WOMEN'S CAREER CHOICES IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND THEIR RELATION TO THE MODERATOR VARIABLE OF SELF-CONCEPT

By

GATHA JAN SHANKLIN

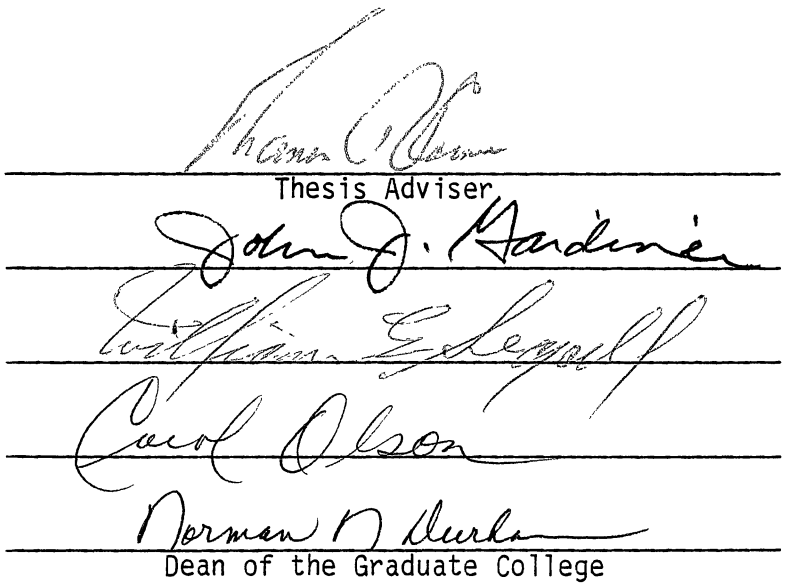
Bachelor of Arts
University of Oklahoma
Norman, Oklahoma
1968

Master of Arts
University of Oklahoma
Norman, Oklahoma
1972

Submitted to the Faculty of the Graduate College
of the Oklahoma State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION
May, 1986

WOMEN'S CAREER CHOICES IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND THEIR RELATION TO THE MODERATOR VARIABLE OF SELF-CONCEPT

Thesis Approved:



Thesis Adviser

Dean of the Graduate College

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I wish to extend sincere thanks and appreciation to all of the individuals who helped make this study possible. A project such as this necessitates team members, and this study has truly had the best possible players.

A very special note of sincere gratitude is extended to Dr. Thomas A. Karman, who always stressed quality. Dr. Karman not only served as my major professor and dissertation chairman, he also displayed kindness, wisdom, and inspiration throughout the doctoral program, which afforded me a meaningful educational experience. I am also grateful to Dr. John J. Gardiner, Dr. Carol M. Olson, and Dr. William E. Segall, who served on my doctoral committee and whose helpfulness and enthusiasm will long be remembered.

Eternal gratitude is expressed to Mr. Earl Sumpter, whose assistance, encouragement, and support has been invaluable and has made possible the successful completion of the doctoral program. Mr. Sumpter's many tireless, unselfish, and disciplined efforts enabled me to hit the home run. Also, sincere appreciation is extended to Mrs. S. K. Phillips for her word-processing, expertise, and careful guidance throughout the duration of the study.

A special recognition is extended to my son, Counsel, who spent many evenings at home while mom attended classes and who was especially delighted that the study's deadline was the same as his birthday. I

also express my deepest appreciation to my parents, Mr. and Mrs. J. C. Jackson, who sacrificed during my early years to make an education possible.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS ORIGIN

Background

In 1979, Wasden declared that: "Changing the facial expression of higher education is about as difficult as coaxing a smile out of the great Sphinx of Egypt" (p. 568). This remark is validated when one considers the influx of women into top-level administrative positions in higher education. Despite legislation impacting on women's equality in this society (Donohue, 1981), women's participation in higher education administration is still part of a rather gradual, historical trend of women moving into nontraditional fields (Brown, 1978). Regardless of dramatic changes in women's economic opportunities and individual characteristics (Fralick, 1982; Donahue, 1981), Elder (1975) suggested that women were ". . . little closer to being full participants in the complete process of higher education than they had been a century ago" (p. 1017).

Since the Industrial Revolution, occupational sex segregation has been persistent, both within and across institutions, in this country. The activism of the 1960's dealt seriously with the important issue of discrimination of women, until there now exists a plethora of studies related to women and nontraditional occupations (Greenfeld, Greiner, and Wood, 1980). The modern women who have broken down the barriers

to the male-dominated fields are now referred to as the "pioneers," "role innovators," and "nonconformists" (Swatko, 1981), though they were once called "deviants," "maladjusteds," and "odd" (Reohr, 1981).

In attempts to explain the low level of participation of women in traditionally male professions, many theories have been developed. Basically, there were two theoretical positions regarding this issue which were frequently discussed in the literature. The first of these theories had to do with socialization of women in our culture. This theory contended that women have been taught and reinforced in behaviors quite different from men. The second theoretical position addressed structural sexism. This theory explained the problem of women's low level of participation by placing the blame on the nature of the system. It suggested that women have difficulty at work, not because they are women, but because of their minority status (Moore, 1982).

It was the intent at this point, however, to introduce some of the familiar themes which have appeared in the existing body of knowledge in an effort to explain or hypothesize why women have not participated more fully in nontraditional fields and occupations. These theories also created a better awareness of the particular research problems at hand, relative to women's participation in higher education administration.

In 1972, Horner theorized that women had a motive to avoid success because of fear of the loss of male adoration in competitive situations. In contrast, however, McClelland, Atkinson, Clark, and Lowell (1953) contended that this motive to avoid success had not been validated within existing research in the area of motivation.

Kanter (1977) referred to this fear of success phenomenon as fear-of-visibility, and Epstein (1976) stated that it was actually a fear of learning something new. Another alternative explanation of why women failed to reach their full career potential had been offered by Clance and Imes (1978). Their theory postulated that the "Imposter Phenomenon" may be at work, causing the inability for women to internalize success or to experience themselves as successful career persons. The "Imposter Phenomenon" was characterized by women's strong belief that they were not really intelligent and had been overevaluated. Given the lower expectations women had for their own performances in this culture, they had internalized the societal sex-role stereotype that they were not competent and were, in fact, "imposters."

A large amount of information existed with regard to women in the nontraditional field of higher education administration. Overall, however, research in the United States reported that women generally do not aspire to top level administrative positions within education (Malcolm, 1979). During the 1970's, which was considered a high point in the women's movement, the number of women administrators actually declined (Frasher and Frasher, 1979).

The reasons for women's limited participation in educational administration have been examined by Estler (1975), who proposed three exploratory models. The "women's place" model related differential socialization to selection of roles, and the "meritocracy model" assumed that an individual was selected for a position based on ability and qualifications. The "discrimination model," the third model, assumed that women have been systematically excluded from administrative

positions. The second model was found to be invalid, but the first and third appeared to have credibility.

Malcolm (1979) proposed that there were four reasons for women's restricted participation in administrative positions within higher education. Women's higher priorities of marriage and family constituted the first reason, and the second reason was their preference of classroom teaching over administration. Lack of self-esteem, fear of failure, and self-doubt continued to create yet another reason for this low level of participation on the part of women. Finally, according to Malcolm, the influence of traditional sex role stereotypes on women had been tremendous. Gross and Trask (1976) hypothesized that women felt they had gone as far as they could go, using that as the reason for their lack of advancement in educational administration. In addition, women might be unwilling to take the risk involved in seeking and competing for success in top level jobs. It had also been contended that women questioned the suitability of careers that did not fit their personal images of themselves (Crump and Handley, 1983).

Loomis (1978) studied sex discrimination and sexist attitudes within employment practices, and she contended that these discriminatory practices and attitudes were reasons for women's low participation in administrative positions. She cited such "invisible barriers" as recruitment techniques, criteria for selection, and language of job descriptions as indicative of sexist behavior within the market place or system. Thomas (1980) affirmed that institutional barriers, such as discriminatory hiring and promotion practices, were overt deterrents to equal educational and occupational opportunities for women. Extensive affirmative action literature supported the contention that

barriers to job training and job access are fundamentally linked to both minority status and gender. A prime example of this exclusion pattern was said to exist within the male-dominated administrator networking system (Mackett and Frank, 1981).

