

FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS AT URBAN AND RURAL
COMMUNITY-JUNIOR COLLEGES

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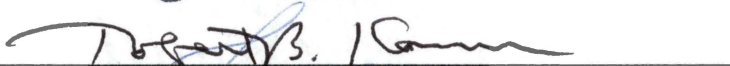
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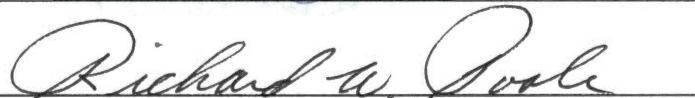
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PREFACE

This study examined the characteristics of female administrators at urban and rural community-junior colleges. The principal objective was to determine if there were significant differences between the two groups. Demographic factors considered were age, ethnic background, number of years of experience in higher education teaching and/or administration, academic credentials, levels of hierarchy, salary, and job relocation.

There were many people who supported, encouraged, and believed in me. This process would have been impossible without them. Sincere appreciation is expressed to my doctoral committee: Dr. Robert B. Kamm, committee chairman, who inspired me; Dr. John J. Gardiner, thesis adviser, who encouraged me; Dr. Thomas Karman, committee member, who challenged me; and Dr. Richard Poole, committee member, who supported me. A special thanks is also extended to Dr. William Warde for his patience in statistics class, as well as for his nod of approval.

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I owe a special thanks to my mother, Mrs. Dorothy Wilson, who stepped in and took care of my family and never questioned my ability.

Special gratitude is appropriate for two very special men in my life: our son, Layne, for his patience and understanding when I was in class or at the library; and my husband, Ralph, for his encouragement, his perseverance, and his love.

This paper is dedicated to the memory of my father, Alexander N. Wilson, Jr., and my grandparents, Col. and Mrs. Alexander N. Wilson, Sr., whose belief in their family, its education, and Oklahoma A & M never faltered.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

The future is not particularly bright for women moving into administrative positions at four-year colleges and universities. Projections for 1995 indicate a negative growth (from -13% to -17%) for job opportunities for women in this area (American association of University Professors, 1983).

Yet, Eaton (1984) discovered an unprecedented growth at the community-junior college level in the hiring practices for female administrators. From 1976 until 1981, there was a 200% increase in the number of women hired as community-junior college administrators. Eaton's projections indicated that the increase will continue.

Since 1972 and the passage of the Equal Rights Amendment, considerable progress has been made for women moving into administrative positions in community-junior colleges. At the same time, community-junior colleges have experienced phenomenal growth that has come to typify the two-year institution in the United States (Hemming, 1982).

Although there is an abundance of research on the extent to which women have attained administrative posts in two-year colleges, relatively little research has been conducted to determine any differences in personal and professional characteristics of female administrators in urban and rural community-junior colleges.

Need for the Study

A better understanding of any differences in characteristics will help identify employment trends likely to affect women's opportunities and achievements in the community-junior colleges in the coming years. A close examination of characteristics of female administrators in both urban and rural community-junior colleges will enable prospective female administrators to more purposefully chart and execute career plans. Any information concerning the labor market for two-year college administrators and their career opportunities should be helpful to the prospective female administrator.

Purpose of the Study

The major purpose of the study was to determine if there were significant differences in characteristics of female administrators at urban and rural community-junior colleges. A secondary purpose was to obtain descriptive information of these administrators using demographic data as a means of better understanding and describing these two groups.

Statement of the Problem

The major purpose of the study was to determine whether there were any differences in characteristics between female administrators at urban and rural community-junior colleges. Responses were sought to the following research questions:

1. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in the number and level of college degrees earned?
2. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators who hold associate degrees and the associate degree primary field?

3. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in the bachelor degree primary field?

4. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in the master degree primary field?

5. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in the doctoral primary field and type of degree?

6. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in age?

7. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in ethnic background?

8. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in salary?

9. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in their administrative areas of responsibility?

10. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of positions between each respondent and her chief executive officer?

11. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years of administrative experience in higher education?

12. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years of experience each administrator has at her present position?

13. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years of experience each administrator has at her present institution?

14. Is there a difference between urban and rural administrators who are considering a job change?

The population to which the results of this study were generalized was comprised of two groups of female administrators (one group urban, one group rural) from Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas.

A total of 226 subjects comprised the study and included presidents, campus executives, academic officers, business officers, student affairs officers, head librarians, directors of learning resources, directors of financial aid, and directors of continuing education. Positions were identified using the Higher Education General Information System (HEGIS) classification as listed in the 1984 Higher Education Directory (1984).

The instrument utilized in this study was replicated from one used by Moore, Twombly, and Martorana (1984), in cooperation with the Pennsylvania State University's joint project with the American Association of Community and Junior Colleges.

Definition of Terms

For clarification, the following terms are thus defined:

Administrators. This group was identified by job positions such as presidents, campus executives, academic officers, business officers, student affairs officers, head librarians, directors of learning resources, directors of financial aid, and directors of continuing education.

Community-Junior Colleges. According to Cohen and Brawer (1984), it has seemed most accurate to define the community-junior college as:

. . . any institution accredited to award the associate in arts or sciences as its highest degree. . . . That definition would also include the comprehensive two-year college as well as many of the technical institutes, both public and private, which award one- and two-year degrees (p. 5).

Urban Community-Junior Colleges. Using Beale's (1984) "Metro/Adjacency Codes," urban institutions were identified as ones which are located in towns/cities with populations in excess of 50,000.

Rural Community-Junior Colleges. Beale's (1984) "Metro/Adjacency Codes" identified rural institutions as colleges being located in towns/cities with populations less than 50,000.

Hypotheses

For the purpose of the study, the following null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number and level of college degrees earned.
2. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the associate degree primary field.
3. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the bachelor degree primary field.
4. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the master degree primary field.
5. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the doctoral primary field and type of degree.
6. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in age.
7. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in ethnic background.
8. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in salary.
9. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in their administrative areas of responsibility.

10. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in levels of hierarchy between each respondent and her chief executive officer.

11. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years of administrative experience in higher education.

12. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years each administrator has in her present position.

13. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years of experience each administrator has at her present institution.

14. There is no significant difference in the number of urban and rural administrators who are considering a job change.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF SELECTED LITERATURE

The initial search for literature resulted in a focus on four important topics: development of the community-junior college, community-junior college administration, women administrators in higher education, and women in community-junior college administration.

