half of the respondents (57.5 percent) who wished to delay a move to administration wanted to develop some aspect of their credentials (Table 14). Within this first group of delay responses, 25 professors specified that they needed more time to write and/or to complete research, while 13 thought that they needed more experience in teaching. A few were waiting to gain a higher academic rank, and 13 others were wanting to be tenured first.

Over 23 percent of the respondents indicated that their move to an administrative position might be delayed because of limited opportunities. Sixteen professors noted that it would most likely take time for the "right" opportunity to become available to them. To four people, "opportunity" meant being asked to serve. One woman professor remarked that she assumed the opportunity to gain an administrative

Table 14
 A Comparison of Reasons for Delaying a Move
 into an Administrative Position by Sex
 of Respondents

REASONS FOR DELAY	MALE		FEMALE		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. NEED TIME TO DEVELOP CREDENTIALS	40	59.7	37	55.2	77	57.5
2. NEED TIME BECAUSE OPPORTUNITIES ARE LIMITED	15	22.4	17	25.4	32	23.9
3. PERSONAL REASONS	12	17.9	13	19.4	25	18.6
	67	50.0	67	50.0	134	

position was nearly hopeless, therefore a lengthy delay was probably inevitable.

Respondents in the third group had various personal reasons for delaying their administrative plans. Predominant in this group were those who expressed some doubt as to how strong their interests were for an administrative position. A few expressed family reasons which necessitated a delay, and two felt they needed to be older before becoming an administrator.

Of those people interested in administration, just over 65 percent expressed some reason for delaying their plans. This high proportion may be related to the high proportion of professors who were both interested in administration and in the youngest age group (42.9 percent) (Table 18).

Levels of Aspirations

Most of the research which has been done with elementary and secondary school teachers has supported the notion that women teachers do not aspire to administrative positions in the same way as do men teachers. In addition, of women do aspire, they do not aspire to the same levels of administration to which men aspire. Generally, as the level of responsibility increases the proportion of women interested in administration decreases (McMillan, 1975).

Working under the assumption that university women faculty aspirations cannot be compared with elementary and secondary school teachers' aspirations and that legal and attitudinal changes have transpired during the 70's to affect women's aspirations, hypothesis

II was formed.

HYPOTHESIS II

There will be no difference between male and female respondent's administrative aspiration levels.

To determine the respondent's level of aspiration a checklist was used which identified the typical levels found in the administrative hierarchy of most universities. Both staff and line positions were included.

To obtain a more realistic and precise identification of the respondent's level of aspiration, a checklist was arranged in two parts: the first part to identify the level at which they wanted to begin an administrative career, and the second part to designate the level at which they ultimately hoped to achieve.

Responses to the question on beginning level aspirations are reported in Part I of Table 15. Of the 175 respondents who were interested in an administrative position (Table 13), 53 percent indicated that they wanted to begin as chairman/head of a department/division; in this group were 61.4 percent of the men and 43.6 percent of the women. More women (17.9 percent), however, than men (9.1 percent), indicated that they wanted to begin as an assistant or associate dean. Twice the percentage of women (9.0 percent), as men (4.5 percent), chose a deanship as a starting point. No respondent suggested that they wanted to begin as president.

Nearly 20 percent of the respondents designated staff (assistant) positions as an entry point. Slightly more of the women (20.6 percent), than men (19.4 percent), were in this group. There was no significant

Table 15

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents with Administrative Level
at Which They Wanted to Begin and Level
They Ultimately Wanted to Achieve

ADMINISTRATIVE LEVELS	PART I: BEGINNING LEVEL						PART II: ULTIMATE LEVEL TO ACHIEVE					
	MALES		FEMALES		TOTALS		MALES		FEMALES		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
President or Chancellor	-	-	-	-	-	-	19	21.1	12	15.4	31	18.5
Assistant to the President or Chancellor	2	2.3	2	2.6	4	2.4	6	6.7	5	6.4	11	6.5
Chief Officer of Administrative Division	2	2.3	1	1.3	3	1.8	8	8.9	19	24.4	27	16.1
Assistant to Chief Officer of an Administrative Division	5	5.7	7	9.0	12	7.2	-	-	-	-	-	-
Dean of a College	4	4.5	7	9.0	11	6.6	27	30.0	23	29.5	50	29.8
Assistant to the Dean of a College	10	11.4	7	9.0	17	10.2	2	2.2	1	1.3	3	1.8
Assistant or Associate Dean	8	9.1	14	17.9	22	13.3	4	4.4	3	3.8	7	4.2
Chairman or Head of a Department or Division	54	61.4	34	43.6	88	53.0	22	24.4	9	11.5	31	18.5
Other (specified by respondent)	3	3.4	6	7.7	9	5.4	2	2.2	6	7.7	8	4.8

df = 7
 $\chi^2 = 8.62497$
p > .05

df = 7
 $\chi^2 = 13.61315$
p > .05

difference, though, between men and women professors' beginning administrative aspiration levels.

It should be noted that 28.2 percent of the women sought line offices above the level of chairman/head of a department/division, as compared to 15.9 percent of the men. While the differences were not found to be significant, these findings suggest that women are not reluctant to begin at a level at least comparable to, and perhaps higher than, levels selected by men.

The second part of the question investigating levels of aspirations attempted to determine the administrative level which men and women respondents ultimately hoped to achieve. As might be expected, the respondents' aims were set higher. Over 64 percent of the respondents who were interested in administration aspired ultimately to the highest three line offices (president, chief officer of an administrative division, and dean of a college). A larger proportion of the women (69.3 percent), than men (60.0 percent), comprised this group. Only 8.4 percent of the respondents sought these same administrative levels for a beginning position.

A breakdown by administrative levels showed that men (21.1 percent) were more likely than women (15.4 percent) to aspire to the presidency, while women were nearly three times as likely as men to identify the role of chief officer of an administrative division (i.e., Vice President of Academic Affairs, Vice President of Student Affairs) as their goal. The largest proportion of both men (29.5 percent) and women (30.0 percent) indicated that they aspired to a deanship. More

men (24.4 percent), than women (11.5 percent), sought as their ultimate goal the position of chairman/head of a department/division, while few respondents reported that they were interested in the associate or assistant dean position.

Even though nearly 20 percent of the respondents wanted to begin in a staff position, few chose these positions as their ultimate goal in administration. None of the respondents indicated the position of assistant to a chief officer of an administrative division as their goal.

Though the patterns for men and women varied in their selection of both beginning and ultimate administrative goals, the differences between men's and women's responses to each part of the question were not significant. Therefore, H_0 II was not rejected.

Reasons for Interest in Administration

In an attempt to determine if men and women differed in their motives for aspiring to an administrative career, they were asked to respond to a set of eight statements identifying reasons one might have for an interest in administration.

HYPOTHESIS III

There will be no difference between male and female respondent's evaluation of the importance of eight given reasons for seeking an administrative position (Table 16).

Statement 1: I could be a more effective administrator than many I know.

Most respondents indicated that their interest in administration

was due, in part, to their belief that they could be a more effective administrator than many they knew. Some felt strongly enough on this subject that they reinforced the statement with written comments.

About 90 percent of the respondents indicated that this reason was of either moderate or great importance to them in their decision to assume an administrative position (Table 16). A larger percentage of the women (45.1 percent), than men (41.7 percent), designated this factor as of great importance, but this was not a significant difference between men's and women's responses to Statement 1.

Statement 2: I would receive a higher salary.

The majority of the respondents felt that salary was of moderate importance as a reason for assuming an administrative position. A higher percentage of the men (24.0 percent), than of the women (13.4 percent), thought salary was of great importance, but then, a higher percentage of the men also felt salary was of little importance to their interest in an administrative position. There was no significant difference though in the responses to Statement 2.

Statement 3: I would like the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position.

Nearly 60 percent of the women respondents indicated that the challenge of the decision-making responsibilities which accompany an administrative job was of great importance to them in the reasons for their interest. Just over half of the men also felt this reason was of great importance. Only 15.6 percent of the men and 6.1 percent of the women checked the statement as of little importance (Table 16).