The concept of mentoring was discussed by Moore and Salimbene (1981) and was defined as "the process by which older, more experienced administrators passed on their accumulated wisdom to younger men who are identified as possessing qualities valued by the organization" (p. 51). It had been suggested that this example from the "old boys network" could also benefit less experienced, often younger, upwardly mobile women. The mentoring process could help establish support systems and professional networks, and it could identify talent and improve women's positions within the administrative hierarchy. Historically, women have created networks of like-minded individuals within educational institutions to influence power and change (Moore, 1982). Today, studies indicated that in academic institutions, mentoring relationships could develop out of both superior/subordinate relationships and faculty/student relationships. Women reported that much of their administrative success had been because they have had people in significant positions of responsibility as their mentors (Moore and Salimbene, 1981).

This theoretical framework provided valuable insight into the specific research problems addressed in this investigation, which focused on the idea of self-concept as a moderating variable on the traditional or nontraditional occupational choices of women. In particular, the nontraditional field of higher education administration was explored. Higher education administration was considered to

be a nontraditional field because of its predominance of men. Between 1920 and 1972, women earned only 18.4% of the doctorates conferred in higher education administration. Although the percentage had increased in this academic area, still more than 50% of doctorate degrees awarded have gone to men (Professional Women and Minorities, 1984). These theoretical positions were investigated more fully in Chapter II because of their important relationship to the problems being addressed in this research study.

Statement of the Problem

A comprehensive search of the literature pertaining to women in higher education administration found no conclusive results associated with studies focused on self-concept as a variable on the nontraditional occupational choice of careers, as compared with more traditional occupational career choices of women. In addition, no studies were found which determined what individual characteristics were significant on the part of women in affecting career choices in higher education administration. The present research was, therefore, dedicated to ascertaining the answers to the following 10 questions:

1. Was there any difference in the overall self-esteem as perceived by women university students who aspired to traditional careers and professions as compared with the self-perceptions of those women university students who aspired to administrative careers in higher education?

2. Was there any difference in identity as perceived by women university students who aspired to traditional careers and professions

as compared to the self-perceptions of those women university students who aspired to administrative careers in higher education?

3. Was there any difference in self-satisfaction as perceived by women university students who aspired to traditional careers and professions as compared with the self-perceptions of those women university students who aspired to administrative careers in higher education?

4. Was there any difference in behavior as perceived by women university students who aspired to traditional careers and professions as compared with the self-perceptions of those women university students who aspired to administrative careers in higher education?

5. Was there any difference in physical self as perceived by women university students who aspired to traditional careers and professions as compared with the self-perceptions of those women university students who aspired to administrative careers in higher education?

6. Was there any difference in moral-ethical self as perceived by women university students who aspired to traditional careers and professions as compared with the self-perceptions of those women university students who aspired to administrative careers in higher education?

7. Was there any difference in personal self as perceived by women university students who aspired to traditional careers and professions as compared with the self-perceptions of those women university students who aspired to administrative careers in higher education?

8. Was there any difference in family self as perceived by women university students who aspired to traditional careers and professions as compared with the self-perceptions of those women university students who aspired to administrative careers in higher education?

9. Was there any difference in social self as perceived by women university students who aspired to traditional careers and professions as compared with the self-perceptions of those women university students who aspired to administrative careers in higher education?

10. What selected individual characteristics of women, which were delineated under the "Selected Individual Characteristics of Women," influenced the occupational choices of the nontraditional field of higher education administration as compared to more traditional careers and occupations?

The following two lists were illustrative of the components of both self-concept and individual characteristics which were dealt with in this study:

Self-Concept Components

Self-concept was divided into nine components as each component was individually established in the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale (TSCS), the test instrument utilized for the purpose of measuring self-concept in this study. These nine components were as follows:

1. Overall self-esteem score
2. Identity
3. Self-satisfaction
4. Behavior
5. Physical self
6. Moral-ethical self
7. Personal self
8. Family self
9. Social self

Selected Individual Characteristics

The following individual characteristics (referring to selected characteristics of the women in the study) were selected as demographic variables in the study. The selection of these particular individual characteristics were based on the extensive references to these variables in the literature related to women's traditional and nontraditional career choices:

1. Age
2. Marital status
3. Number of children
4. Previous or present occupation
5. Age at which last degree was received
6. Religious background
7. Educational attainment of father
8. Educational attainment of mother
9. Occupation of father
10. Occupation of mother
11. Socioeconomic range of family during childhood and adolescence
12. Number of older brothers
13. Number of younger brothers
14. Number of older sisters
15. Number of younger sisters
16. Subject or field of last degree
17. Individual having greatest influence
18. Racial group

Hypotheses

The following null hypotheses were tested in this study:

Ho1. There was no significant difference in overall self-esteem in the self-perceptions of women university students who aspired to more traditional careers as compared with the self-perceptions of self-esteem of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

Ho2. There was no significant difference in the self-perceptions of identity of women university students who aspired to more traditional careers as compared with the self-perceptions of identity of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

Ho3. There was no significant difference in the self-perceptions of self-satisfaction of women university students who aspired to more traditional careers as compared with the self-perceptions of self-satisfaction of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

Ho4. There was no significant difference in the self-perceptions of behavior of women university students who aspired to more traditional careers as compared with the self-perceptions of behavior of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

Ho5. There was no significant difference in the self-perceptions of the physical state of health of women university students who aspired to more traditional careers compared with the self-perceptions of the physical state of health of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

Ho6. There was no significant difference in the self-perceptions of moral-ethical values of women university students who aspired to more traditional careers as compared with the self-perceptions of moral-ethical values of women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

Ho7. There was no significant difference in the self-perceptions of personal self of women university students who aspired to more traditional careers as compared with the self-perceptions of personal self of women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

Ho8. There was no significant difference in the self-perceptions of family self of women university students who aspired to more traditional courses as compared with the self-perceptions of family self of women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

Ho9. There was no significant difference in the self-perceptions of social self of women university students who aspired to more traditional careers as compared with the self-perceptions of social self of women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

Definition of Terms

The operational definitions for this study were as follows:

Self-Esteem.

It reflected the overall level of self-esteem. Persons with high scores tend to like themselves, feel that they are persons of worth and value, have confidence in themselves, and act accordingly. People with low scores are doubtful about their own worth; see themselves as

> undesirable; often feel anxious, depressed, and unhappy; and have little faith and confidence in themselves (Fitts, 1983, p. 2).

Self-esteem was also defined in this study in a global sense and referred to a person's feelings of adequacy and worth as a person, his/her feelings of being a "good" or "bad" person, views of his/her state of health, physical appearance, skills, sexuality, and sense of adequacy in social interactions (Van Tuinen and Ramaniah, 1979). This term also referred to feelings of satisfaction a person had about himself/herself which reflected the relationship between his or her self-image and the ideal self-image (Jacobson, 1954).

Identity. This concept referred to how an individual described his or her basic identity--what he/she was as he/she sees himself or herself (Fitts, 1983).

Self-Satisfaction. This referred to how an individual felt about the self he/she perceived. This concept reflected the level of self-satisfaction or self-acceptance of an individual about himself or herself (Fitts, 1983).

Behavior. This concept was indicative of an individual's perception of his or her own behavior or the way he or she functioned. "This is what I do; this is the way I act" exemplified this concept (Fitts, 1983).

Physical Self. Physical self was indicative of an individual's views of his or her body, state of health, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality (Fitts, 1983).

Moral-Ethical Self. Moral-Ethical self referred to an individual's feelings of moral worth, relationship to God, feelings about being a "good" or "bad" person, and satisfaction with one's religion or lack of it (Fitts, 1983).

Personal Self. Personal self was indicative of an individual's sense of personal worth, his/her feelings of adequacy as a person, and his/her evaluation of personality apart from his/her body or relationship to others (Fitts, 1983).

Family Self. This concept reflected an individual's feelings of adequacy, worth, and value as a family member. It referred to an individual's perception of self relative to his/her closest and most immediate circle of associates (Fitts, 1983).

Social Self. Social self was another "self as perceived in relation to others," but it pertained to "others" more generally. It was the reflection of an individual's sense of adequacy and worth in his or her social interaction with other people in general (Fitts, 1983).