Development of the Community-Junior College

The comprehensive, open-admission community or junior college was developed with a unique mission: to provide lower-division college opportunities for any citizen. The community or junior college has become an integral part of America's system of higher education. An examination of the history will trace its development.

The Morrill Land Grant Act of 1862 influenced more than the political leaders of that time could ever have hoped (Cohen and Brawer, 1984). The ripple effect can hardly be traced simply. Colleges and universities, primarily in the west, realized that the regular college courses were not serving the public. Educational leaders believed that skilled farmers and mechanics, as well as expert leaders, should be trained. As a result of this, non-degree courses for farmers and skilled tradesmen were established. The level of their formal education was not a concern at this point in time. What was of greater concern was taking education to the people. One way that land-grant institutions took these noncredit courses to the people was through the Chautauqua movement, a movement

involving itinerant lecturers traveling all over the countryside, literally taking education to the people. This movement was first identified in 1874 in New York at Lake Chautauqua (Brubacher and Willis, 1976).

In 1888, Chautauqua College was founded on the ideas of both correspondence courses and degrees by mail. The Chautauqua movement popularized such ideas as university extension courses, summer sessions, and a ". . . potpourri of courses designed to enlighten the citizenry" (Vaughn et al., 1983, p. 3). This movement did not have a particularly important influence on much of American education until 1891, when William Rainey Harper, at one time an instructor at Chautauqua College, became president of the newly founded University of Chicago. Harper believed that the university should be important to the entire public. He strongly urged the full development of university extension courses and encouraged the affiliation of small colleges in the Midwest with the university. For the first time, the junior college was used. The belief was that the junior college was for basic preparatory work and that more scholarly, more technically advanced work would be done at the higher level.

These two-year institutions found widespread acceptance in the West, particularly in California.

One reason may have been that many of the ideals of democracy first took form in the western states, where women's suffrage and other major reforms in the electoral process were first seen. But the western expansion of the community college must also be attributed to the fact that during the eighteenth century and the very beginnings of the nineteenth, while colleges sponsored by religious institutions and private philanthropists grew strong elsewhere, the West had not yet been settled (Cohen and Brawer, p. 88).

No significantly measurable growth of the junior college was made until 1911, when a high school in Fresno, California, established a junior college with a faculty of 3 and a student body of 15. New York, Oklahoma (the University Preparatory School in Tonkawa), and Mississippi

were quick to provide facilities for junior colleges to prepare rural school graduates for the university (Brubacher and Willis, 1976, p. 102).

Unprecedented growth followed World War II (Brecher, 1986). Increasing demand for trained workmen in industrial technology and the passage of Public Law 16 (the G.I. Bill of Rights), contributed to this growth. Because of the inability of four-year colleges and universities to meet the burgeoning enrollment of the returning servicemen, two-year colleges deftly moved to meet these demands (Vaughn et al., 1983).

The 1947 Truman Commission Report, issued by the President's Commission on Higher Education for American Democracy, recommended equality of educational opportunity (open access to education), as well as geographical accessibility (Cohen and Brawer, 1984). Hence, the rise in prominence of public community colleges, which have positioned themselves philosophically and practically in an area between traditional higher education and the workplace society and community at large.

The same pattern of growth could be traced during the 1960s, not only for the Korean veteran, but also for the Vietnam veteran. Hundreds of thousands of servicemen sought a higher education degree, not only because of the job opportunities, but also because of the fact that jobs were few (particularly for the unskilled), and the servicemen wanted to take advantage of the benefits of the G.I. Bill. Society suddenly was filled with people who at one time considered it a privilege to attend college; now, they considered it their right to attend college if they so desired (Vaughn et al., 1983).

Low- or no-cost community colleges were touted during the 1960s and 1970s as being essential in providing educational opportunities for non-traditional students. The creation or expansion of commuter institutions

in convenient locations with a comprehensive array of low-cost programs had a positive impact on enrollment growth (Brecher, 1986).

There is every reason to believe that the demand for two-year college programs will continue to expand. As the numbers of nontraditional students grow, the traditional approach to education will not meet the needs.

While four-year institutions do a fine job for their particular constituencies, they are not the solution for everyone. Viable alternatives are needed to serve the large and increasing segment of society for whom the traditional four years are, for whatever reasons, inappropriate (Cohen and Brawer, 1984, pp. 8-9).

Two-year institutions offer an attractive alternative to four-year colleges because of their flexible and innovative approach to both programming and scheduling, as well as to their community service orientation. As community colleges continue to grow and expand, there will be increased opportunities for women to move into administration.

Community-Junior College Administration

The phenomenal growth of the two-year college movement during the 1960s and early 1970s directed much attention to the matter of both leadership development, epitomized by the W. K. Kellogg Junior College Leadership Program, and the study of leader characteristics and career histories (Moore, Twombly, and Martorana, 1985). Five major trends appear to be emerging among the top administrative positions at two-year colleges:

1. An increasing percentage of top administrators hold doctorates.
2. An increasing percentage hold degrees in education.
3. There is a strong trend toward the appointment of older top administrators, although many were not staying in the position as long.

4. There is decreasing tenure of two-year college presidents.
5. There is a trend toward appointing top administrators from within two-year colleges (Moore, Twombly, and Martorana, 1985, p. 33).

As a means of finding out basic characteristics of two-year college administrators, Moore, Twombly, and Martorana (1985) asked a series of straightforward, demographic questions. Those questions included the age, sex, race, and marital status of the respondent, as well as academic and professional backgrounds. Their major conclusions were:

1. The mean age of two-year college administrators was 48.1.
2. Seventy-seven percent of administrators were male; 23% were female.
3. Seventy-five percent of the respondents were married; particularly high percentages of presidents (91.9) and other campus executives (92.2) were married.
4. Associate degrees were earned by 11.5%. Over 955 of the administrators held the bachelor's degree. Primary fields of study for the bachelor's degree centered on the humanities, education, and business administration.
5. Most two-year administrators held master's degrees (89.6%). The most frequently chosen fields of study were education and the humanities.
6. Doctoral degrees were earned by approximately 45% of the administrators. Most typically, the doctoral degree for two-year college administrators was the Doctor of Education (Ed.D.).
7. Ninety percent of all male administrators were married and living with their spouses, compared to 60.7% of the females.
8. It did not appear that females were any more likely to be working in urban colleges than were males (female, 28.7%, male 28.1%).