A chi square test for independence was not significant at the

.05 level; the Pearson correlation coefficient was +0.13251, which was significant at .04.

Statement 4: As an administrator I can ultimately help more people reach their educational goals.

A greater proportion of women than men (50.0 percent and 45.3 percent, respectively) responded that becoming an administrator so as to help more people reach their educational goals was of great importance. Thirty-five percent of the respondents indicated that this altruistic reason for becoming an administrator was of moderate importance, and 17.5 percent thought the reason was of little importance. There was no statistical significance to the difference between the responses of men and women to Statement 4.

Statement 5: I would like the challenge of learning new skills required by the position.

Women respondents saw this reason as being more important than did men respondents. Over 48 percent of the women as compared to 30.2 percent of the men indicated that the challenge of learning new skills would be of great importance in their decision to assume an administrative position. Twice the proportion of men, as women, however, saw this reasons as being of little importance to them.

A chi square test for independence indicated a significant difference at the .05 level. A Pearson correlation coefficient of .21 was significant at the .05 level.

Statement 6: I would like the responsibility of being in charge of the work of other people.

Most men and women professors responded that this reason was of

little, or moderate, importance to them. Only 13.5 percent of the men and 18.3 percent of the women indicated that being in charge of the work of other people was of great importance to them. This response is interesting in that most of the respondents eventually wanted to acquire line office positions (Table 15), which are invested with the responsibility of being in charge of other people's work.

Men's and women's responses to Statement 6 were not statistically significant in their differences.

Statement 7: An administrative position has more prestige than a teaching position.

Both men and women respondents rejected the idea that administrative positions would bring them more prestige. Slightly more women (69.5 percent), than men (67.4 percent), said this reason was of little importance to them (Table 16). Several respondents who were interested in becoming an administrator made comment that the statement was not true. The feeling that administrative positions offer little prestige in the academic community was also reiterated by some professor in the "not interested" group when they were expressing the reasons for their lack of interest in administration. For example, one professor wrote that an administrative position "would be too confining intellectually, with no lasting rewards, and no professional esteem."

Men and women tended to give similar responses to Statement 7. The results were not statistically significant.

Statement 8: There would be satisfaction in working with the type of people who tend to become administrators.

This statement drew considerable negative response. In

Table 16

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents with Reasons for Interest
in an Administrative Position

		LI*		MI*		GI*		
		N	%	N	%	N	%	
1. I could be a more effective administrator than many I know	MALES	11	11.5	45	46.9	40	41.7	df = 2 $\chi^2 = 0.49809$ p > .05 r = 0.04883 p > .05
	FEMALES	7	8.5	38	46.3	37	45.1	
TOTALS		18	10.1	83	46.6	77	43.3	
2. I would receive a higher salary	MALES	27	28.1	46	47.9	23	24.0	df = 2 $\chi^2 = 3.76239$ p > .05 r = -0.06802 p > .05
	FEMALES	22	26.8	49	59.8	11	13.4	
TOTALS		49	27.5	95	53.4	34	19.1	
3. I would like the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position	MALES	15	15.6	32	33.3	49	51.0	df = 2 $\chi^2 = 4.19147$ p > .05 r = 0.13251 p ≤ .05
	FEMALES	5	6.1	28	34.1	49	59.8	
TOTALS		20	11.2	60	33.7	98	55.1	
4. As an administrator I can ultimately help more people reach their educational goals	MALES	18	18.9	34	35.8	43	45.3	df = 2 $\chi^2 = 0.48252$ p > .05 r = 0.05218 p > .05
	FEMALES	13	15.9	28	34.1	41	50.0	
TOTALS		31	17.5	62	35.0	84	47.5	

*(LI) = Little Importance, (MI) = Moderate Importance, (GI) = Great Importance

Table 16 (continued)

		LI		MI		GI		
		N	%	N	%	N	%	
5. I would like the challenge of learning new skills required by the position	MALES	29	30.2	38	39.6	29	30.2	df = 2 $\chi^2 = 8.00622$ p < .05 r = 0.21178 p < .05
	FEMALES	13	15.9	29	35.4	40	48.8	
TOTALS		42	23.6	67	37.6	69	38.8	
6. I would like the responsibility of being in charge of the work of other people	MALES	42	43.8	41	42.7	13	13.5	df = 2 $\chi^2 = 0.77989$ p > .05 r = 0.05770 p > .05
	FEMALES	33	40.2	34	41.5	15	18.3	
TOTALS		75	42.1	75	42.1	28	15.7	
7. An administrative position has more prestige than a teaching position	MALES	64	67.4	21	22.1	10	10.5	df = 2 $\chi^2 = 3.26023$ p > .95 r = -0.07244 p > .05
	FEMALES	57	69.5	22	26.8	3	3.7	
TOTALS		121	68.4	43	24.3	13	7.3	
8. There would be satisfaction in working with the type of people who tend to become administrators	MALES	80	86.0	10	10.8	2	2.2	df = 2 $\chi^2 = 2.40578$ p > .05 r = 0.05378 p > .05
	FEMALES	64	80.0	13	16.3	3	3.8	
TOTALS		144	83.2	23	13.3	5	2.9	

addition to having a high proportion (83.2 percent) of the respondents indicate that the reason was of little importance to them in their decision to assume an administrative role, several wrote unsolicited negative comments beside the statement.

No significant difference was found between the sexes in the responses to Statement 8.

The preceding eight statements were included in the study to determine if men and women differed in their reasons for having an interest in assuming an administrative role. Collectively, men's and women's reasons for their interests differed little; however, a significant difference was noted between men's and women's responses to statement five. Based on this finding H_0 III was rejected in part.

Rank Ordering of Reason Statements

To obtain a more precise answer to the question on motives or reasons which might influence a professor's decision to become an administrator in higher education, the respondents were asked to rank order the three reasons from the list of eight, which were of greatest importance to them.

To determine the statements which were selected most often for each of the three choices, weighted scores were used. To obtain the scores, frequencies and percentages were recorded for each statement identified by the respondents as their first, second, and third choice. Three points were assigned to reasons ranked number one, two points for reasons ranked number two, and one point was assigned to reasons ranked third (Tables 17a, b, c). Table 17d gives the weighted score totals.

Table 17a

Frequencies and Percentages for First Choice in Rank Ordering
of Reasons for Administrative Interests

REASONS FOR INTEREST	FIRST CHOICE					
	MALES		FEMALES		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. I could be a more effective administrator than many I know.	19	20.7	15	19.2	34	20.0
2. I would receive a higher salary.	9	9.8	3	3.8	12	7.1
3. I would like the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position.	22	23.9	28	35.9	50	29.4
4. As an administrator I can ultimately help more people reach their educational goals.	29	31.5	20	25.6	49	28.8
5. I would like the challenge of learning new skills required by the position.	12	13.0	11	14.1	23	13.5
6. I would like the responsibility of being in charge of the work of other people.	-	-	1	1.3	1	.6
7. An administrative position has more prestige than a teaching position.	1	1.1	-	-	1	.6
8. There would be satisfaction in working with the type of people who tend to become administrators.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 17b

Frequencies and Percentages for Second Choice in Rank Ordering
of Reasons for Administrative Interests

REASONS FOR INTEREST	SECOND CHOICE					
	MALES		FEMALES		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. I could be a more effective administrator than many I know.	21	22.8	12	15.2	33	19.3
2. I would receive a higher salary.	13	14.1	10	12.7	23	13.4
3. I would like the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position.	21	22.8	15	19.0	36	21.0
4. As an administrator I can ultimately help more people reach their educational goals.	13	14.1	20	25.3	33	19.3
5. I would like the challenge of learning new skills required by the position.	12	26.1	16	20.2	28	16.4
6. I would like the responsibility of being in charge of the work of other people.	10	10.9	5	6.3	15	8.8
7. An administrative position has more prestige than a teaching position.	2	2.2	1	1.3	3	1.8
8. There would be satisfaction in working with the type of people who tend to become administrators.	-	-	-	-	-	-