Traditional and Nontraditional Occupations. The definition used for traditional and nontraditional careers was that advanced by Almquist (1969), who stated that any career field composed of 70% or more of either gender was considered to be traditional to that gender. The 1975 Handbook of Women Workers (U.S. Department of Labor, 1975) classified traditional occupations as more than 60% women, moderately traditional occupations as 34% to 66% women, and nontraditional occupations as fewer than 34% women.

Administrative Careers in Higher Education. The categories used here for administrative careers in higher education were those provided by the National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC) (1979), including: president or chancellor; assistant to the president or chancellor; chief officer of an administrative division; associate or assistant to the chief officer of an administrative division; chief officer of an academic or research unit; chief

officer of an administrative unit; and associate or assistant to the chief officer of an academic, research, or administrative unit.

Scope and Limitations of the Study

The period of time with which this study was concerned was the 1985 spring academic semester. A limitation of the study was that the samples for the study included only higher education administration and educational administration graduate students as the nontraditional group of women. Likewise, home economics graduate students enrolled during this period of time at Oklahoma State University were the only sample group for the more traditional women.

Only the specific hypotheses previously stated were tested. These hypotheses dealt with components of the TSCS. Demographic variables were looked at primarily in terms of frequencies and percentages. If the relationship between the demographic variables was found to be significant, these variables were statistically tested. Finally, demographic variables were statistically compared to career choices.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Historical Overview

Historically, women have experienced difficulties, or obstacles, within higher education in the United States. In colonial times, females were excluded from formal education, and this policy continued until the eighteenth century. At that time, training in certain skills such as manners and music was offered. These skills were considered acceptable goals for women during this historical period. During the nineteenth century with the advent of publicly-supported common schools, women gained admittance to public education. Early colleges made accommodations to meet the needs and demands of women at that time. Women took on the domestic responsibilities, such as cooking, and special living arrangements and curricula were developed for them (Moore, 1982).

By the end of the nineteenth century, the number of women in colleges increased substantially. At that time, home economics became the valued course of study for women because of its association with women's biological role. Additional justification for women's participation in education was preparation for roles as future wives or for vocations later in life (Loomis and Wild, 1978). It also appeared that women met the demand for a cheap, available supply of teachers

(Loomis and Wild, 1978). Women did not have access to power or authority within the colleges historically, but they banded together into social networks in an effort to influence those in power (Moore, 1982).

According to the NASULGC (1979), home economics and nursing continued to be the two "channels" of higher education into which women had directed and had become the majority sex. Although equality in education may be a legislated reality, statistical data reflected that few women were represented in top administrative positions in higher education. In fact, the notion was presented that educational institutions were "structured like the pattern of a traditional home, with the men running the institution and women working in the schools as teachers" (Loomis and Wild, 1978, p. 1).

Women made up 66% of public school teachers, but they constituted only 13% of the principals. Higher up the ladder, fewer than 1% of the superintendents in the United States were women. In fact, there were fewer women superintendents, women professors, and principals now than 10 years ago (Quell and Pfeiffer, 1982). In state universities and land-grant colleges, over one-half of the institutions did not have women in top-level administrative positions (Lester and Chu, 1981).

Statistics showed that in 1977 only 3% of the college and university presidents were women (Loomis and Wild, 1978). Numerically, in December of 1975, women presidents numbered 148; by December of 1979, the count had risen to 204, a 73% increase (Taylor, 1981). In 1982, the number of women college presidents was 244 within all types of institutions. This figure of 244 represented 7.5% of the total number

of men and women presidents. Out of the 244 women presidents, the largest number was found in women's colleges (Ottinger, 1984). At the end of 1984, more than one-third (36%) of the women presidents headed public institutions, compared with slightly more than 10% in 1975. About two-thirds (64%) headed independent instituions (Higher Education and National Affairs, 1985). According to a study by the American Council on Education's (ACE) Office of Women in Higher Education, the number of women chief executive officers had doubled since 1975. The ACE had stated that women now comprised 10% of the presidents of the approximately 2,800 institutions accredited by the six major regional accrediting associations. The study indicated that the number of women presidents rose from 148 in 1975 to 286 at the end of 1984--a 93% increase--which represented a net gain of 13 women presidents per year (Higher Education and National Affairs, 1985). At this rate, regardless of the steady, unprecedented gain, there would not be an equal number of women and men presidents of existing U.S. colleges and universities until the year 2070 (Higher Education and National Affairs, 1985).

In a survey completed in 1978 by the NASULGC at 106 major U.S. public universities, the median number of women in these educational institutions had risen from 0 in the 1970-71 academic year to 19 during 1977-78. Overall, the number of women administrators increased by 30.5% for the 70 institutions providing comparative data for both 1975 and 1978 (NASULGC, 1979). In the NASULGC survey, women administrators were found to be more prevalent in the lower administrative ranks, particularly in positions categorized as associate or assistant director, where they represented 58.1%. Of the total, an additional 6.5%

were in middle-management categories (NASULGC, 1979). National data showed that in one-third of the cases where women were administrators, even those holding doctorates were not directors or deans. Instead, these women were chairpersons primarily in traditional female disciplines (Loomis and Wild, 1978).

From another perspective, although the number of women in leadership roles was small, it represented significant progress. According to statistics, there had been a considerable increase in women holding leadership positions in colleges and universities (NASULGC, 1979). Community colleges reported a 200% gain in women presidents in recent years (Taylor, 1981). In every category of the NASULGC survey, the number of women administrators from 1975 to 1978 outpaced considerably the increase in the number of male administrators. From the creation of the first women dean positions at Michigan, Minnesota, and New York (Moore, 1982), the notion of the "token women" in education (Roehr, 1981) had been replaced by more favorable representations of women.

There have been small, annual increases in the proportion of women on the faculties of doctorate-granting universities, which included the 183 public and private institutions classified as such by the Carnegie Council. The overall percentage increased from 14.7% in 1971-72 to 18.8% in 1980-81, a 4% gain over the 10-year period (Hyer, 1985). Statistical data related that in 1981 there were a total of 401,581 full-time faculty members with tenure in institutions of higher education in the United States. Of this total, 107,558 were women, which represented 44% (Ottinger, 1984). Census data from 1980 indicated that persons employed within administration, education, and

related fields numbered 387,538, of which 31%, or 121,224, were women (Professional Women and Minorities, 1984).

From an educational perspective, there were 148,696 master's degrees awarded to women in 1980-81 (Table I). This represented 50% of the total master's degrees conferred to both men and women during this time interval. Doctorates earned by women from 1980-81 totaled 10,247, or 31% of the total earned by women and men during this period of time (Ottinger, 1984). Women are still preferring careers in traditionally female fields, with education being their first choice. Out of a total of 103,453 master's degrees awarded to women in 1979-80, 72,578 were in education (Grant and Eiden, 1982). The U.S. Department of Education claimed that the number of women holding doctorates in education in 1961-62 was 363 out of a total of 1,900. This number increased to 1,355 in 1970-71. In addition, there were 7,940 doctorates in education conferred in 1979-80, with women receiving 3,520 of this total number (Grant and Eiden, 1982). In 1983, women received 3,604 out of the total number of 7,147 doctoral degrees granted. This represented 50.4% (Professional Women and Minorities, 1984).

The field of higher education administration presented data indicating a substantial historical increase in the number of women obtaining doctorates. Between the years 1920 and 1972, there were a total of 522 doctoral degrees earned by individuals in the fields of higher education administration; 96 (18.4%) of these doctorates were awarded to women. In 1983 alone, there were 632 doctoral degrees in higher education administration conferred in the United States. Of this total, 304 were received by women. This represented 48.1% of the total number of doctoral degrees, and it was indicative of the

TABLE I

MASTER'S AND DOCTORATE DEGREES AWARDED TO WOMEN

	1961-62	1970-71	1979-80	1980-81	1920-72	1982	1983
Master's Degrees							
Number received by women				148,696			
Percentage received by women				50%			
Total number of master's degrees awarded to women			103,453				
Number of master's degrees awarded to women in education			72,578				
Percentage of women receiving master's degrees in education			70%				
Doctorate Degrees - Total							
Number received by women				10,247			
Percentage received by women				31%			
Total women holding doctorate degrees in education	363	1,355					
Percentage of increase between 1961-62 and 1970-71		373%					
Total doctorates conferred in 1979-80			7,940				
Total received by women			3,520				
Percentage received by women			44%				
Total doctorates conferred in education					69,377		
Total received by women					13,878		
Percentage received by women					20%		
Total doctorates conferred in education						7,226	
Total received by women						3,525	
Percentage received by women						48.8%	
Total doctorates conferred in education							7,147
Total received by women							3,604
Percentage received by women							50.4%
Doctorate Degrees in Higher Education Administration							
Total earned by all individuals					522		632
Total awarded to women					96		304
Percentage received by women					18.4%		48.1%

increased number of women entering this field (Professional Women and Minorities, 1984).