9. The majority of administrators (64.1%) was more likely to prefer moving to another two-year college than they were to other types of colleges and universities.

Women Administrators in Higher Education

In 1975, the Office of Women in Higher Education, American Council on Education (ACE), began accumulating and publishing annually a record of the number of female administrators in accredited American colleges and universities (Kistler, 1981). From December, 1975 to December, 1979, there had been an increase of 37% in the number of appointments of women to administrative positions. Actually, more women received appointments than these figures indicate, because women sometimes replaced other women as administrators.

Even though the actual numbers were small, the percentages represented significant progress when viewed from the perspective of the quite recent past. For example, the 18 women who, in 1980, were presidents of public four-year colleges and universities, are six times the three who held similar positions in 1976. As Shavlik (1980, p. 9) stated: "Certainly, the gains are small. On the other hand, they have been steady, and the idea that women can serve as effective administrators is much more accepted."

Because of a lack of data on women administrators and their history of low status, Cimperman (1986) conducted a study to determine what relationship existed between higher education and the low percentage of women who are employed as administrators. She concluded that more research be undertaken to dispel negative stereotypes that have hindered the progress of women in leadership positions in higher education. Cimperman also concluded that higher education had yet to fully recognize the

contributions of female administrators and that the full impact of their contributions would be difficult to measure for a number of years.

Interestingly, Alfred and Good (1972) examined sex distribution of academic administrative personnel and patterns of promotion of administrative personnel. His data, analyzed by the use of a basic comparison, show that the status of women in higher education administration is predetermined as a fundamental of early childhood socialization, and no significant data could exist otherwise.

Many factors have contributed to a greater number of women moving into higher education administration. "Since 1972, a number of laws, regulations and executive orders have been promulgated to advance the cause of equality for women in education" (Alfred and Good, 1972, p. 22). A partial listing of major legislation includes:

1. Executive Order 11246, mandating the use of Affirmative Action.
2. Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.
3. Title IX of the Elementary/Secondary Act of 1972, the first law prohibiting discrimination against students on the basis of sex and also included some aspects of employment.
4. Title VI of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.
5. Age Discrimination in the Employment Act of 1967 (as amended).
6. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 (as amended) prohibiting differential pay rates for women and men doing the same work.
7. The Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978, amending Title VII.

Hemming (1982) also asserted that women were being encouraged into administration by the action of several federal agencies:

The Foundation for the Improvement of Post-Secondary Education (FIPSE), the Women's Educational Equity Act Program (WEEAP), the National Institute of Education (NIE), the National Institute of Health (NIH), and the National Institute of Men Health (NIMH) were chief among them. These agencies funded projects

and programs that supplied data on the status of women, provided model training programs, helped indicate networks designed to promote women's advancement, created material to help people recognize and deal with stereotyping and discrimination and identified areas of differential impact on minority and handicapped women (p. 3).

To encourage women to join the leadership ranks in higher education, several leadership programs were created in the 1970s and are still operational today. The following programs were designed specifically for women administrators or for women speculating on an administrative career:

1. Institute for Administration Advancement (University of Michigan, 1973).
2. HERS--The Higher Education Resource Service (Bryn Mawr College).
3. Leaders for the 80s Project, 1973.
4. American Council on Education, National Identification Program, 1973 (Hemming, p. 3).

Already established leadership programs were tapped to provide leadership opportunities for women. Established in 1964, the American Council of Education Fellows Program was designed primarily for men. In the mid 1970s, women began to swell the ranks. More than one-half of the 1986-1987 class was composed of women (American Council on Education, 1984).

Senior level male administrators began attending the Institute for Education at Marymount in 1970. This is ". . . an intensive, comprehensive, professional development program for senior level administrators in colleges and universities" (Hemming, 1982, p. 104).

Many different state systems were examined. Wiedman (1979) related finding that only 8% of the administrators in California's higher education system were women.

From an in-depth study of eastern seaboard public and private institutions of higher education, Sawyer (1977) discovered that less than 9% of administrative positions were held by women. Of that 9%, 63 held administrative positions in private colleges. The negative growth earlier examined (-13% to -17% in 1995) should indicate to future administrators where employment opportunities exist (American Association of University Professors, 1985).

Women in Community-Junior College Administration

In terms of numbers, no type of post-secondary institution has exceeded the community colleges' 200% gain in women administrators in the past five years (Eaton, 1984). Although this percentage represents an increase from 11 to 33, it symbolizes an enormous positive change in the attitudes of men and women toward women's leadership and in the actions of decision makers who influence the selection of administrators.

The American Council on Education, Office of Women observed that the appointment of female presidents at public two-year colleges has outnumbered appointments in four-year institutions by two to one.

Kanter (1977) wrote that there was vast opportunity for women to serve as administrators within the community college system. He cited studies indicating that these colleges were not closed systems. An important issue he presented was that the community college was an important source of role models for women and should thus be given ongoing attention to halting unintended encouragement of only stereotypic opportunities in careers and lifestyles. It seems likely that even more women in the future will seek to become "situational minorities"; these women will then go on to create an acceptance of new roles and demeanor for many of their professional colleagues.

Because of the improving opportunity for women to enter administration, the community college has an obligation to provide and encourage women of talent in every area of leadership and policy making. This is not to say that affirmative action indifferent to quality should be pursued. Rather, processes should be examined to insure that institutions are not preventing the ascendancy of any person of talent (Moore, Twombly, and Martorana, 1985).

As recently as 1986, the status of women serving as administrators in community colleges was examined. The study involved a canvass of public two-year colleges and was sent to all 50 state directors of public two-year colleges. Study findings concluded that although 29.8% of the administrators were female, females were under-represented in administrative positions in community-junior colleges (Hankins, 1984).

An Illinois Community College Board Review reported in 1985 that although most employment classifications (except clerical and custodial) showed a fairly even distribution of males and females, many more males than females were employed as administrators, and the actual percentage of women administrators had increased from 4.5% in 1970 to 8.4% in 1985 (Illinois Community College Board, 1985).

Summary

Change can be slow in coming, as indicated by the number of women moving into administrative positions at four-year colleges and universities. Even with the increase in the number of women moving into the work force, slow growth exists for women moving into administrative slots at traditional institutions of higher education. Women contemplating an administrative career should give careful thought to these ideas.

The phenomenal growth of the community-junior college has opened doors for women in educational administration as in no other type institution. The expanding growth of opportunities should be a flagship to those considering such a career move. By carefully examining the facts, a prospective administrator can assess the opportunities that are available and make an informed decision about her future in administration.