Table 17c

Frequencies and Percentages for Third Choice in Rank Ordering
of Reasons for Administrative Interests

REASONS FOR INTEREST	THIRD CHOICE					
	MALES		FEMALES		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
1. I could be a more effective administrator than many I know.	9	10.1	14	18.4	23	13.9
2. I would receive a higher salary.	18	20.2	10	13.2	28	17.0
3. I would like the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position.	25	28.1	18	23.7	43	26.1
4. As an administrator I can ultimately help more people reach their educational goals.	10	11.2	6	7.9	16	9.7
5. I would like the challenge of learning new skills required by the position.	7	7.9	15	19.7	22	13.3
6. I would like the responsibility of being in charge of the work of other people.	11	12.4	10	13.2	21	12.7
7. An administrative position has more prestige than a teaching position.	7	7.9	1	1.3	8	4.9
8. There would be satisfaction in working with the type of people who tend to become administrators.	2	2.2	2	2.6	4	2.4

Table 17d

Weighted Scores for First, Second and Third Choices in Rank Ordering
of Reasons for Administrative Interests

REASONS FOR INTEREST	TOTAL WEIGHTED SCORES*		
	MALES	FEMALES	TOTALS
3. I would like the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position.	145.4	169.4	314.8
4. As an administrator I can ultimately help more people reach their educational goals.	133.9	135.3	269.2
1. I could be a more effective administrator than many I know.	117.8	106.4	224.2
5. I would like the challenge of learning new skills required by the position.	99.1	102.4	201.5
2. I would receive a higher salary.	77.8	50.0	127.8
6. I would like the responsibility of being in charge of the work of other people.	34.2	29.7	63.9
7. An administrative position has more prestige than a teaching position.	15.6	3.9	19.5
8. There would be satisfaction in working with the type of people who tend to become administrators.	2.2	2.6	4.8

*Weighted = 3X First Choice, 2X Second Choice, and 1X Third Choice

Based on weighted scores the same three reasons emerged as most important for both men and women. They indicated that statement three, the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position, was of the greatest importance. They ranked second statement four, which stated that as an administrator they could ultimately help more people reach their educational goals. In third place they selected statement one, which indicated they felt they could be a more effective administrator than many they knew. Even though men and women varied in the proportions who selected each statement, the weighted ranks for each of the eight reasons were the same for men and for women.

Administrative Interests and Descriptor Variables

The interests men and women respondents held for administrative positions were further examined by comparing them with personal and academic descriptor variables. For this portion of the investigation, the following hypothesis was formed:

HYPOTHESIS IV

There will be no difference between male and female respondent's administrative interests when compared within

- a. age levels
- b. marital status groups
- c. academic ranks

- d. tenure status
- e. years for tenure review groups
- f. years of teaching experience levels
- g. groups with and without previous administrative experience
- h. groups who had, and had not, been asked previously to apply for an administrative position

$H_0^{IV_a}$ - Age

There will be no difference between sex of the respondent and their administrative interests when compared within age levels: Level I, ages 27-35; Level II, ages 36-45; and Level III, ages 46-65.

The larger proportion of respondents (56.0 percent) within the youngest age group (Table 18, Level I), were interested in an administrative position. Of those who expressed an interest, 59.3 percent were women and 53.3 percent were men.

The differences in the administrative interests of men and women were very slight within Level II. Again, as with the youngest age group, more respondents were interested than not in an administrative position.

Within Level III, a considerably larger percentage of the women (65.5 percent), than of the men (28.1 percent), expressed an interest in assuming an administrative role. Older men appeared to have little interest in administration. The difference between the interests of men and women between the ages of 46 and 65, was significant at the .01 level.

Even though for Level I and Level II of the age groups the

Table 18

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents and Their Interests
in Administration Within Age Levels

Level I: Ages 26-35

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.26829$ p > .05 r = -0.05988 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	40	53.3	35	46.7	
FEMALE	35	59.3	24	40.7	
TOTALS	75	56.0	59	44.0	

N = 134

Level II: Ages 36-45

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 2 $\chi^2 = 0.0$ p > .05 r = 0.01216 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	46	55.4	37	44.6	
FEMALE	26	54.2	22	45.8	
TOTALS	72	55.0	59	45.0	

N = 131

Level III: Ages 46-65

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 7.12618$ p ≤ .01 r = -0.37473 p ≤ .01
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	9	28.1	23	71.9	
FEMALE	19	65.5	10	34.9	
TOTALS	28	45.9	33	54.1	

N = 61

reported data showed no significant differences, there were significant differences at Level III; therefore, H_{0IV_a} was rejected in part.

H_{0IV_b} - Marital Status Groups

There will be no difference between sex of the respondent and their administrative interests when compared within marital status groups.

Data reported in Table 19 showed that a greater proportion of the married women (67.6 percent) tended to be interested in administrative careers than were the married men (50.0 percent). A chi square test for independence showed the difference to be significant at the .05 level. The Pearson Correlation Coefficient was significant at .01.

Of the previously married group of respondents (Group II), a slightly larger proportion (52.2 percent) expressed an interest in an administrative position. Like the married men, the interests of the men in this group split evenly. Again, the larger proportion of women indicated an interest in assuming an administrative post.

In Group III, the never married professors, a larger percentage of the women respondents had no interest in administration. This response was in contrast to the interests expressed by both the married and previously married women.

Marital status for men did not seem to make a difference in their administrative interests. Within each marital status group precisely one half were interested in an administrative position and one half were not interested.

Due to the difference between men's and women's administrative

Table 19

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents and Their Interest
in Administration Within Marital Status Groups

Group I: Married

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 5.58459$ $p \leq .05$ $r = -0.16519$ $p \leq .01$
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	78	50.0	78	50.0	
FEMALE	50	67.6	24	32.4	
TOTALS	128	55.7	102	44.3	

N = 230

Group II: Previously Married

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.0$ $p > .05$ $r = -0.04167$ $p > .05$
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	11	50.0	11	50.0	
FEMALE	13	54.2	11	45.8	
TOTALS	24	52.2	22	47.8	

N = 46

Group III: Never Married

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.0$ $p > .05$ $r = 0.04510$ $p > .05$
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	6	50.0	6	50.0	
FEMALE	17	44.7	21	55.3	
TOTALS	23	46.0	27	54.0	

N = 50

interests within the married group, which was found to be significant, $H_0 IV_b$ was rejected in part.

$H_0 IV_c$ - Academic Ranks

There will be no difference between sex of the respondent and their administrative interests when compared within academic ranks.

To determine if academic rank affected men and women professors' interests in assuming an administrative position, the respondents were compared within the academic ranks of full, associate and assistant professor (Table 20).

There were only 31 respondents with the rank of full professor and the larger proportion of this group (61.3 percent) held no interest in becoming administrators. This negative response was due, for the most part, to the high percentage of men, full professors who did not have administrative aspirations. Women full professors, however, tended to be more interested in administration. The difference between the responses of men and women full professors was not shown to be significant at the .05 level when treated to a chi square analysis; the Pearson coefficient did show a significant negative relationship at the .05 level.

Over half of the associate professors (53.8 percent) were interested in administrative positions. Women tended to show more interest than did men, but the findings were not statistically significant.

An even larger proportion of the assistant professors, than associate professors, indicated they were interested in assuming

Table 20

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents and Their Administrative
Interests Within Academic Ranks

Rank I: Full Professor

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 2.98520$ p > .05 r = -0.37952 p < .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	5	25.0	15	75.0	
FEMALE	7	63.6	4	36.4	
TOTALS	12	38.7	19	61.3	

N = 31

Rank II: Associate Professor

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.25447$ p > .05 r = -0.05264 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	49	51.6	46	48.4	
FEMALE	37	56.9	28	43.1	
TOTALS	86	53.8	74	46.3	

N = 160

Rank III: Assistant Professor

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.19989$ p > .05 r = -0.05353 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	41	54.7	34	45.3	
FEMALE	36	60.9	24	40.0	
TOTALS	77	57.0	58	43.0	

N = 135

administrative roles. Sixty percent of the women in this group had administrative aspirations. There was no significant difference though, between the responses of men and women assistant professors.