The Oswego Women's Higher Education (OWHE) National Identification Program, which identified women in higher education administration who were ready for major policy-making roles, credited the doctoral programs in higher education administration around the country for helping increase the number of women presidents of colleges and universities. It claimed that if it were not for these programs in higher education administration, the increase in women presidents would not be more than two or three percent (Higher Education and National Affairs, 1985).

Individual Characteristics of Women in Nontraditional and Traditional Careers and Occupations

It was important to understand the role that individual characteristics or background variables played with regard to women's occupational choices. Two of the most important variables identified were those of age and education. Women in male-dominated professions were found to be older and better educated than their counterparts in more traditionally oriented jobs (Greenfeld, Greiner, and Wood, 1980).

The importance of educational attainment for women suggested that family socioeconomic patterns be studied, relative to their input for higher aspirations (Greenfeld, Greiner, and Wood, 1980). Indeed, the family as a socialization agent in general, which influences career choices, must be considered as an important variable in career choices for women (Thomas, 1980).

Perhaps the most significant variable in the background of a woman, relative to career choice in general, was the educational attainment of her father. It was contended that his education was more important than the role model he represented by his occupational status (Greenfeld, Greiner, and Wood, 1980). It had been emphasized that the occupation of the father provided a norm of prestige or status for the child (Psathas, 1967), and it had to be realized that women in male-dominated fields had better-educated fathers (Greenfeld, Greiner, and Wood, 1980).

Zuckerman (1980) stated that as nontraditional job opportunities increased, women who aspired to these occupations may no longer be exceptional in terms of their family background. According to her, the mother's occupational role was the best indicator of women college students' career choices. In addition, it had been contended that the fact that the mother works, her type of work, and the time and reason for working were important factors to consider in the daughter's decision to work and in the field or occupation to enter. Further, if income was held constant, the educational attainment of both parents influenced the child's choice of either a traditional or nontraditional career.

It had been suggested that parental support for achievement-oriented women was very significant. A study in this area conducted by Stein and Bailey (1973) showed that 68% and 69% of fathers and mothers, respectively, had been rated as often or frequently emotionally supportive. But, inconsistent support was more generally associated with mothers than with fathers. Further research by Thomas, Christie, Calvin, and Denbroeder (1980) had suggested that parents

played an important role in influencing occupational choice. Moreover, family disapproval was a barrier to women aspiring to nontraditional occupations.

Self-Concept as a Moderator Variable on Women's Career Choices

On the continuum from self to system, women had many personal and cultural barriers which influenced their choices of either traditional or nontraditional fields and occupations (Moore and Salimbene, 1981). The majority of research on occupational choice had been confined to men, and little attention had been directed to the different factors operative for women (Psathas, 1967). However, within the available research there were some predominant theories and themes regarding women's career choices. The research study undertaken facilitated an understanding of the finite relationships between conceptual theories of sex-role self-concept and the socialization process, self-concept occupational choice, and self-esteem self-concept occupational choice. With the preceding concepts in mind, this researcher undertook the current study in an effort to examine specifically perceived self-concept as a moderator variable on women's nontraditional career choice of higher education administration.

Sex-Role Self-Concept and the Socialization Process

Since a woman was said to develop a sense of identity based partly on her gender (Reohr, 1981), it was logical to look first at those social and cultural factors which impacted on her personality

development as a woman and to learn how these sociocultural processes influenced her subsequent career choice. Within the framework of women's career choices, sex-role ideology and identity retained an important status (Swatko, 1981), particularly when both were studied in relationship to personality development (Wolfe and Betz, 1981). The socialization process reinforced differentiated sex roles as a result of the interaction between the individual and the socialization patterns, norms, and standards of the society. The importance of the socialization process relative to this research study, according to Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1972), was that in our culture men were more highly valued than are women. Young boys and girls expressed greater preference for masculine things and activities, and ". . . more women than men recall having wished they were of the opposite sex" (Broverman et al., 1972, p. 65).

Since a women's identity rested partly on the fact of her being female (Reohr, 1981), the degree of her feminine personality traits compared to masculine personality characteristics becomes important to her personality development.

Traditionally, masculinity and femininity have been conceptualized as opposites on a continuum (Lester and Chu, 1981). According to Bakan (1966), one end of the continuum is represented by the concept of "agency," while the other end is represented by the concept of "communion." These opposites were characterized by self-assertion, self-protection, and self-expansion on the "agency" end and by openness, cooperation, and nurturance on the opposing end. Reohr (1981) discussed a study related to male-female characteristics which divided these respective personality traits into two clusters: a competency

cluster and a warmth-expressive cluster. Parson and Bales (1955) referred to the male-female continuum as "instrumental" and "expressive." The literature generally presented the notion that women with masculine personality traits were most likely to go into nontraditional careers, whereas women with feminine personality characteristics elected traditional fields (Wolfe and Betz, 1981).

More recently, the concept of androgyny had been said to denote the integration of both masculine and feminine traits in one person, male or female. According to this concept, an individual could be either masculine or feminine, as these traits vary independently according to the situation (Lester and Chu, 1981). One study by Erez and Shaier-Baranzani (1981) found significant differences between students in traditionally male and traditionally female programs with regard to androgynous self-concepts. Female students in traditionally male programs who rated high in androgynous personality traits perceived more occupations as appropriate for either females or males. Results of Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp's (1975) research showed that women with androgynous personalities had the highest level of achievement motivation.

Personality Development and Occupational Choice

Current vocational theory suggested that occupational choice should be looked at within the context of the total personality development of the individual. Holland and Gottfredson (1975) proposed that individuals aspired to occupations congruent with their personality. Super (1957) believed that the process of occupational selection is, in fact, an implementation of one's self-concept. Numerous

additional research studies have been conducted that validate the theory that people seek environments correspondent with their personality type. Literature in this area also discussed a "core self" and "occupational self" (Psathas, 1967). This notion, psychological in nature, implied that there was some degree of congruence between one's "core" self and one's "occupational" self. Essentially, the role of personal influence in career choice was stressed herein, as opposed to outside socialogical variables; that is, conditions of the market. Some studies, however, have failed to provide support for this premise, and others have determined that this theory was differentially valid for different types of women (Wolfe and Betz, 1981). Contrasting points of view on this subject determined that hopes and aspirations of others (Korman, 1966), or expectations of others (Zanna, 1981), could be alternative bases of career choices on the part of women.

Self-Esteem Career Choice

Focusing on self-esteem as a finite component of self-concept, Korman (1967, p. 480) contended that "an individual's self-esteem acts as a moderator variable and the extent to which the self-perceived needs were predictive of his occupational choice." This theory is reinforced by Richardson (1975), who ascertained that there were two moderator variables on occupational choice; one of these variables was self-esteem.

Korman (1966, 1967) and Oppenheimer (1966) had conducted studies which determined that the degree of congruence between self-concept and occupational choice was greater for individuals with high

self-esteem. Within this context, women might more often choose occupations which were congruent with their self-concept if there existed a high degree of self-esteem. Likewise, those with low self-esteem would be less inclined to select those occupations which were in keeping with their personality in general (Richardson, 1975).

Other studies by McBee, Murray, and Suddick (1976) indicated that women in nontraditional, masculine-stereotyped occupations had higher self-esteem than women in more traditional feminine fields. Spence, Helmreich, and Stapp (1975) claimed that androgynous persons score even higher on self-esteem than feminine or masculine individuals.

Self-esteem impacted either positively or negatively on personality development, which then influenced career aspirations in either traditional or nontraditional fields and occupations (Thomas et al., 1980). In the nontraditional career of higher education, this sense of self was considered by the researcher to be of upmost importance.