With the increase of women in administrative positions in community-junior colleges, these institutions will continue on their climb to equality. By examining research on where the trends are increasing the most rapidly, the prospective female administrator will be able to identify areas where the prospects are increasing more rapidly.

CHAPTER III

METHODOLOGY

Design and Procedures

This descriptive study was designed to increase the knowledge of the personal and professional characteristics of female administrators in urban and rural community-junior colleges in Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas. Gay (1981, p. 12) stated that the descriptive design ". . . answers questions about the current status of the subject of the study . . . it reports the way things are."

Population and Sample

The population studied in this descriptive study was female administrators in public and private community junior colleges in Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas. A list of current female administrators was provided by the American Association of Community-Junior Colleges (1989). The three states yielded a total of 127 institutions with a total of 266 female administrators.

A cover letter (Appendix A) and the questionnaire (Appendix B) were mailed to each female administrator on the list. The cover letter requested volunteer participation in the study. The purpose, method of data collection, and a guarantee of anonymity were described in the cover letter.

A self-addressed, stamped envelope was included for ease in returning the questionnaire. A numerical coding system was used as a means of identifying the subjects, which was necessary not only for data analysis purposes, but also to prepare a mailing list for copies of the completed abstract. A follow-up letter was not necessary because of the unusually high percentage of return from the first mailing. Of the 266 questionnaires mailed, 212 were returned, a return rate of 79.7%.

Instrument

The descriptive study was chosen for this research because, according to Gay (1981, p. 153), it ". . . answers questions concerning the current status of the study." This particular method was also chosen because

A high percentage of reported research studies are descriptive in nature . . . the descriptive method is useful for investigating a variety of educational problems. Typical descriptive studies are concerned with the assessment of attitudes, opinions, demographic information, conditions and procedures. Descriptive data are usually collected through a questionnaire survey, interview or observation (Gay, 1981, p. 153).

The survey or questionnaire was selected, as Gay (1981, p. 157) defended, "The most well known and most-often used is probably survey research, which generally utilizes questionnaires or interviews to collect data."

The instrument used in this study consisted of 25 questions and is a modified version of a survey administered by Moore, Twombly, and Martorana (1985) in cooperation with the Pennsylvania State University's joint project with the American Association of Community-Junior Colleges.

Data Analysis

After all instruments were hand coded, the data for each subject was

submitted to computer analyses. Data obtained from the questionnaire were tabulated using frequency tables and percentages.

The two-way chi-square test (a x b chi-square) is a nonparametric test which is used to determine significant differences between two independent variables with two or more levels of either variable (Linton and Gallo, 1975). The alpha level for all tests of significance was set at the .05 level. The computation results are reported in Chapter IV.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

Introduction

The purpose of this chapter was to present the results of the statistical analysis for the data collected in this study. More specifically, 14 hypotheses were tested concerning the differences between female administrators at urban and rural community-junior colleges. Additionally, demographic information was tabulated concerning other areas of information. There were a total of 212 subjects from 121 urban and rural community-junior colleges in Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas.

Presentation and Analysis of Data

In this study, the following 14 null hypotheses were tested using the nonparametric tests of two-way (a x b) chi-square. All tests of significance were set at the .05 level.

Hypothesis 1. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number and level of college degrees earned.

A two-way (2 x 3) chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number and level of college degrees earned.

The majority of the administrators (urban, 45.5%; rural, 53.1%) hold master's degrees. A higher percentage of urban administrators (25.3%) hold doctorates than do those in rural settings (17.7%). Three percent

of the urban group hold no degree, compared with 9.7% for the rural population. The obtained chi-square (11.85115) is significant at the .05 level. This data are represented in Table I. The null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE I
HIGHEST DEGREE EARNED

Degree	Urban	Rural	Total
Bachelor	26 (26.3%)	18 (15.9%)	44 (20.8%)
Masters	45 (45.5%)	60 (53.1%)	105 (49.5%)
Specialist	0	4 (3.5%)	4 (1.9%)
Doctorate	25 (25.3%)	20 (17.7%)	45 (21.2%)
None	3 (3.0%)	11 (9.7%)	14 (6.6%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 11.8515; DF = 4; Prob = 0.0185; $p < .05$

Hypothesis 2. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators who hold associate degrees.

A two-way (2 x 2) chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators who hold associate degrees. The percentage of urban administrators who hold associate degrees (22.2%) is considerably lower than those who hold the same degree for the rural administrators (37.2%).

The obtained chi-square (4.90641) is significant at the .05 level. Table II reflects a significant difference between the number of urban and rural administrators who hold associate degrees; thus, the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE II
ASSOCIATE DEGREE

	Urban	Rural	Total
Yes	22 (22.2%)	42 (37.2%)	64 (30.2%)
No	77 (77.8%)	71 (62.8%)	148 (69.8%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 4.90641; DF = 1; Prob = 0.0268, $p < .05$

As shown in Table III, the humanities area of concentration was more frequently chosen by the urban group (40.9%) than by the rural (19.0%). Many more rural administrators, however, concentrated on the field of education (26.2%) than did those in the urban sample (18.2%). The rural group also had a higher percentage of majors in business/technology (38.1%) than did the urban group (22.7%).

TABLE III
ASSOCIATE DEGREE FIELD

Field	Urban	Rural	Total
Humanities	9 (40.9%)	8 (19.0%)	17 (16.6%)
Education	4 (18.2%)	11 (26.2%)	15 (23.4%)
Bus./Technology	5 (22.7%)	16 (38.1%)	21 (32.8%)
Other	4 (18.2%)	7 (16.7%)	11 (17.2%)
Total	22	42	64

Note: Chi-square = 4.05120; Df = 3; Prob = 0.2560; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 3. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the bachelor degree primary field.

A two-way (2 x 4) chi-square analysis was performed to determine if there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in their bachelor degree primary field.

As indicated earlier in the associate degree field, the same holds true for the bachelor degree concentrations. More urban administrators (27.1%) chose humanities for a major than did the rural administrators (15.8%). Table IV discloses that there are fewer urban education majors (37.5) than rural education majors (51.5%). No lines of analysis were drawn for the business areas because there are no comparable bachelor degree fields to cover both business/technology and business administration. The obtained chi-square (5.54007) is significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE IV
BACHELOR DEGREE FIELD

Field	Urban	Rural	Total
Humanities	26 (27.1%)	16 (15.8%)	42 (21.3%)
Education	36 (37.5%)	52 (51.5%)	88 (44.7%)
Bus. Admin.	12 (12.5%)	14 (13.0%)	26 (13.2%)
Other	22 (22.9%)	19 (18.8%)	41 (20.3%)
Total	96	101	197

Note: Chi-square = 5.54007; DF = 3; Prob = 0.1363; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 4. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the master degree primary field.