While the Pearson correlation coefficient was reported as significant at the .05 level within the rank of full professor, the chi square showed no statistical difference to occur within any of the three ranks. Based on these findings $H_0 IV_c$ was not rejected.

$H_0 IV_d$ - Tenure Status

There will be no difference between sex of the respondent and their administrative interests when compared within tenured and untenured groups.

Within the tenured group, women indicated greater interest in administration than did men. Sixty percent of the tenured women, as compared to 45.6 percent of the men, had administrative aspirations (Table 21). A chi square analysis did not show the difference between the responses of tenured men and women to be significant.

A greater percentage of untenured professors (57.9 percent), than tenured professors (51.2 percent), responded that they had administrative aspirations. More untenured men (58.5 percent), than tenured men (45.6 percent), were interested. The larger proportion of women in both Groups I and II expressed an interest in an administrative position.

Within the untenured group there was little difference between the proportion of men and women who were interested, and not interested,

Table 21

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents and Their Interests
in Administration Within Tenured and Untenured Groups

Group I: Tenured

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 3.49262$ p > .05 r = -0.14052 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	57	45.6	68	54.4	
FEMALE	48	60.0	32	40.0	
TOTALS	105	51.2	100	48.2	

N = 205

Group II: Untenured

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.0$ p > .05 r = 0.01332 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	38	58.5	27	41.5	
FEMALE	32	57.1	24	42.9	
TOTALS	70	57.9	51	42.1	

N = 121

in an administrative position.

Data reported in Table 21 showed that no significant difference existed within Group I, tenured professors, and Group II, untenured professors. $H_0 IV_d$ was not rejected.

$H_0 IV_e$ - Year of Tenure Review

There will be no difference between sex of the respondent and their administrative interests when compared within groups for tenure review.

In an attempt to determine if the immediacy of a tenure decision were affecting men and women differently in their interests in administration, the untenured professors were grouped according to those who had been reviewed or were to be reviewed within one year (Group I), and those who had a minimum of two years before review (Group II). Group I included those professors who were to be reviewed during the academic years of 1978-79, 1979-80, and 1980-81, while Group II included the academic years of 1981-82, 1982-83, 1983-84, and 1984-85 (Table 22).

A higher proportion of Group I than Group II had administrative aspirations. Within Group I a higher percentage of women (65.0 percent) than men (57.1 percent) tended to have an interest in administration. This pattern was reversed within Group II where a higher proportion of men (61.1 percent) as compared to women (53.3 percent) expressed administrative interests.

Within neither group were the differences significant; therefore, $H_0 IV_e$ was not rejected.

Table 22

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents and Their Interest
in Administration Within Tenure Review Year Groups

Group I: 1978-79, 1979-80, 1980-81

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.06222$ p > .05 r = -0.07921 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	16	57.1	12	42.9	
FEMALE	13	65.0	7	35.0	
TOTALS	29	60.4	19	39.6	

N = 48

Group II: 1981-82, 1982-83, 1983-84, 1984-85

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.14939$ p > .05 r = 0.07836 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	22	61.1	14	38.9	
FEMALE	16	53.3	14	46.7	
TOTALS	38	57.6	28	42.4	

N = 66

To examine further the relationship of the tenure review year with the respondents' interest in administration, untenured professors who had indicated an interest in assuming an administrative role were identified along with the year of their review (Table 23). Only four respondents in this group were reviewed in 1978-79, which was presumed to mean that they had not received tenure but were still interested in an administrative position. Six of the respondents were waiting a tenure decision at the time they completed the questionnaire for this study. The largest proportion of untenured, but interested, respondents were to be reviewed within the upcoming year of 1980-81. Over 34 percent of all women respondents were in this group.

The reasons for the low proportion of respondents for the years 1978-79, 1983-84 and 1984-85 may have been suggested by a few of the professors in the sample. As pointed out previously, two non-respondents, who had been turned down for tenure, communicated that they had decided it was not appropriate for them to become part of the study. This attitude may have accounted for a lower percentage of respondents in the 1978-79 group, and those who did respond might not have indicated an interest in administrative careers when their teaching careers were uncertain. A few respondents wrote that they were too young to consider an administrative position at this time, possibly accounting for the low proportion of respondents in the 1983-84 and 1984-85 group.

H_{0IV_f} - Teaching Experience

There will be no difference between sex of the respondent and

Table 23

Number of Respondents Who Are Interested in Administration
by Year of Their Tenure Review

YEAR TO BE REVIEWED	MALE		FEMALE		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Group I:						
1978-79	3	7.9	1	3.4	4	6.0
1979-80	4	10.5	2	6.9	6	9.0
1980-81	9	23.4	10	34.5	19	28.4
Group II:						
1981-82	9	23.7	5	17.2	14	20.9
1982-83	5	13.2	6	20.7	11	16.4
1983-84	4	10.5	3	10.3	7	10.4
1984-85	4	10.5	2	6.9	6	9.0
	38		29		67	

their administrative interests when compared within years of teaching experience levels.

In an effort to determine if the number of years of teaching experience affected a professor's interest in administration, the years of teaching experience reported by the respondents were grouped into three levels: Level I, 1-10 years; Level II, 11-20 years; and Level III, 21-35 years (Table 24).

Those respondents who had the fewest years of teaching experience tended to be the most interested. Over 57 percent of the professors in Level I indicated an interest, while 42.5 percent indicated no interest in administration. Within this group a higher, but not significant, proportion of women (62.8 percent) than men (53.5 percent) reported that they were interested in becoming administrators.

Within Level II, 11-20 years of teaching experience, the higher percentage of men (55.2 percent) indicated that they were not interested in administration, while the higher proportion of women (52.3 percent) said they had administrative aspirations. The difference between their responses, however, was not significant.

At Level III, 21-35 years of teaching experience, more of the professors (56.5 percent) were uninterested in assuming an administrative role. As in Level I and Level II, the higher proportion of those who did not have administrative aspirations were men.

Within each of the three levels of teaching experience no significant difference between the responses of men and women as to their administrative interests were reported. Based on the data in Table 24, $H_0 IV_f$ was not rejected.

Table 24

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents and Interest in
Administration Within Levels of Years of Teaching
Experience in Higher Education

Level I: 1-10 Years Teaching Experience

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 1.36924$ p > .05 r = -0.09295 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	61	53.5	53	46.5	
FEMALE	54	62.8	32	37.2	
TOTALS	115	57.5	85	42.5	

N = 200

Level II: 11-20 Years Teaching Experience

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.29736$ p > .05 r = -0.07380 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	26	44.8	32	55.2	
FEMALE	23	52.3	21	47.7	
TOTALS	49	48.0	53	52.0	

N = 102

Level III: 21-35 Years Teaching Experience

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.0$ p > .05 r = -0.07816 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	7	41.2	10	58.2	
FEMALE	3	50.0	3	50.0	
TOTALS	10	43.5	13	56.5	

N = 23

H_{0g}^{IV} - Previous Administrative Experience

There will be no difference between sex of the respondent and their administrative interests when compared within groups which have, and have not, had administrative experience.

To determine if experience as an administrator served to encourage or discourage further involvement in leadership roles in higher education, respondents were asked to indicate whether they had had previous administrative experience.

In Group I, of those respondents who had had previous administrative experience, 57.9 percent reported that they were now interested in administration. The proportion of professors with administrative aspirations was greater in the group who had had experience as administrators (57.9 percent) than in the group of respondents who had had no administrative experience (51.9 percent) (Table 25).

Over 29 percent of all respondents indicated that they had had previous experience in administration. A slightly higher proportion of the women respondents (31.7 percent) than men respondents (27.0 percent) reported previous experience. These figures are in considerable contrast to the national reports on the proportion of women who hold administrative posts.