A survey conducted on women college presidents in the United States lent important information for the intended purpose of this research study of focusing on self-esteem and women's career choices. The advice of the women presidents regarding leadership included the notion of the importance of having a good professional attitude, defined as a positive belief in self. A "strongly developed sense of self-worth as women and professionals" was urged by Taylor (1981, p. 2).

Summary

This review of the literature introduced the reader to a theoretical body of knowledge related to the subject of the research. This

literary foundation included an historical overview of women in higher education, individual characteristics which affected women's choices of traditional and nontraditional careers, and theories related to self-concept as a variable on women's occupational choices. The authorities cited, however, did not show that the subject of women's career choices in the nontraditional field of higher education administration had been an area of investigation. Therefore, the researcher believed this area to be a viable subject for investigation because of the lack of pertinent information. The authors provided substantial information regarding the personal and cultural barriers with which women have to contend in making career choices. Ample research findings were documented which were indicative of both individual characteristics which influenced career choices and personality factors which played a significant role in traditional and nontraditional role choices. The review of the literature, however, failed to discover any conclusive reports of studies regarding the effect of perceived self-concept as a moderator variable in women's nontraditional career choices of higher education administration. A further search of the literature did not provide proof that studies were available dealing definitively with individual characteristics affecting women's career choices in higher education administration. The purpose of the present research study was to explore whether self-concept does, in fact, operate as a moderator variable in women's nontraditional career choices of higher education administration. In this way, this study could contribute to the larger body of knowledge in this area and advance the theoretical base.

CHAPTER III

METHODS AND PROCEDURES

Introduction

This study followed the methodology of inferential statistics. This methodology was used because it involved taking measurements on a sample and then inferring something about a population from the observation (Jaccard, 1983). The intent was to describe the population of women who had chosen nontraditional careers in higher education administration. The population as a whole, as well as women who had chosen traditional careers in home economics, was then inferred from the selected samples, from which observations and their inferences were made.

The methodology of this study also included ex post facto research. It was ex post facto insofar as the independent variables and the individual characteristics were established prior to this research. Consequently, they were not manipulatable. Kerlinger (1964) defined ex post facto as the following:

> . . . that research in which the independent variable or variables have already occurred and in which the researcher starts with the observation of a dependent variable or variables. He then studies the independent variables in retrospect for their possible relations to and effects on, the dependent variable or variables (p. 360).

Instrument

The TSCS (Fitts, 1983), was utilized in this research study for the purpose of testing each individual subject's overall evaluation of herself. The TSCS consisted of 100 self-descriptive statements which subjects utilized to create their own picture of themselves. Ten of the items were drawn from the L-Scale of the Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI). The other 90 were self-descriptive statements equally divided between positive and negative statements.

Although two forms of the TSCS were available, only the counseling form was utilized in this study because it was more expeditious to score. It dealt with fewer variables and scores. The counseling form also required less sophistication by the examiner. The total P score was the most significant single score found on the counseling form because it reflected the overall score of self-esteem.

Bentler (1972) reported the test-retest reliability of the TSCS to be in the high .80's, although varying for different subscales. Internal consistency reliability coefficients for the subscale used in studies have ranged from .75 to .92.

The TSCS was divided into nine components: overall self-esteem, identity, self-satisfaction, behavior, physical self, moral-ethical self, personal self, family self, and social self. Each component was defined in Chapter I.

The TSCS was easily self-administered and was relatively easy to score and interpret. There were no training requirements for scoring, nor were there any requirements for administration.

Questionnaire

A review of the primary literature on individual characteristics affecting women's traditional or nontraditional career choices suggested 18 demographic variables: age, marital status, number of children, previous or present occupation, major field of last degree, age at which last degree was received, religious background, father's education, mother's education, father's occupation, mother's occupation, socioeconomic range of family during childhood and adolescence, number of older brothers, number of younger brothers, number of older sisters, number of younger sisters, major influences on life, and racial group.

A questionnaire was then developed to obtain this information from women graduate students in both traditional and nontraditional major fields of study. The questionnaire was sent to the respondents at the same time as the TSCS.

Selection of Population

It was decided that the individuals who would best be able to represent women aspiring to either nontraditional careers in higher education administration or more traditional careers would be university graduate students. Therefore, 48 women currently enrolled in the doctoral program in higher education administration at Oklahoma State University (OSU) were the subjects of the nontraditional career group. Forty-eight graduate students currently enrolled in the college of home economics at OSU were the sample group for the traditional career group. These subjects were randomly selected from the existing populations.

Procedures

The design utilized within this study was correlational research, with the two sample groups being those women populations previously defined. This design was chosen because the study is correlational in nature. In addition, the correlational research design was believed to be appropriate for testing the hypotheses of the study. Correlational research involved a determination of if, and to what degree, a relationship existed between two or more variables. The data were then used to test hypotheses regarding expected relationships (Gay, 1981). Two independent variables of traditional and nontraditional careers were statistically analyzed regarding their relationship to self-concept scores, which were dependent variables. Mean scores from both groups were then obtained and compared on nine individual measures of self-concept. Extraneous variables were controlled for by randomization. No pilot study was conducted.

Collection of Data

The researcher discussed the study and its purpose with the chairpersons of the Higher Education Administration Program and the College of Home Economics. Permission to conduct the study using a sample of graduate students from each program and college was granted. Names and addresses of all female students in the respective program and college were also supplied by the chairpersons. The identification and randomization of subjects were completed by April 30, 1985. The TSCS and the questionnaire were mailed to the subjects in the middle of June, 1985, with accompanying letters requesting their

participation and explaining the purpose of the study. Copies of the letters for the first and second mailings are in Appendix A. The subjects were told that they would be self-administering the TSCS; however, explicit directions accompanied the TSCS. Pre-addressed, stamped envelopes for returning the answer sheets and questionnaires were provided to the participants. Numbers were assigned to each respondent's envelope for return recognition purposes. The numbers were necessary in order to follow-up on nonrespondents; however, the envelopes were not opened until an acceptable number of responses were received. At this time, all envelopes were discarded before review of the responses. Using this procedure, identification of the individual respondents was not possible from the contents of the envelopes. Complete anonymity was thus assured the participants. The inclusion of the respondents in the results of the research study was also guaranteed, and an abstract of the study results was sent to the participants by the researcher.

On July 15, 1985, 96 women graduate students in the two selected programs were mailed packets containing the survey information. Reminder letters were mailed to nonrespondents on the first of August, 1985. Nonrespondents were identified by the unreturned numbered envelopes. Telephone calls to the remaining nonrespondents were personally made by the researcher at the end of August, 1985. By September 7, 1985, 36 individuals from each group, or 75% of those women graduate students surveyed, had completed the survey instruments and had mailed them to the researcher. Table II depicts the number and percentages of returned, usable questionnaires.

TABLE II

SUMMARY OF TOTAL QUESTIONNAIRES MAILED AND RETURNS RECEIVED FROM WOMEN GRADUATE STUDENTS IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AT OKLAHOMA STATE UNIVERSITY

	Higher Education Administration			Home Economics		
	Mailed (N=48)	Returned (N=36)		Mailed (N=48)	Returned (N=36)	
	N	%	%	N	%	%
Returns after:						
First mailing	24	50.0	66.7	30	62.5	83.3
Second mailing	8	16.7	22.2	4	8.3	11.1
Telephone calls	4	8.3	11.1	2	4.2	5.6
Totals	36	75.0	100.0	36	75.0	100.0

The completed answer sheets of the TSCS were computer scored by the computer center at Oklahoma State University. The computer also statistically analyzed data from the returned TSCS and demographic questionnaires in September of 1985. The Statistical Analysis Package (SAS) was used for data analysis.

Statistical Treatment of Data

The data obtained by this research were, in part, parametric (expressed numerically). It was determined that a *t* test of inde-

pendent means would be used to analyze the results of the TSCS. Jaccard (1983) stated that the independent t test is used to analyze the relationship between two variables when the following conditions are met:

1. The dependent variable is quantitative in nature and is measured on a scale that approximates interval characteristics

2. The independent variable is between subjects in nature

3. The independent variable has two and only two values. In addition, Jaccard stated that because of the size of the sample, the unknown standard deviation, and the assumption of the normal curve, the t test is the appropriate statistical tool.