A two-way (2 x 4) chi-square analysis was performed to determine if there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the master's degree field.

As demonstrated in Table V, each category on the master's degree level proved to be more closely aligned than the same categories in the associate and bachelor degree: the humanities concentration (urban, 16.2%; rural, 13.4%), education (urban, 58.8%; rural, 67.1%), and business administration (urban, 19.1%; rural, 18.3%). The obtained chi-square (3.03102) is significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE V
MASTER'S DEGREE FIELD

Field	Urban	Rural	Total
Humanities	11 (16.2%)	11 (13.4%)	22 (14.7%)
Education	40 (58.8%)	55 (67.1%)	95 (63.3%)
Bus. Admin.	13 (19.1%)	15 (18.3%)	28 (18.7%)
Other	4 (5.9%)	1 (1.2%)	5 (3.3%)
Total	68	82	150

Note: Chi-square = 3.0312; DF = 3; Prob = 0.3869; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 5. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the type of doctoral degree.

Table VI shows that, much like the master's degree findings, there is no significant difference in the type of doctoral degree. The obtained chi-square (0.146686) is significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was not rejected. There is also no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the doctoral primary field.

A two-way (2 x 3) chi-square analysis was performed to determine if there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the doctoral primary field.

Table VII shows that the urban administrative group (52.0%) selected education as the primary field for doctoral studies more frequently than the rural (25.0%). However, higher education was chosen by the rural group (60.0%) more frequently than the urban group (40.0%). The obtained

TABLE VI
DOCTORAL DEGREE TYPE

Type	Urban	Rural	Total
Ph.D.	10 (40.0%)	6 (30.0%)	16 (35.6%)
Ed.D.	15 (60.0%)	14 (70.0%)	29 (64.6%)
Other	0	0	0
Total	25	20	45

Note: Chi-square = 0.146686; DF = 1; Prob = 0.7017; $p > .05$

TABLE VII
DOCTORAL DEGREE PRIMARY FIELD

Field	Urban	Rural	Total
Education	13 (52.0%)	5 (25.0%)	18 (40.0%)
Higher Education	10 (40.0%)	12 (60.0%)	22 (48.9%)
Other Prof. Fields	2 (8.0%)	1 (5.0%)	2 (4.4%)
Total	25	20	45

Note: Chi-square = 5.58409; DF = 3; Prob = 0.1337; $p > .05$

chi-square (5.58409) is significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

Hypothesis 6. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in age.

A two-way (2 x 4) chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference in the ages of urban and rural administrators.

The youngest respondent was 24 years of age; all age levels were parallel, with the oldest administrator being 67. Table VIII lists the obtained result of the analysis, which was not significant ($p > .05$), and the null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE VIII

AGE

Age	Urban	Rural	Total
24-34	10 (10.0%)	14 (12.4%)	24 (11.3%)
35-44	41 (41.4%)	49 (43.4%)	90 (42.5%)
45-54	37 (37.4%)	38 (33.6%)	75 (35.4%)
55-67	11 (11.1%)	12 (10.6%)	23 (10.8%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 29.9058; DF = 37; Prob = 0.7897017; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 7. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in ethnic background.

A two-way (2 x 4) chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in ethnic background.

When the urban group is compared with the rural group and there is no significant overall difference, there is a distinct difference in that more minorities are employed by urban colleges (16.3%), compared with the rural institutions (4.5%). Table IX shows that the obtained chi-square is not significant at the .05 level, and the null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE IX
ETHNIC ORIGIN

Ethnic Origin	Urban	Rural	Total
Caucasian	85 (85.9%)	108 (95.6%)	193 (91.0%)
Black	6 (6.1%)	2 (1.8%)	8 (3.8%)
Native American	3 (3.0%)	2 (1.8%)	5 (2.4%)
Hispanic	5 (5.1%)	1 (0.9%)	6 (2.8%)
Asian	0	0	0
Other	0	0	0
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 6.71234; DF = 3; Prob = 0.0817; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 8. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in salary.

A two-way (2 x 10) chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference in salary or urban and rural administrators.

Below the \$25,000 level, there is marked disparity between the urban (8.1%) and rural administrators (18.6%), as shown in Table X. Within the next three salary levels (\$25,000-\$39,999), the difference is not as marked. From \$40,000 to \$54,999, the differences are consistent. However, salaries exceeding \$55,000 provided the largest contrast between the two groups (urban, 15.2%; rural, 4.5%). The obtained chi-square (24.9800) is significant at the .05 level and the null hypothesis was rejected.

TABLE X
SALARY

Salary	Urban	Rural	Total
<\$14,999	0	3 (2.7%)	3 (1.4%)
\$15,000-19,999	5 (5.1%)	6 (5.3%)	11 (5.2%)
\$20,000-24,999	3 (3.0%)	12 (10.6%)	15 (7.1%)
\$25,000-29,999	8 (8.1%)	20 (17.7%)	28 (13.2%)
\$30,000-34,999	21 (21.2%)	22 (19.5%)	43 (20.3%)
\$35,000-39,999	13 (13.1%)	24 (21.2%)	37 (17.5%)
\$40,000-44,999	9 (9.1%)	8 (7.1%)	17 (8.0%)
\$45,000-49,999	16 (16.2%)	8 (7.1%)	24 (11.3%)
\$50,000-54,999	9 (9.1%)	5 (4.4%)	14 (6.6%)
>\$55,000	15 (25.2%)	5 (4.5%)	20 (9.4%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 24.9800; DF = 9; Prob = 0.0030; $p < .05$

Hypothesis 9. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in administrative areas of responsibility.

A two-way (2 x 4) chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in administrative areas of responsibility.