No statistically significant difference was reported for either Group I or Group II. H_{0g}^{IV} was not rejected.

H_{0h}^{IV} - Asked to Apply for a Position

There will be no difference between sex of the respondent and their administrative interests when compared within groups who had, and

Table 25

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents and Their Interests in Administration Within Groups Which Have, and Have Not, Had Previous Administrative Experience

Group I: Previous Experience

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 1.77511$ p > .05 r = -0.15816 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	27	50.9	26	49.1	
FEMALE	28	66.7	14	33.3	
TOTALS	55	57.9	40	42.1	

N = 95

Group II: No Previous Experience

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.51183$ p > .05 r = -0.05589 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	68	49.6	69	50.4	
FEMALE	52	55.3	42	44.7	
TOTALS	120	51.9	111	48.1	

N = 231

had not, been asked previously to apply for an administrative position.

Respondents were questioned as to whether they had ever been asked to apply for an administrative position. The purpose was to determine if being asked affected their interests in administration. Of secondary concern, the question attempted to determine if women were asked to apply in the same ratio as were men. It was recognized that "administrative positions" offered a very broad range of possibilities and the possibilities did not necessarily correspond with the administrative levels used in this study; however, most administrative roles have in common the responsibility of leadership.

Group I, those who previously had been asked to apply for an administrative position was composed of 28.4 percent of the respondents and Group II, those who previously had not been asked, included the remaining 71.6 percent of respondents (Table 26).

In Group I a larger proportion of women (65.9 percent) than men (50.0 percent) expressed an interest in assuming an administrative position. The difference between men's and women's responses, however, was not found to be significant.

A higher percentage of the women in Group II also reported that they were interested in an administrative post. The difference between the administrative interests of men and women within both Groups I and II was not statistically significant, and $H_o IV_h$ was not rejected.

When comparing the men in the two groups, there was no difference in their administrative interests, but the women who had been asked previously to apply for an administrative position (Group I) indicated that

Table 26

Crosstabulations of Sex of Respondents and Their
Administrative Interests Within Groups
Which Have, and Have Not, Been Asked
to Apply for Administrative Positions

Group I: Have Been Asked

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 1.70995$ p > .05 r = -0.15939 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	25	50.0	25	50.0	
FEMALE	27	65.9	14	34.1	
TOTALS	52	57.1	39	42.9	

N = 91

Group II: Have Not Been Asked

	INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		NOT INTERESTED IN ADMINISTRATION		df = 1 $\chi^2 = 0.34819$ p > .05 r = -0.04743 p > .05
	N	%	N	%	
MALE	70	50.0	70	50.0	
FEMALE	51	54.8	42	45.2	
TOTALS	121	51.9	112	48.1	

N = 233

they had greater interest in administration than those women who had not been asked to apply for a position (Group II).

As to whether women were being considered as potential candidates for administrative positions in the same ratio as were men, the data showed that 31.4 percent of the women, as compared to 26.2 percent of the men respondents, reported that they had been asked to apply for an administrative position. These figures should serve to dispel the notion that most women are not considered as potential candidates as often as are men. The unanswered question, however, is what type of administrative positions respondents were asked to apply for.

In the preceding section the administrative interests of men and women respondents were compared with eight personal and academic descriptor variables. Within two of the eight variables, a significant effect on the administrative interests of men and women respondents was reported. The differences, however, were significant within only one of the three levels within the variables of age and marital status. Women in the oldest age group expressed more interest in administration than did the men and more married women aspired to an administrative position than did married men. These findings suggest that even though there were some differences reported, the strongest trend was toward similarities between men and women in their administrative interests. Based on the statistical significance reported for the eight variables, however, H_0 IV was rejected in part.

No Interest Responses

Over 46 percent of the respondents indicated that they had no

interest in an administrative position. Of secondary importance to this study, were the reasons held for their lack of interest. An open-ended question was used so the respondents were free to give as many responses as they were inspired to write. The statements were varied, but could be grouped into three general categories: those which expressed (1) positive feelings about what they were doing, (2) negative attitudes toward administrative responsibilities or toward administrators, and (3) various personal reasons which they believed made it inappropriate for them to become an administrator. The results of this categorization were reported in Table 27.

The major reasons professors, male and female, had for not wanting an administrative position was due to their interest in research, writing and/or teaching. Over 59 percent of the women and 53.9 percent of the men expressed their positive feelings about the work in which they were currently involved.

Reasons, second in importance, which kept professors from holding an interest in an administrative role, were those negative in nature about administrative duties and administrators. A large proportion of this group expressed the feeling that there was little significance to the work accomplished by administrators. Some respondents felt that administrative efforts were becoming increasingly more meaningless as a result of the diminishment of both power and resources. One respondent described an administrator's job as one of "mostly fighting a rearguard action of preserving and distributing steadily declining resources."

Some respondents were bitterly critical in their assessment of

Table 27

Frequencies and Percentages of Reasons Stated
for Having No Interest in Administrative
Positions

REASONS FOR NO INTEREST	MALES		FEMALES		TOTALS	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
I. Positive feeling about current work: teaching, research or writing	76	53.9	55	59.1	131	56.0
II. Negative feeling about administrative work and/or administrators	49	34.8	33	35.5	82	35.0
III. Personal reasons	16	11.3	5	5.4	21	9.0
	141		93		234	

N = 234

administrators they knew, and they did not want to become one. For example, one respondent described administrators as being "for the most part, unimaginative, colorless individuals content to promulgate rules and regulations they seldom understand." He continued with "Paraphrasing Camus, university administration is equivalent to intellectual suicide."

Only 9.0 percent gave personal reasons as the cause for their lack of interest in an administrative position. Of this group, several commented that their personality was not well-suited for an administrator's role. One person reported that his political views had already led to exclusion from even minor administrative duties and from contacts with people and situations that would make him an effective administrator. Very few respondents of either sex reported that their lack of interest was related to family responsibilities.

The respondents sometimes listed as many as three reasons. When multiple responses were given by a professor, all of the responses tended to fit into only one of the three categories. This pattern was particularly true for responses which fit either the first or second category.

The predominant response from the 151 professors who indicated that they had no desire for moving into an administrative position was one of being more interested in the work they were already involved in as professors: that of teaching, research, and writing.

Summary

The study was developed in an attempt to determine if faculty women and men had similar aspirations for positions of leadership in college and university administrations. There was also an effort to determine if men and women professors had similar levels of

administrative aspirations, and if their interests in administration were for similar reasons. In addition, various descriptor variables were studied to determine whether they interacted with sex of the respondent to produce an effect on aspirations for an administrative position.

Four hypotheses were developed and expressed in the null. These included:

Hypothesis I There will be no difference between male or female respondent's interest in an university administrative position.

Hypothesis II There will be no difference between male or female respondent's administrative aspiration levels.

Hypothesis III There will be no difference between male or female respondent's evaluation of the importance of eight given reasons for seeking an administrative position.

Hypothesis IV There will be no difference between male and female respondent's administrative interests when compared within

- a. age levels
- b. marital status
- c. academic ranks
- d. tenure status
- e. years for tenure review groups
- f. years of teaching experience groups
- g. groups with, and without, previous administrative experience
- h. groups who had, and had not, been asked previously to apply for an administrative position

A higher proportion of the women than the men expressed an

interest in an administrative position, but the findings for Hypothesis I showed no significant difference between the administrative interests of men and women. Hypothesis I was not rejected.

Men and women indicated that they aspired to similar levels of administration, both for an entry position and for a position they hoped ultimately to achieve, so that Hypothesis II was not rejected.

The respondents evaluated the importance of eight statements which were reasons for having an interest in an administrative position. Among the findings under Hypothesis III was a significant correlation coefficient for men and women professors' responses to Statement 3, which gave the challenge of the decision-making aspect of the administrative role as a reason for their interest. A significant difference was found for Statement 5, which listed as a reason for an administrative interest the challenge of learning new skills. Even though the strongest tendency was for similarity between men's and women's reasons for their administrative interests, H_0 III was rejected in part based on the statistically significant findings for Statement 5.