In efforts to increase the accuracy of the statistical calculations and to expedite the computations needed for this study, it was decided to treat the data by computer. This transpired during September, 1985, and the process was completed by the last week of this month.

It was concluded that a significant difference existed between the two groups of respondents when, by the statistical procedure, the t test yielded a value at the .05 level of confidence.

The data obtained from the demographic questionnaire were analyzed, in part, utilizing frequencies and percentages. For those selected individual characteristics where a significant difference was observed, a one-way analysis of variance statistic was used to examine this relationship further. A one-way analysis of variance is used, according to Jaccard (1983), to analyze the relationship between two variables when:

1. The dependent variable is quantitative in nature and is measured on approximately an interval level;

2. The independent variable is between-subjects in nature (it can be either qualitative or quantitative); and

3. The independent variable has three or more groups or values (p. 207).

One-way between-subjects analysis is used under the same circumstances as the independent groups t test, except that the independent variable has more than two values.

A post hoc Scheffe test was then applied to those variables which were found to be statistically significant by the analysis of variance statistic test. The Scheffe made it possible to know the nature of the significant relationship between the variables.

The chi-square test of independence was used to test the relationship between the demographic variables and career choice. Jaccard (1983) stated that the chi-square test of independence is typically used to analyze the relationship between two variables when:

1. Both variables are qualitative in nature, or measured on a nominal level

2. Both variables are between subjects in nature

The chi-square test of independence utilized a two-way frequency table as the basis for analysis. It examined the relationship between two variables--one variable related to a demographic characteristic and the other variable being a career choice.

Chi-squares were then used to compare and test each demographic variable with career choices. The chi-square is a test of statistical significance which determines whether a systematic relationship exists between two variables. Cell frequencies were used to determine

relationships present between the variables, by row and column totals. The expected cell frequencies were then compared with actual values found in tables. Degrees of freedom were used to ascertain probability of chi-square values.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS IN THE STUDY

The primary purpose of this study was to analyze the differences in self-perceptions of personality of two groups of women graduate students aspiring to careers in higher education administration and home economics. The higher education administration group of students, considered to be the nontraditional career group, was compared to the group of home economics students, considered to be the traditional career group, on the basis of perceptions of self in nine different personality components. The findings of the comparisons of self-perceptions in these two groups are reported in this chapter. The specific hypotheses related to the perceptions of self, or personality components, are discussed in the first section of this chapter.

The first null hypothesis finding presented centered on differences, if any, between self-perceptions of overall self-esteem of women graduate students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics, as compared to those who aspired to nontraditional careers in higher education administration.

The second null hypothesis finding presented centered on differences, if any, between self-perceptions of identity of the two sample groups in this study.

The third null hypothesis finding presented centered on differences, if any, between self-perceptions of self-satisfaction of the

The fourth null hypothesis finding presented centered on differences, if any, between self-perceptions of behavior of women graduate students in the two traditional and nontraditional groups.

The fifth null hypothesis finding presented centered on differences, if any, between self-perceptions of the physical state of health of the two groups of women students.

The sixth null hypothesis finding presented centered on differences, if any, between self-perceptions of the moral-ethical values of the women who aspired to nontraditional and traditional careers.

The seventh null hypothesis finding presented centered on differences, if any, between self-perceptions of personal self of the women who comprised the two groups.

The eighth null hypothesis finding presented centered on the differences, if any, in the self-perceptions of family self of the students who aspired to careers in higher education administration and home economics.

The ninth and final null hypothesis finding presented centered on the differences, if any, between self-perceptions of social self of the women graduate students.

The second section of Chapter IV dealt with selected demographic variables, comprised of both personal and background characteristics, and their relationship to personality. This was an additional research consideration of this study which helped explain personality. The relationships between the selected demographic variables and each of the components of personality were statistically analyzed, interpreted, and discussed.

The third seciton of Chapter IV related the findings of the relationships between demographic variables and traditional and non-traditional career choices. These relationships were statistically examined, presented, and discussed.

Personality and Its Relationship to Career Choice

Research Hypothesis One

Ho1. There was no statistically significant difference in overall self-esteem in the self perceptions of women university students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics as compared with the self-perceptions of overall self-esteem of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

The null hypothesis of no statistically significant difference between self-perceptions of women graduate students in higher education administration and women graduate students in home economics was rejected (Table III). Higher overall self-esteem was perceived on the part of the higher education administration group of students than that perceived by the students in home economics ($t = 1.918$; 70 df; $p = <.035$).

Research Hypothesis Two

Ho2. There was no statistically significant difference in the self-perceptions of women university students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics as compared with the self-perceptions

of identity of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

TABLE III

T-TEST OF INDEPENDENT MEANS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AND OVERALL SELF-ESTEEM

	Higher Education (N=36)	Home Economics (N=36)
Mean	379.694	364.888
Standard Deviation	28.620	29.791
T-Value	2.150	2.150
Degree of Freedom	69.9	70.0
Probability		.035

As noted in Table IV, the null hypothesis of no statistically significant difference between self-perceptions of identity of women in the two graduate programs of home economics and higher education administration was not rejected. There were no self-perceived diferences between these groups of students in this personality component (n.s.).

Research Hypothesis Three

Ho3. There was no statistically significant difference in the

self-perceptions of self-satisfaction of women university students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics as compared with the self-perceptions of self-satisfaction of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

TABLE IV

T-TEST OF INDEPENDENT MEANS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AND IDENTITY

	Higher Education (N=36)	Home Economics (N=36)
Mean	133.667	130.917
Standard Deviation	8.569	8.364
T-Value	1.378	1.378
Degree of Freedom	70.0	70.0
Probability		n.s.

The null hypothesis of no statistically significant difference between self-perceptions of the graduate students in the areas of higher education administration and home economics was not accepted. Women graduate students in the Higher Education Administration Program perceived higher self-satisfaction than did women graduate students in

the College of Home Economics (Table V). This concept reflected the level of self-satisfaction or self-acceptance the individual had about herself ($t = 2.162$; 70 df; $p = <0.034$).

TABLE V

T-TEST OF INDEPENDENT MEANS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AND SELF-SATISFACTION

	Higher Education (N=36)	Home Economics (N=36)
Mean	121.278	114.750
Standard Deviation	12.614	13.0
T-Value	2.162	2.162
Degree of Freedom	69.9	70.0
Probability		.034

Research Hypothesis Four

Ho4. There was no statistically significant difference in the self-perceptions of women university students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics as compared with the self-perceptions of behavior of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

The null hypothesis of no statistically significant difference between self-perceptions of behavior of women graduate students in the Higher Education Program and in the College of Home Economics was not accepted (Table VI). Behavior referred to the individual's perception of her own behavior and the way she functioned. The higher education administration students perceived their behavior to be higher than did the group of home economics students ($t = 2.070$; 70 df; $p = <0.042$).

TABLE VI

T-TEST OF INDEPENDENT MEANS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AND BEHAVIOR

	Higher Education (N=36)	Home Economics (N=36)
Mean	124.750	119.222
Standard Deviation	10.901	11.743
T-Value	2.070	2.070
Degree of Freedom	69.6	70.0
Probability		.042

Research Hypothesis Five

Ho5. There was no statistically significant difference in the

self-perceptions of women university students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics as compared with the self-perceptions of physical state of health of those women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

The null hypothesis of no statistically significant difference between self-perception of physical self of women graduate students in the two groups within the study was not rejected (Table VII). Physical self was indicative of the individual's view of her body, physical appearance, skills, and sexuality (n.s.).

TABLE VII

T-TEST OF INDEPENDENT MEANS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AND PHYSICAL SELF

	Higher Education (N=36)	Home Economics (N=36)
Mean	73.361	69.556
Standard Deviation	7.922	8.888
T-Value	1.918	1.918
Degree of Freedom	69.1	70.0
Probability		n.s.

Research Hypothesis Six

Ho6. There was no statistically significant difference in the self-perceptions of women university students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics as compared with the self-perceptions of moral-ethical self of women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

The null hypothesis of no statistically significant difference between the self-perceptions of moral-ethical self of women graduate students in the two groups of higher education administration and home economics was not rejected (Table VIII). There was no perceived difference in this personality component between the traditional and nontraditional groups of women (n.s.).