The percentages in each of the categories were remarkably balanced. The responses for both urban and rural administrators were basically similar in all four classification of administrative responsibility (Table XI). The obtained chi-square (3.80605) is not significant ($p > .05$); the null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE XI
ADMINISTRATIVE AREA OF RESPONSIBILITY

Area	Urban	Rural	Total
Acad./Occup.	20 (20.2%)	34 (30.1%)	54 (25.5%)
Bus./Support	25 (25.3%)	22 (19.5%)	47 (22.2%)
Student Affairs	21 (21.2%)	27 (23.9%)	48 (22.6%)
Other	33 (33.3%)	30 (26.5%)	63 (29.7%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 3.80605; DF = 3; Prob = 0.2832; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 10. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the levels of hierarchy between each respondent and her chief executive officer.

A two-way (2 x 4) chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of positions between each respondent and her chief executive officer.

No significant differences were found in any of the four levels of responsibility. As shown in Table XII, the hierarchy in both urban and rural administration appears to be distributed equally. The obtained result of the analysis is not significant ($p > .05$); the null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE XII
HIERARCHY

	Urban	Rural	Total
0, Report Directly to CEO	36 (35.4%)	52 (46.0%)	88 (41.5%)
One level	43 (43.4%)	42 (27.2%)	35 (40.1%)
Two levels	16 (26.2%)	14 (12.4%)	30 (14.2%)
Three Levels+	4 (4.0%)	5 (4.4%)	9 (4.1%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 2.25050; DF = 3; Prob = 0.5221; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 11. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years of administrative experience in higher education.

A two-way (2 x 6) analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years of administrative experience in higher education.

Urban and rural administrators showed no marked differences in the number of years in higher education administration (Table XIII). The obtained chi-square (40.2761) is not significant at the .05 level; therefore, the null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE XIII
YEARS IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION

Years	Urban	Rural	Total
0-5	26 (26.3%)	41 (36.3%)	67 (31.6%)
6-10	31 (31.3%)	40 (35.4%)	71 (33.5%)
11-15	30 (30.3%)	23 (20.4%)	53 (25.0%)
16-20	8 (8.0%)	5 (4.4%)	13 (6.1%)
21-30	4 (4.0%)	1 (1.0%)	5 (2.4%)
31+	0	3 (2.7%)	3 (1.4%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 40.2761; DF = 35; Prob = 0.2482; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 12. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years each administrator has in her present position.

A two-way (2 x 5) chi-square was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years each administrator has served in her present assignment.

There is no meaningful variation between urban and rural administrators in the number of years in current assignments (Table XIV). The obtained chi-square (26.6515) is not significant at the .05 level; the null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE XIV
YEARS IN PRESENT ASSIGNMENT

Years	Urban	Rural	Total
1-5	53 (53.5%)	66 (58.4%)	119 (56.1%)
6-10	22 (22.2%)	29 (25.7%)	51 (24.1%)
11-15	18 (18.2%)	14 (12.4%)	32 (3.8%)
16-20	5 (5.1%)	3 (2.7%)	8 (1.0%)
21+	1 (1.0%)	1 (1.0%)	2 (1.0%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 26.6515; DF = 26; Prob = 0.4278; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 13. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years each administrator has been employed at her current institution.

A two-way (2 x 6) chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years each administrator has at her present institution.

When comparing the number of years employed at current institutions, the two groups varied little (urban, 10.6 years; rural, 10.8 years) (Table XV). The obtained statistic is not significant at the .05 level. The null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE XV
YEARS AT PRESENT INSTITUTION

Years	Urban	Rural	Total
1-5	28 (28.3%)	37 (32.8%)	65 (30.7%)
6-10	26 (62.3%)	27 (23.0%)	53 (25.0%)
11-15	26 (26.3%)	25 (22.1%)	24 (11.3%)
16-20	11 (11.1%)	13 (11.5%)	24 (11.3%)
21-25	7 (7.1%)	7 (6.2%)	14 (6.6%)
26-35	1 (1.0%)	4 (3.5%)	5 (2.4%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 29.4067; DF = 37; Prob = 0.8085; $p > .05$

Hypothesis 14. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators who are considering a job change.

A two-way (2 x 2) chi-square analysis was performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators who are contemplating a job change.

Although the urban administrators indicated that 36.4% of them are contemplating a job change, that percentage is not significantly different from the rural group (31.0%) (Table XVI). The obtained chi-square (0.467582) is not significant ($p > .05$); the null hypothesis was not rejected.

TABLE XVI
JOB CHANGE

	Urban	Rural	Total
Yes	36 (36.4%)	35 (31.0%)	71 (34.5%)
No	63 (63.6%)	787 (69.0%)	141 (66.5%)
Total	99	113	212

Note: Chi-square = 0.467582; DF = 1; Prob = 0.4941; $p > .05$

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The study was obviously limited by its three state boundaries. Surveying other regions of the United States would provide a more accurate picture of all female administrators. Although the study did not result in astounding discoveries, the following findings are presented and the following conclusions and recommendations for the future may be made.

Findings

The findings of this study were:

1. There was a significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number and level of college degrees earned. Urban administrators hold more and higher degrees than do their rural counterparts.

2. Rural administrators are more likely to possess an associate's degree than are administrators in the urban group. Of those who reported having associate degrees, there was a stronger representation of urban administrators in the field of humanities than any other major. Many more rural administrators concentrated on the field of education than did those in the urban sample. The rural group also had a higher percentage of majors in business/technology than did the urban group.

As indicated earlier in the associate degree fields, the concentration of majors holds true for the bachelor degree. Each category on the

master's degree level proved to be more closely in line than did the same categories in the associate and bachelor degree. Much like the master's degree findings, there was no significant difference in the type of doctoral degree.

3. The responses to age and ethnic origin indicated little, if any, diversity in the two groups.

4. Perhaps the most significant difference between urban and rural administrators existed in salaries. The salaries exceeding \$55,000 provided the largest contrast between the two groups. On the other end of the spectrum (below the \$25,000 level), there was marked disparity between urban (8.1%) and rural administrators (18.6%).

5. Women administrators in both urban and rural institutions have similar job responsibilities.

6. Urban and rural administrators show no marked differences in the number of years in higher education administration. There is no meaningful variation between urban and rural administration in the number of years in current assignments. When comparing the number of years employed at current institutions, the two groups varied little (urban, 10.6 years; rural 10.8 years).

7. Although the urban administrators indicated that 36.4% of them are contemplating a job change, that percentage does not vary significantly from the rural group (31.0%).

The following hypotheses were found to be significant at the .05 level and thus were rejected:

Hypothesis 1. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number and level of college degrees earned.

Hypothesis 2. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the associate degree primary field.