Under Hypothesis IV it was shown that of the eight variables tested, two were found to have had a significant effect on the administrative interests of the men and women respondents. The differences, however, were significant within only one of the three levels within each of the variables of age and marital status. A consideration of the crosstabulation of age with male and female administrative interests (Table 18) revealed that only in the oldest group, 46-65, was there a distinct difference between male's and female's expressed interest for

an administrative position. Specifically, a two to one majority of females expressed an interest in contrast to a two to one majority of males who had no interest. A review of the crosstabulations in Table 19 showed that only within the married group was there a distinct difference between male and female administrative interests. The male responses split 50-50, while nearly twice as many women expressed an interest as those women who indicated no interest. Collectively, the findings show strong similarities between the men's and women's administrative interests when compared to the personal and academic descriptor variables, but based on the statistically significant reports, H_0 IV was rejected in part.

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Attitudinal and legal changes, most of which have occurred since the mid-1960's, have both allowed and encouraged women to seek higher levels of education and to pursue professional careers. Often the careers chosen have been in fields dominated by men, an example being the movement of women into administrative positions in higher education, a domain historically left to men. National figures indicate that the percentage of women in college and university administration has been increasing. The increasing number of appointments, however, have tended to be mostly as assistants to the top-level positions. One justification often given for the continually low proportions of women in line offices is that women were not interested in these posts. Studies comparing the administrative aspirations of male and female teachers have typically centered on the elementary and secondary school faculty. The results of most of these studies have shown women to have only limited interest in elementary and secondary school administration.

A premise of this study, however, was that the professional goals of women university professors should not be assumed as similar to those of women public school teachers. In addition, it was reasoned that women who have made greater investments in their profession would

most likely have different aspirations.

The purpose of this study was to investigate the administrative aspirations of university professors as the people who tend to comprise the pool from which college and university administrators are drawn. Research questions were developed for the study to determine (1) if women and men have similar administrative aspirations, (2) if they aspire to the same levels of administration, (3) if they have similar reasons for their interest in an administrative position, and (4) if their interests in administration were similarly affected by various personal and academic descriptive variables.

The study involved all of the land-grant universities established by law in 1862 in the contiguous 48 states. The population included all professors with the rank of assistant or above from 18 departments typically found within Colleges of Arts and Sciences. From each university ten professors, six men and four women, were selected for the study sample.

The questionnaire was a four-part, 34 item instrument which required approximately 10 minutes to complete. Part I of the questionnaire sought demographic data, both personal and academic, while Part II explored the respondent's administrative interests. Only those respondents who reported an interest in higher education administration were asked to complete Parts III and IV. Part III was designed to determine the administrative levels at which respondents wanted to begin an administrative career and the level they ultimately hoped to achieve. The fourth part of the instrument attempted to compare the reasons men and women have for their interest in assuming an administrative position.

The 76 percent return rate, resulting from the initial mailing and one follow-up, provided 331 usable responses of which 192 were men, and 139 were women.

The data were analyzed utilizing the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Crosstabulations were carried out between sex of the respondent and (1) their administrative interests, (2) the administrative level to which they aspired, and (3) the reasons they held for their administrative interests. Chi square tests of independence were applied to these data to test for the significance of the relationship between sex of the respondent and these variables. In addition, crosstabulations were used to determine if the administrative interests of men and women were affected differently when compared with the personal and academic descriptor variables. A chi square test of independence was also used on these tables. When appropriate Pearson correlation coefficients were reported to indicate the direction and strength of the relationship between the variables being compared.

Four hypotheses were developed and stated in the null for the purpose of interpreting the data. No significant difference was found between men's and women's interests in an administrative position, although a slightly larger proportion of the women, than the men, expressed an interest in administration. Men's and women's administrative aspiration levels did not differ significantly either for entry level positions or for positions they ultimately hoped to achieve.

Generally, men and women respondents held similar reasons for their interest in administration. On only two out of eight statements of reasons were statistically significant findings reported. The

Pearson correlation coefficient showed a significant relationship between men's and women's evaluation of the statement that the challenge of the decision-making aspect of the administrative role was a reason for their interest. Women expressed a significantly greater interest, than did men, in seeking an administrative position for the challenge of learning new skills.

When the respondents were asked to rank order the three reasons which they considered most important for seeking an administrative position, both men and women selected the same three reasons in the same order. Their responses indicated that they were interested in administration primarily because (1) they would like the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position, (2) they felt they could ultimately help more people reach their educational goals, and (3) they believed that they could be a more effective administrator than many they knew.

Two out of eight personal and academic descriptor variables were found to have had a significant effect on the administrative interests of men and women respondents. Within the variable of age, the men in Level III (ages 46-65) expressed little interest in administration, while the women indicated a greater interest at this age level than any other age group of men or women. Within the marital status variable, the administrative interests of married men and women were found to be statistically different. More married women than married men held aspiration for an administrative post. When all eight personal and academic variables were considered together, the predominant tendency

was one of similarity between men's and women's administrative interests regardless of the descriptor variable being compared.

Respondents who reported that they had no interest in an administrative post most often stated that they preferred continuing their work as teacher, researcher and/or writer. The second most strongly held position was that respondents did not like administrative responsibilities and/or the people who tended to serve as administrators.

In conclusion, the dominant theme found in the responses to this survey was that women hold the same aspirations for positions of leadership in higher education as do men.

Conclusions

1. The low representation of women holding line positions in university administrations can no longer be justified on the basis that the women are not as interested as men in acquiring those positions of leadership. Women express an interest as great as, if not greater than, the interest expressed by men.
2. Women want to begin an administrative career at levels equal to, if not higher than, those identified by men. Both sexes tend to feel that the position of chairmen/head of a department/division is the most desirable entry point into administration. Women, however, are nearly twice as likely as men to want to start either at the assistant and associate dean level, or at the level of college dean.
3. Men and women aspire to line offices rather than staff offices as

their ultimate administrative goal. They are both more likely to identify a deanship than any other position as their goal. Men tended to seek a presidency more often than did women; women were nearly three times as likely to state that the position of chief officer of an administrative division was their long range goal. Men, more than twice as often as women, chose the position of chairman/head of a department/division as their goal. The distribution of men's and women's choices of administrative levels they hope to attain should serve to dispel any notion that women might not aspire to the same administrative levels as men.

4. It appears that women have limited access to line offices due to reasons other than a lack of interest. Over 67 percent of the women administrators in land-grant institutions have assistant or staff positions (NASULGC Report, 1978); yet, women were shown to be even less likely than men to identify these positions as their long range goal.

5. Women, with the exception of their greater interest in the challenge of learning new administrative skills, aspire to administrative offices for the same reasons as do men. Men and women are both attracted by the decision-making aspect of an administrative role and also believe that administration can provide an opportunity to help more people reach their educational goals. Both groups have confidence that they could be a more effective administrator than many they knew. Men and women were also in agreement that becoming an administrator would not give them more prestige than they had as professors, and that there would be little satisfaction in working with the type of people who

tended to become administrators.

6. Men and women over 45 years of age had considerably different administrative interests. Women in the oldest age range were more likely, than at any other age, to aspire to an administrative position, whereas men in that age group were the least likely to express an interest. Perhaps an awareness of the potential for new opportunities opening to them had inspired women to consider the possibilities of moving into positions of leadership.

7. Marriage is not a limiting factor to women in their aspirations for an administrative career. Married women were more likely than previously married or never married women to have an interest in acquiring a position of leadership. Also, married women had greater aspiration for administration than did married men.

8. Women tended to be interested in administration regardless of academic rank. Men, though, tended to be most interested at the rank of associate or assistant professor.

9. Administrative interests for men and women vary with their tenure status. Tenured men were the least interested in administration of all groups, while tenured women expressed the most interest. Neither men's nor women's interests for administration were diminished by the fact that they did not have tenure.