TABLE VIII

T-TEST OF INDEPENDENT MEANS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AND MORAL-ETHICAL SELF

	Higher Education (N=36)	Home Economics (N=36)
Mean	79.472	76.917
Standard Deviation	6.509	6.893
T-Value	1.617	6.893
Degree of Freedom	69.18	70.0
Probability		n.s.

Research Hypothesis Seven

Ho7. There was no statistically significant difference between the self-perceptions of women university students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics as compared with the self-perceptions of personal self of women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

The null hypothesis that there was no statistically significant difference between self-perceptions of personal self of women students who aspired to career fields in higher education administration and home economics was not accepted (Table IX). The higher education administration nontraditional group of students perceived their personal self higher than perceived by the home economics traditional group of women. Personal self was defined as the individual's sense of personal worth, her feelings of adequacy as a person, and her evaluation of her personality apart from her body or relationship to others ($t = 1.918$; 70 df; $p = <0.013$).

Research Hypothesis Eight

Ho8. There was no statistically significant difference in the self-perceptions of women university students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics as compared with the self-perceptions of family self of women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

The null hypothesis that there was no statistically significant difference between self-perceptions of family self of the graduate students in the Higher Education Administration Program and the College

of Home Economics was not rejected (Table X). There was no difference between the two groups with regard to this personality component (n.s.).

TABLE IX

T-TEST OF INDEPENDENT MEANS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AND PERSONAL SELF

	Higher Education (N=36)	Home Economics (N=36)
Mean	74.417	70.306
Standard Deviation	6.570	7.022
T-Value	2.565	2.565
Degree of Freedom	69.7	70.0
Probability		.013

Research Hypothesis Nine

Ho9. There was no statistically significant difference in the self-perceptions of women university students who aspired to traditional careers in home economics as compared with the self-perceptions of social self of women university students who aspired to nontraditional careers as administrators in higher education.

The null hypothesis of no statistically significant difference between self-perceptions of social self of women enrolled in graduate programs in higher education administration and home economics was

not rejected (Table XI). This personality component was not perceived as significantly different between the two groups (n.s.).

TABLE X

T-TEST OF INDEPENDENT MEANS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AND FAMILY SELF

	Higher Education (N=36)	Home Economics (N=36)
Mean	77.778	75.333
Standard Deviation	7.160	6.916
T-Value	1.4734	1.4734
Degree of Freedom	69.9	70.0
Probability		n.s.

In summary, four components of personality were significantly higher for women students in the nontraditional career area of higher education administration as compared to those women students in home economics (Figure 1). Those personality components perceived higher by the nontraditional group included the following: overall self-esteem, self-satisfaction, behavior, and personal self. Five components which were not perceived to be higher by the nontraditional

group were the following: physical state of health, identity, moral-ethical self, social self, and family self.

TABLE XI

T-TEST OF INDEPENDENT MEANS BETWEEN TWO GROUPS OF HIGHER EDUCATION AND HOME ECONOMICS AND SOCIAL SELF

	Higher Education (N=36)	Home Economics (N=36)
Mean	74.667	72.778
Standard Deviation	7.468	7.512
T-Value	1.092	1.092
Degree of Freedom	69.9	70.0
Probability		n.s.

Demographic Characteristics and Their Relationship to Personality

Within the first part of this section, demographic characteristics were examined in relation to percentages and frequencies. The purpose was to compare the personal and family background variables of the higher education administration graduate women students with those of home economics women graduate students. In addition, the frequency

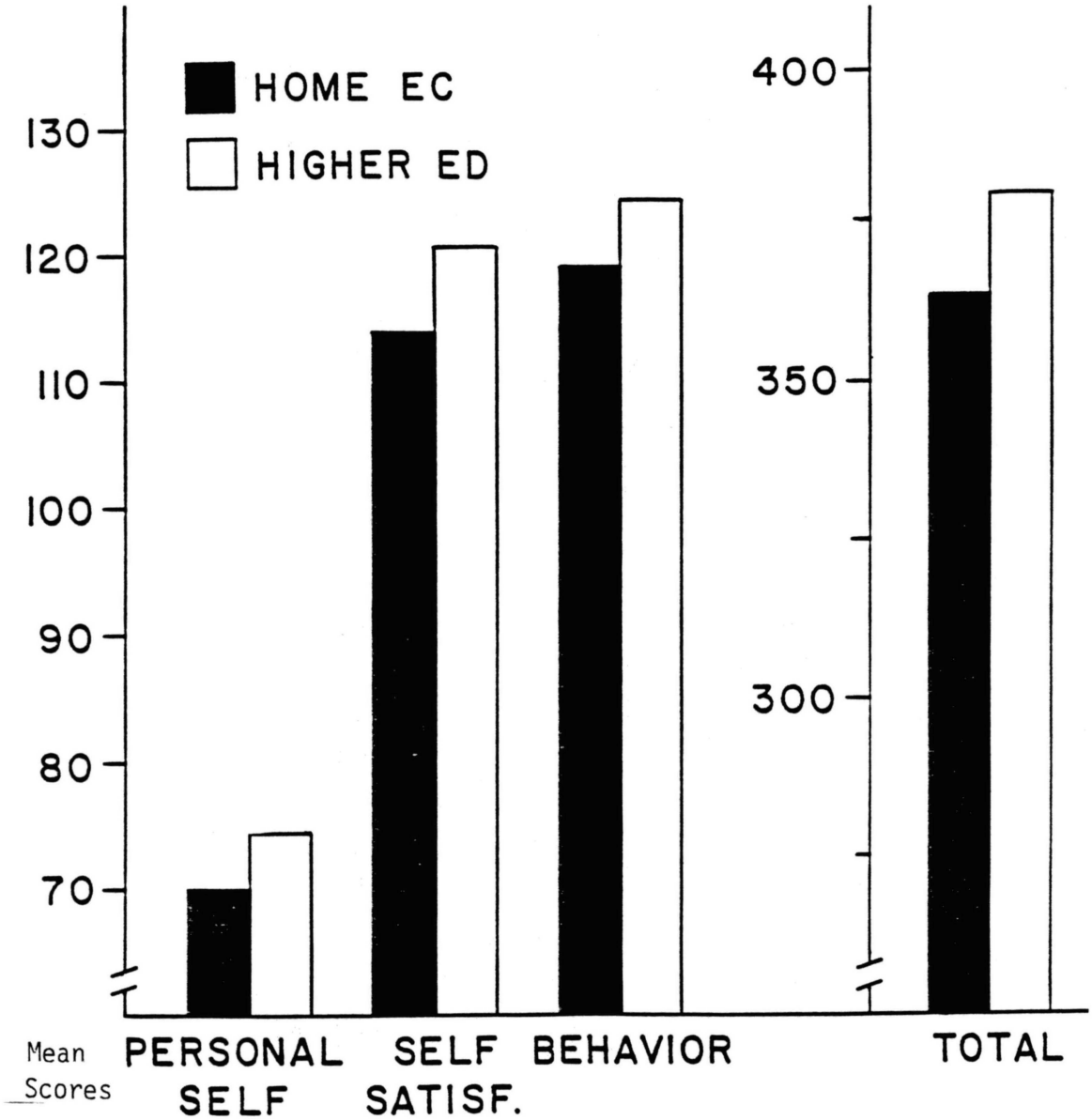


Figure 1. Overall Self-Esteem, Self-Satisfaction, Behavior, and Personal Self Components of Personality Mean Scores: Higher Education Admistration and Home Economics

of occurrence of each of these selected characteristics was then observed, as well as the product of these frequencies.

The second part of this section was concerned with the relationship of the demographic characteristics to the personality components. The comparison of these two sets of variables was made for the two groups of women as a whole, not for the demographic variables in comparison with each of the individual career groups. The objective was to gain an overall perception of the role of the demographic characteristics, both historically and presently, in the development of personality of the women students in general.

Independent variables with only two categories were compared statistically with personality through the use of a t-test of independent means. Those independent variables with three categories were analyzed statistically by utilization of an analysis of variance test. Interpretations of the results are included for both groups of statistical tests. Graphs showing significant relationships between variables are also presented.