Hypothesis 3. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in salary.

The following hypotheses were not found significant at the .05 level and were thus not rejected:

Hypothesis 3. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the bachelor degree primary field.

Hypothesis 4. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the master's degree primary field.

Hypothesis 5. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the doctoral primary field and type of degree.

Hypothesis 6. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in age.

Hypothesis 7. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in ethnic background.

Hypothesis 9. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in their administrative areas of responsibility.

Hypothesis 10. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the levels of hierarchy between each respondent and her chief executive officer.

Hypothesis 11. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years of administrative experience in higher education.

Hypothesis 12. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years each administrator has in her present position.

Hypothesis 13. There is no significant difference between urban and rural administrators in the number of years of experience each administrator has at her present institution.

Hypothesis 14. There is no significant difference in the number of urban and rural administrators who are considering a job change.

Conclusions

On the basis of the previous findings, the following conclusions can be reached:

1. Women administrators in the three-state area hold master's degrees, with the major area of concentration in education. Urban administrators will be more likely to complete doctoral studies than will their rural counterparts. Those who possess an associate's degree are more likely to work in rural institutions.

2. Those who possess an associate's degree are more likely to work in rural institutions.

3. Neither age nor ethnicity is an influential factor of employment at either urban or rural institutions.

4. The strong response rate of 79% suggests a need to investigate establishing a three-state network for women administrators.

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made, based on the results of this study:

1. A national random sampling should be done to see if the results of such a study would be comparable with the three-state survey.

2. The return rate of this questionnaire is indicative of the strong interest women administrators from both sectors demonstrate for this type of study. That interest indicates a strong participation would be likely if a three-state network of women administrators was to be formed.

3. It is recommended to explore the feasibility of acquiring state or federal funding to create and foster the growth of organizations to provide training for women to assume leadership roles in community-junior colleges in the three-state area.

4. It is also recommended that a five-year follow-up study of these same respondents be conducted. The same characteristics can be surveyed and determination made of any major change in responses.

Concluding Thoughts

When the author first set out on the adventure of discovering new and essential information about women administrators in Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas, she was determined to show the world that women administrators at urban community-junior colleges were different in almost every way from their counterparts at rural institutions.

Although trained from the beginning of the doctoral program to be objective and never to jump to conclusions, the author set out with fervor to demonstrate that she knew her female colleagues and that she knew the differences would be almost earth shattering.

What was discovered was that, not only were the author's colleagues similar in many ways, but these same peers shared her concerns about being an administrator and being a woman. The outpourings of concern, interest, and even curiosity about the results has prompted this author to do some ground work in establishing a network of female administrators in the three-state area.

The candor with which these administrators wrote encouragement, support, and confidence in this effort brought amazement, laughter, and tears of empathy. The frankness of answers such as, "At 55, you take what is available and feel fortunate to have a job"; and "I came here

because, being a woman 58 years old, I had a difficult time getting a job"; shocked and appalled this author. At the same time she also cheered answers such as "I truly like what I'm doing; I feel I'm making a difference," and "I love my job."

What the author has learned is that there is much to learn about community-junior college female administrators, not only in Oklahoma, Kansas, and Texas, but also in every quadrant of the United States. The differences are slight, the similarities are definite, but there remains one constant--the overwhelming return rate of 79.8%--which indicates that this group of professionals is vitally interested in higher education administration careers.

Because of the intensity of the responses and the depth of feelings and concerns shared through the survey, this author is already outlining "spin-off" articles for future publications. Two hundred and twelve female administrators responded, in no uncertain terms, that there are exciting career possibilities that loom in the future. This author believes this, and plans to share it with others.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A
CORRESPONDENCE

April 14, 1990

Dear Administrator:

The purpose of this letter is to request your participation in a research study regarding the characteristics of female administrators at rural and urban community junior colleges. A better understanding of any differences in personal and professional characteristics will help identify trends likely to affect women's opportunities and achievements in community junior colleges in the coming years.

Please complete the enclosed questionnaire, which should take 15 to 20 minutes. Information will be treated confidentially and respondents will remain anonymous in written reports. A numerical code will be used to match each administrator with her state.

It is anticipated that the results of this study will enable prospective female administrators to more purposefully chart and execute career plans. An abstract of survey results will be shared with participants. Please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the stamped, self-addressed envelope within the next two weeks. Your participation in this project is important to the success of this research effort.

Thank you again for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Kathryn Jones

APPENDIX B
QUESTIONNAIRE

I. PLEASE PROVIDE THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION BY CHECKING THE APPROPRIATE ANSWER:

1. Highest degree earned: Bachelor's Doctorate
 Specialist's None
 Master's

2. Do you have an associate's degree? Yes No

If yes, is it from the institution where you are now employed?

Yes No

Is it from an institution where you have been employed
in the past

 as a faculty member? Yes No
 and/or as an administrator? Yes No

DEGREE HISTORY

3. Associate's Degree (age you received it) _____

Primary field:

Humanities Business/Technology
 Education Other

4. Bachelor's Degree (age you received it) _____

Primary field:

Humanities Business Administration
 Education Other

5. Master's Degree (age you received it) _____

Primary field:

Humanities
 Education
 Other

6. Doctoral Degree (age you received it) _____

Type of degree:

Ph.D.
 Ed.D.
 Other

Primary field

Education Other Professional Fields
 Higher Education Other

7. Your current age: _____

8. Ethnic background:
- | | |
|--|-----------------------------------|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Caucasian | <input type="checkbox"/> Hispanic |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Black | <input type="checkbox"/> Asian |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Native American | <input type="checkbox"/> Other |
9. Current marital status:
- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Single | <input type="checkbox"/> Separated/Divorced |
| <input type="checkbox"/> (never married) | <input type="checkbox"/> Widowed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Married | |
10. If you have children, how many? _____