10. If, as this study suggests, over half of the faculty at land-grant universities would be open to the idea of accepting an administrative position, universities should not want for candidates, both male and female, to fill any opening at any level.

Observations

The following observations have been made to show the contrasts and similarities between the men and women surveyed in this study, and some of the existing data on university professors.

1. It appears that more women are now entering the academic-profession at a much younger age. Astin, in 1965, surveyed over 1,500 female doctorates and reported that the women in the field of education had a median age of 49. The median age of women in this study was 37.6 years. These figures suggest that, at least in land-grant universities, women are being hired at a much younger age than they were 15 years ago.
2. Women professors in land-grant universities are more likely, than men, to be childless, and if they do have children, their families tend to be smaller than the families of male professors. Of the married or previously married men and women, 68.3 percent of the male professors had children as compared to only 41.5 percent of the female professors. These findings were not unexpected. Hoffman, in Women and Achievement, cited studies which have shown a negative relationship between number of children and employed women. She also points out that low fertility is associated with job satisfaction and/or the status of the position held by the women: the more satisfied the employed woman is with her job, and/or the higher the status of the position, the fewer children she is likely to have (Mednick, et al., 1975).

The likelihood of women professors having smaller families is further confirmed by Astin, who in 1965 compared the size of families of married women doctorates to the size of families in the general population and found that women doctorates not only had smaller

families but were twice as likely to be childless as the married women in the general population (1969).

3. Even though women were more than four times (27.3 percent) as likely as men (6.3 percent) to have never married, these figures suggest a change has occurred in the marital status of academic women. Astin (1969) reported that 53.1 percent of the nation's women doctorates in the field of education had never married. It should be noted, however, that the academic women in Astin's survey were not limited to the disciplines within the College of Arts and Sciences, as they were in this study.

One study from the early 1960's compared women doctorates in non-academic positions with women doctorates in academic positions and found that 59 percent of the women in non-academic positions were married, while only 29 percent of the women in academia were married (Bernard, 1964). The fact that 54 percent of the women in this study were married suggests that the marital status of academic women has undergone a transition since Bernard completed her study.

4. Women, if unmarried, were more likely to be in the youngest age range. The finding that 52.6 percent of the unmarried women were in the age range 26-35 runs counter to a 1973 study of faculty members which reported that "older women are more likely than younger ones to be single" (Ferber and Loeb, 1973, p. 996).

5. When matched by rank and by department, women were not as likely as men to be tenured; although not significant, the data showed 65.1 percent of the men respondents to have tenure as compared to 59.0 percent of the women respondents. The difference between the tenure

status of men and women could be related, at least in part, to the slightly higher proportion of women in the group of respondents with the fewest number of years of teaching experience (Table 11).

6. Land-grant university professors in this study reported that they spent less time teaching (61.1 percent), and more time with research (28.6 percent), than national averages show. A survey of all universities in the United States indicated that faculty members spent over 75 percent of their time with teaching, and only 8.5 percent of their time on research. Since one of the three missions of the land-grant university is to carry out research, this discrepancy, to some degree, was expected. Unexpected, however, were the similarities between the men and women respondent's designation of their use of time (Table 8). National figures reported women professors as giving 83.5 percent of their time to teaching and only 3.7 percent to research, and for men the figures were 74.2 percent and 9.5 percent, respectively (Grant and Lind, 1979). Data for this study showed almost no difference existed between men and women professors' reported use of time.

Implications

This study has shown that women professors are as interested as men in acquiring top-level administrative positions in higher education; therefore, the low representation of women in the most visible positions of leadership on campus can no longer be justified on the basis that women are not interested in being appointed to these posts. The findings indicate that there is no lack of women who want to be administrators, but rather there appears to be a lack of opportunity

for them. This situation implies that affirmative action programs are not effective in ensuring equal opportunities for women. In particular, there is a need to scrutinize the procedures universities use in their adherence to the laws designed to prevent sex bias in the employment processes. There are questions that need answers: Are universities using hiring practices which circumvent their legal obligations? Does the Department of Education's enforcement agency have the information, power or ability to enforce the executive orders? What has been the outcome, and subsequently the effect, of the lawsuits which have been filed?

The importance of women holding some of the most visible positions of leadership on college and university campuses has been documented in recent studies which reported the positive effects of female role models on the aspirations and career success of women students. Some researchers have suggested that universities should be in the forefront of the effort to eliminate sex-biased socialization patterns. One of the more effective steps which could be taken by colleges and universities would be to increase the proportion of women in prominent administrative posts.

The representation of women in administration cannot be expected to be greater than their representation in the faculty. Not until more women complete the doctorate degree can a higher proportion of the faculty appointments go to women which in turn would justify an increased representation of women in the administrative ranks. The discrepancy in proportional representation of women in administration lies not so much with their representation at the staff level, but with

their disproportionately low representation in the line offices. Therefore, if college and university hiring procedures are to be examined for adherence to the legal mandates, investigations should focus on appointments to top-level positions as well as entry level positions.

Recommendations

As a result of this study and the conclusions drawn, the following recommendations are offered for further study.

1. Studies are needed which further isolate and examine possible causes which might account for the low representation of women in higher education administration.
2. A study of the career patterns of those women who have been appointed to the lower level positions should be conducted to determine what proportion are moving into line offices after gaining some administrative experience.
3. Findings from this study suggest academic women have changed in many ways over the past 15 years. There is a need to repeat a study similar to Astin's survey (1969) of over 1,500 women doctorates. Her study has served as a valuable tool in the research of feminine roles in higher education and an update would be beneficial to future researchers.
4. Previous experience, as shown in this study, seems to encourage women to seek further administrative roles. Continued support should be encouraged for the administrative intern programs created to assist women in their efforts to prepare for administrative

positions.

5. Hiring practices, especially those in public, coeducational universities, need to be studied to determine if the procedures which are being used to select candidates for administrative positions present any barriers to women in having an equal opportunity for being selected.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
LETTER TO FACULTY MEMBERS
AND QUESTIONNAIRE



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

DIVISION OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

January 24, 1980

Dear Colleague,

I am attempting to determine the interest university faculty may have in administrative positions in higher education and the reasons for this interest by surveying faculty members from major universities throughout the United States.

Because only ten faculty members have been selected from your university for this study, I would appreciate your taking the time to respond to this brief questionnaire. Please be assured that your responses will be treated confidentially. A code number has been used on the form but this is solely for the purpose of follow-up procedures.

For your convenience in returning the questionnaire, a self-addressed envelope has been enclosed. If you would be interested in a summary of the study please check the box on the first page of the questionnaire.

Realizing that this request imposes on your time, I can only appeal to your generosity and be grateful for any effort you make on behalf of this study.

Sincerely yours,

Jeanette E. Bowker, Faculty
Virginia Polytechnic Institute
and State University



COLLEGE OF EDUCATION

VIRGINIA POLYTECHNIC INSTITUTE AND STATE UNIVERSITY

Blacksburg, Virginia 24061

DIVISION OF ADMINISTRATIVE AND EDUCATIONAL SERVICES

No. _____

A SURVEY OF INTEREST IN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY ADMINISTRATION

Traditionally, university administrators have been drawn from the college and university faculties, but little is known about those who are interested in becoming administrators in higher education.

The intent of this survey is to ascertain the amount of interest faculty have for administrative positions, the types of administrative positions to which they aspire, and the reasons for their aspirations.

Please mark the response which best answers the question for you. Feel free to add any clarifying comments.

Demographic Data:

Sex: _____ Male _____ Female

Marital Status: _____ Married _____ Previously Married _____ Never Married

Are you currently employed by the University on a
_____ part time basis? _____ full time basis?Is your appointment at the University for
_____ 9-10 months? _____ 12 months?Your academic rank is
_____ Full Professor _____ Assistant Professor
_____ Associate Professor _____ Other (please specify) _____Do you currently hold a formal administrative position?
_____ Yes _____ No

What percentage of your time is designated for each of the following assignments?

_____ % Teaching	_____ % Extension/Services
_____ % Research	_____ % Other (please specify) _____

Check here if you would like a summary of this study.

Demographic Data (cont.)

Are you tenured in your present position?

_____ Yes _____ No

If you are in a tenure-track position, but not tenured, in what academic year will you be reviewed for tenure?

19__-19__

In what department(s) are you employed? _____

What is the highest degree you have earned? _____

In what year was this degree awarded? 19__

What is the approximate number of years of your teaching experience in higher education? _____ years

What was your age on your last birthday? _____

What are the ages of the children who are living with you?
_____, _____, _____, _____, _____,

ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE AND INTERESTS

Have you ever held any type of administrative position in education?

_____ Yes _____ No

If "yes," would you please describe briefly? _____

Have you ever been asked to apply for a specific administrative position in higher education? _____ Yes _____ No

Would you accept certain college or university administrative positions at this time? _____ Yes _____ No

If you are interested in administration, but are delaying your plans to seek an administrative position, please indicate the reasons for the delay.

If you have no interest in administration, please state the reasons why you do not.

IF YOU HAVE INDICATED THAT YOU HAVE NO INTEREST IN ADMINISTRATION, EITHER NOW OR IN THE FUTURE, YOU NEED NOT COMPLETE PAGES 3 and 4.

TYPES OF ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS IN HIGHER EDUCATION

Column I: Check the type of administrative position in which you would like to begin an administrative career.

Column II: Check the position that you ultimately would hope to achieve.

	TO BEGIN	TO ACHIEVE
	I	II
President or Chancellor	_____	_____
Assistant to the President or Chancellor.	_____	_____
Chief Officer of Administrative Division*	_____	_____
Assistant to Chief Officer of an Administrative Division. _____	_____	_____
Dean of a College	_____	_____
Assistant to the Dean of a College.	_____	_____
Assistant or Associate Dean	_____	_____
Chairman or Head of a Department or Division.	_____	_____
Other (please specify) _____	_____	_____

* i.e. Vice President of Academic Affairs, Vice President of Student Affairs, Vice President of Finance, etc.

In relation to your current position, do you think that the position which you checked as your ultimate administrative goal will

- _____ be more time-consuming
- _____ be less time-consuming
- _____ require about the same amount of time

(see page 4)

The following statements are reasons why one might seek a college or university administrative position, as opposed to continued teaching and/or research. Please respond by indicating the degree of importance each statement would have in your decision to assume an administrative position by checking whether the reason is of

- (LI) Little Importance
- (MI) Moderate Importance
- (GI) Great Importance

	LI	MI	GI
1. I could be a more effective administrator than many I know.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
2. I would receive a higher salary.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
3. I would like the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
4. As an administrator I can ultimately help more people reach their educational goals.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
5. I would like the challenge of learning new skills required by the position.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
6. I would like the responsibility of being in charge of the work of other people.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
7. An administrative position has more prestige than a teaching position.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
8. There would be satisfaction in working with the type of people who tend to become administrators.	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>

From this list of reasons, please select and place in rank order the three reasons you consider most important for seeking an administrative position.

1st, No. _____ 2nd, No. _____ 3rd, No. _____

Please list any other factors which would influence your decision to become a college or university administrator.

Thank you.

APPENDIX B
LIST OF UNIVERSITIES AND
RESPONSE FREQUENCIES

APPENDIX B

Respondents by University and by Sex

	Total	Male	Female
Auburn University	7	5	2
University of Arizona	9	6	3
University of Arkansas	7	4	3
University of California	3	1	2
Colorado State University	7	4	3
University of Connecticut	7	5	2
University of Delaware	7	4	3
University of Florida	7	4	3
University of Georgia	8	5	3
University of Idaho	5	3	2
University of Illinois	7	5	2
Purdue University	4	3	1
Iowa State University	8	4	4
Kansas State University	8	5	3
University of Kentucky	8	4	4
Louisiana State University	9	6	3
University of Maine	5	2	3
University of Maryland	7	4	3
University of Massachusetts	6	3	3
Michigan State University	7	4	3
University of Minnesota	8	5	3
Mississippi State University	7	3	4
University of Missouri	4	3	4
Montana State University	9	5	4
University of Nebraska	8	5	3
University of Nevada	7	4	3
University of New Hampshire	6	4	2
Rutgers University	4	3	1
New Mexico State University	7	4	3
Cornell University	5	3	2
North Carolina State University	7	4	3
North Dakota State University	8	5	3
Ohio State University	7	4	3
Oklahoma State University	8	6	2
Oregon State University	4	3	1
Pennsylvania State University	7	4	3
University of Rhode Island	6	3	3
Clemson University	10	6	4
South Dakota State University	8	5	3
University of Tennessee	8	5	3
Texas A & M	6	4	2
Utah State University	6	3	3
University of Vermont	8	4	4

	Total	Male	Female
Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University	7	4	3
Washington State University	6	3	3
West Virginia University	10	6	4
University of Wisconsin	6	3	3
University of Wyoming	5	3	2
	<hr/> 331	<hr/> 192	<hr/> 139
		58%	42%

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A COMPARISON OF UNIVERSITY FACULTY MEN'S AND WOMEN'S
ASPIRATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATIVE POSITIONS

by

Jeanette E. Bowker

(ABSTRACT)

Since the mid-1960's women have been moving into previously male-dominated professions; one exception, however, has been the administrative hierarchies of universities throughout the United States. Within these institutions of higher education, women continue to hold a low proportion of the top-level administrative positions. Their low representation is often justified on the basis that women have little interest in assuming positions of leadership in college and university administration.

The purpose of this study was to determine if women faculty aspire to administrative positions in higher education in the same proportions as do men faculty. The study also sought to compare administrative levels to which both groups aspire and to compare the reasons they have for their interest, or lack of interest, in obtaining an administrative position.

In addition, the variables of age, marital status, tenure status, year of tenure review, academic rank, years of teaching experience in higher education, previous administrative experience, and previous encouragement to apply for an administrative position were studied to determine whether they interacted with sex to produce an effect upon administrative aspirations.

The study involved all of the land-grant universities established by law in 1862 in the contiguous 48 states. The population included all professors with the rank of assistant or above from 18 departments typically found within Colleges of Arts and Sciences. From each university ten professors, six men and four women, were selected for the study sample. A four-part, four page questionnaire was developed for data collection. A 76 percent response rate provided a useable sample of 331, of which 192 were men and 139 were women.

The results of this study showed that men's and women's interests in assuming an administrative position did not differ statistically, however, a slightly higher proportion of women expressed administrative aspirations than did men. There was no difference in the administrative levels to which men and women aspired. While some professors were willing to begin at an assistant or staff position, most men and women sought a line office as their ultimate administrative goal.

Generally, men and women respondents held similar reasons for their interest in administration. Both men and women ranked the same three reasons in the same order of importance. They indicated that the primary reasons for their administrative interests were that (1) they would like the challenge of the decision-making aspect of an administrative position, (2) they felt they could ultimately help more people reach their educational goals, and (3) they believed that they could be a more effective administrator than many they knew.

Two out of eight personal and academic descriptor variables were found to have had a significant effect on the administrative

interests of men and women respondents. Within the variable of age, men, ages 45-65, expressed little interest in an administrative position, while the women indicated a greater interest at this age level than any other age group of men or women. Within the marital status variable, the administrative interests of married men were not as great as the interests of married women.

Respondents who reported that they had no interest in an administrative post often stated that they preferred continuing their work as teachers, researchers and/or writers. The second most strongly held position was that respondents did not like administrative responsibilities and/or the people who tended to serve as administrators.

Even though some statistical differences were reported, the consistent theme throughout the responses was one of similarity between men and women in their interests in acquiring positions of leadership on university campuses, thereby conclusively laying to rest the assumption that the low representation of women in top level administrative positions in land-grant universities results from a lack of interested female candidates.