II. PLEASE PROVIDE THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR PRESENT POSITION AS AN ADMINISTRATOR

1. Type of institution where you are currently employed:
- | |
|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> public control |
| <input type="checkbox"/> private control |
2. What is your current salary?
- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> less than \$14,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$40,000-\$44,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$15,000-\$19,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$45,000-\$49,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$20,000-\$24,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$50,000-\$54,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$25,000-\$29,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> \$55,000-\$59,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$30,000-\$34,999 | <input type="checkbox"/> more than \$60,000 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> \$35,000-\$39,999 | |
3. What is your present administrative area of responsibility?
- | |
|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> instructional: academic/occupational |
| <input type="checkbox"/> business/support |
| <input type="checkbox"/> student affairs |
| <input type="checkbox"/> other |
4. Current student population (FTE):
- | | |
|--|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> less than 1,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> 5,001-7,000 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1,001-3,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> 7,001-9,000 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3,001-5,000 | <input type="checkbox"/> more than 9,001 |
5. Population of town/city of institution:
- | |
|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> major metropolitan--1,000,000+ |
| <input type="checkbox"/> lesser metropolitan--50,000-1,000,000 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> urbanized--20,000-49,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> less urbanized--2,500-19,999 |
| <input type="checkbox"/> rural--under 2,500 |
7. Within the institutional hierarchy, how many positions are there between your position and the chief executive officer of your institution?
- | |
|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> 0, report directly to the CEO |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 1 level |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 2 levels |
| <input type="checkbox"/> 3 levels or more |

III. PLEASE PROVIDE THE FOLLOWING INFORMATION ABOUT YOUR PAST AND PRESENT TEACHING/ADMINISTRATIVE EXPERIENCE:

1. How many years of teaching experience (if any) do you have in elementary/secondary education? _____
2. How many years of administrative experience (if any) do you have in elementary/secondary education? _____
3. How many years of teaching experience do you have in higher education? _____
4. How many years of administrative experience do you have in higher education? _____
5. How many years of experience do you have in your present position? _____
6. How many years of experience do you have at your present institution? _____
7. Please choose the method you used to become a candidate for your current position:
 - () applied directly
 - () recommended by mentor
 - () nominated by person other than mentor
 - () invited by search committee
 - () assumed acting appointment
 - () created position and got it funded
 - () other _____

IV. PLEASE RATE THE FOLLOWING REASONS THAT AFFECTED YOUR DECISION TO MOVE TO YOUR CURRENT POSITION:

- | | |
|----------------------|------------------------|
| 1 - highly important | 3 - somewhat important |
| 2 - important | 4 - of no importance |

1. _____ duties and responsibilities of the positions
2. _____ increased personal status and prestige
3. _____ better institutional reputation
4. _____ retirement/benefit plan
5. _____ employment opportunities for spouse
6. _____ educational opportunities for family
7. _____ salary
8. _____ prerequisites (e.g., house, car)
9. _____ competence/congeniality of colleagues
10. _____ geographic location
11. _____ potential for advancement
12. _____ ready for a change
13. _____ physical facilities of the institution
14. _____ mission/philosophy of the institution

V. PLEASE RATE THE FOLLOWING REASONS THAT AFFECTED YOUR DECISION TO STAY IN YOUR CURRENT POSITION:

- 1 - highly important 3 - somewhat important
2 - important 4 - of no importance

1. _____ duties and responsibilities of the position
2. _____ personal status and prestige
3. _____ strong institutional reputation
4. _____ retirement/benefit plan
5. _____ employment opportunities for spouse
6. _____ educational opportunities for family
7. _____ salary
8. _____ prerequisites (e.g., house, car)
9. _____ competence/congeniality of colleagues
10. _____ geographic location
11. _____ potential for advancement
12. _____ mission/philosophy of the institution
13. _____ lack of appropriate opportunity elsewhere
14. _____ physical facilities
15. _____ financial costs of relocation

What additional important reasons have been overlooked?

VI. ARE YOU SERIOUSLY CONSIDERING OR ACTIVELY PURSUING A JOB CHANGE?

() Yes () No

If yes, please answer the following questions:

Position type:

1. _____ similar position
2. _____ higher administrative level in same area
3. _____ position in new administrative area
4. _____ other: _____

Institution type:

5. _____ current institution
6. _____ another two-year college
7. _____ research/doctoral university
8. _____ comprehensive college/university
9. _____ liberal arts college
10. _____ higher education agency
11. _____ outside higher education

Sector type:

- | | |
|-------------------|--------------------------|
| 12. _____ public | 14. _____ no preference |
| 13. _____ private | 15. _____ not applicable |

VII. IF YOU ARE SERIOUSLY CONSIDERING OR ACTIVELY PURSUING A JOB CHANGE, PLEASE CHECK NO MORE THAN THREE ACTIVITIES THAT YOU ARE USING OR PLAN TO USE:

1. _____ contacting colleagues at other institutions
2. _____ developing new contacts
3. _____ attending workshops or training programs
4. _____ volunteering for additional responsibilities
5. _____ informing higher level administrators
6. _____ informing/consulting mentor
7. _____ responding to nominations
8. _____ contacting search agencies
9. _____ responding to position announcements

What other strategies are you using that have been overlooked?

Thank you for your help with the questionnaire!

An abstract of the survey results will be shared with participants.

2
VITA

Kathryn Anne Jones
Candidate for the Degree of
Doctor of Education

Thesis: FEMALE ADMINISTRATORS AT URBAN AND RURAL COMMUNITY--JUNIOR COLLEGES

Major Field: Higher Education

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Stillwater, Oklahoma, January 25, 1948, the daughter of Dorothy Wilson and the late Alex N. Wilson, Jr.; married on August 13, 1983, to Ralph Lee Jones; one son, Layne Lee.

Education: Graduated from Weatherford High School, Weatherford, Oklahoma, in May, 1966; received Associate of Arts degree from Northern Oklahoma College, Tonkawa, Oklahoma, in May, 1968; received Bachelor of Arts in Education degree from Northwestern Oklahoma State University, Alva, Oklahoma, in May, 1969; received Master of Education degree from Northwestern Oklahoma State University in May, 1973; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 1991.

Professional Experience: Debate-Drama Coach and English Teacher, Unified School District #300, Coldwater, Kansas, 1969-75; Debate-Drama Coach, Unified School District #484, Fredonia, Kansas, 1975-78; Computer Analyst, Conoco Oil Company, Ponca City, Oklahoma, 1978-79; Speech, Radio, and Drama Instructor, Northern Oklahoma College, Tonkawa, Oklahoma, 1979-84, Director of School and Alumni Relations, Northern Oklahoma College, Tonkawa, Oklahoma, 1984-89; Assistant Dean of School and Alumni Relations, Northern Oklahoma College, Tonkawa, 1988-89; Assistant Dean of Institutional Outreach, Northern Oklahoma College, Tonkawa, Oklahoma, 1989-90; Director of Enid Higher Education Program, Enid, Oklahoma, 1990 to present.