The final part of this section examined demographic characteristics in relationship to career choices of traditional or nontraditional fields of higher education administration and home economics. A chi-square statistical test was used to examine this relationship. Interpretations and discussion of significant results are included for these relationships.

Marital Status

The number of married students was greater in the higher education group of students than in the home economics group (Table XII).

The percentages for the higher education administration group were 25% single and 75% married, and for the home economics group, the percentages were 39% single and 61% married. These frequencies and percentages were based on a 100% percentage for each of the two groups (total row percentage in Table XII). Divorced and widowed categories were collapsed into the category of singles, since the majority of students fell into the two categories of married or single.

TABLE XII

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (MARITAL STATUS)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Marital Status Single	 Married	 Total
Higher Education Administration	9 12.50 25.00 39.13	27 37.50 75.00 55.10	36 50.00
Home Economics	14 19.44 38.89 60.87	22 30.56 61.11 44.90	36
Totals	23 31.94	27 68.06	72 100.00

Spouse's Employment

The nature of the spouse's employment was categorized as either nonprofessional or professional. The original five categories were collapsed into two categories.

The majority of the spouses fell into either the category of professional or one of the five categories which, for purposes of this study, were not considered to be professional jobs or occupations. The original five categories, which were later collapsed into the nonprofessional categories, included the following: self-employed, teacher or professional, businessman, technical trade or laborer, or other. The "15" and the "8" depicted in Table XIII represent the single students who did not respond to this question. Nonprofessional and professional spouses were close in numbers and percentages in both groups. The higher education administration group had 64% spouses who did not work in jobs or occupations considered to be professional. The home economics group reported 57% of their spouses fell into the nonprofessional category. The two groups claimed percentages of 36% and 43%, respectively, of spouses who were employed in professional jobs or occupations.

Previous or Present Occupation

Teaching was the most common occupation of both groups of students (Table XIV). A total of 42% of the higher education students and 40% of the home economics students were reported in the teaching category. The next largest category was that of business. A total of 56% of higher education administration students fell into the business

occupation, whereas only 14% of home economics students were represented in this category. Interestingly, no higher education administration respondents listed "other" as a career option, but 31% of the home economics students did so. The category of homemaker for both groups was very low. Only 1% of the higher education administration group and 14% of the home economics group reported homemaking as a career.

TABLE XIII

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (NATURE OF SPOUSE'S EMPLOYMENT)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	No Response	Nature of Spouse's Employment Non-professional	Professional	Total
Higher Education Administration	8	18 36.73 64.29 60.00	10 20.41 35.71 52.63	28 57.14
Home Economics	15	12 24.49 57.14 40.00	9 18.37 42.86 47.37	21 42.86
Totals		30 61.22	19 38.78	49 100.00

TABLE XIV

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (PRESENT OR PREVIOUS OCCUPATION)

Frequency / Percent / Row Pct / Col Pct		Present or Previous Occupation: Homemaker	Teacher	Business	Other	Total
Higher Education Administration	0	1 1.41 2.78 16.67	15 21.13 41.67 51.72	20 28.17 55.56 80.00	0 0 0 0	36 50.70
Home Economics	1	5 7.04 14.29 83.33	14 19.72 40.00 48.28	5 7.04 14.29 20.00	11 15.49 31.43 100.00	35 49.30
Totals		6 8.45	29 40.85	25 35.21	11 15.49	71 100.00

Number of Children

There was a large number of both groups of students who had no children (Table XV). This was because there were a total of 23 single respondents from both groups, and most of these individuals had never been married. Thirty-three percent of the students in higher education administration reported having two children; 26% of the home econommics students reported one child, and 6% of them reported two children. For the category of one child, higher education administration women

women reported 19%, and 22% of this group reported having three or more children.

TABLE XV

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (NUMBER OF CHILDREN)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct		Number of Children 0	1	2	3 or more	Total
Higher Education Administration	0	9 12.68 25.00 34.62	7 9.86 19.44 43.75	12 16.90 33.33 85.71	8 11.27 22.22 53.33	36 50.70
Home Economics	1	17 23.94 48.57 65.38	9 12.68 25.71 56.25	2 2.82 5.71 14.29	7 9.86 20.00 46.67	35 49.30
Totals		26 36.62	16 22.54	14 19.72	15 21.13	71 100.00

Major Field of Last Degree

As expected, data indicated that higher education administration students obtained their last degree in their respective fields of career choice (Table XVI). Specifically, higher education administration

students reported their field of last degree as home economics only 6% of the time and as education 71% of the time. Home economics students listed their field of last degree as home economics 49% of the time. The "other" category was reported by higher education administration and home economics students as 23% and 34% of the time, respectively.

TABLE XVI

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (MAJOR FIELD OF LAST DEGREE)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct		Major Field of Last Degree Higher Education Administration	Home Economics	Other	Total
Higher Education Administration	1	25 35.71 71.43 80.65	2 2.86 5.71 10.53	8 11.43 22.86 40.00	35 50.00
Home Economics	1	6 8.57 17.14 19.35	17 24.29 48.57 89.47	12 17.14 34.29 60.00	35
Totals		31 44.29	19 27.14	20 28.57	70 100.00

Age at Last Degree

Table XVII presents a strong trend in these two groups of students. The higher education administration individuals received their education later in life than did the persons in home economics. Only 7% of the higher education administration students received their last degree at the age of 25 or younger, while 67% of the home economics students reported receiving their last degree at the age of 25 or younger. From the age of 25 and older, higher education administration students obtained their last degree 19% of the time at each of the age categories of 26-30, 31-35, and 36-40. At the age category of 41-50, this group received their last degree 28% of the time. On the other hand, the home economics students received degrees at the following percentage rates: 11% at ages 26-30, 8% at ages 31-35, 11% at ages 36-40, and 3% at ages 40-50.

Religious Background

The data in Table XVIII contain information relating to religious backgrounds of both groups of students. A significantly greater number of higher education administration and home economics students were of Protestant backgrounds, as opposed to having Jewish or Catholic backgrounds. Higher education administration students were Protestant, while 56% of the home economics students were Protestant. The "other" category, representing 3% of the higher education administration group and 44% of the home economics group, was originally composed of Catholics and Jews. These additional two categories were collapsed, however, into the single "other" category because the great majority of responses were in the Protestant category.

TABLE XVII

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (AGE AT LAST DEGREE)

Frequency / Percent / Row Pct / Col Pct	Age at Last Degree: 25 or Less	26-30	31-35	36-40	41-50	Total
Higher Education Administration	5	7	7	7	10	36
	6.94	9.72	9.72	9.72	13.89	50.00
	13.89	19.44	19.44	19.44	27.78	
	17.24	63.64	70.00	63.64	90.91	
Home Economics	24	4	3	4	1	36
	33.33	5.56	4.17	5.56	1.39	50.00
	66.67	11.11	8.33	11.11	2.78	
	82.76	36.36	30.00	36.36	9.09	
Totals	29	11	10	11	11	72
	40.28	15.28	13.89	15.28	15.28	100.00

Father's Educational Background

There were more home economics students than higher education administration students having fathers who had completed college (Table XIX). Twenty-five percent of the higher education administration students' fathers, compared to 50% of the home economic stduents' fathers, had obtained college degrees. Forty-four percent of the higher education administration students' fathers did not finish high school, compared to 17% of the home economics students' fathers. The two groups were close in percentages (31% and 33%, respectively) regarding fathers who did complete high school.

TABLE XVIII

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (RELIGIOUS BACKGROUND)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Religious Background Protestant	 Other	 Total
Higher Education Administration	35 48.61 97.22 63.64	1 1.39 2.78 5.88	36 50.00
Home Economics	20 27.78 55.56 36.36	16 22.22 44.44 94.12	36 50.00
Totals	55 76.39	17 23.61	72 100.00

Mother's Educational Background

There was a significantly larger number of mothers of higher education administration students who did not finish high school than mothers of home economics students (Table XX). The percentages from these data are 39% and 14%, respectively. Conversely, 33% of the higher education administration students and 60% of the home economics students' mothers did complete high school. College degrees were received by approximately the same number of mothers for both groups (28% and 26%, respectively).

TABLE XIX

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (FATHER'S EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND)

Frequency / Percent / Row Pct / Col Pct	Father's Educational Background: High School	High School	College Degree	Total
Higher Education Administration	16 22.22 44.44 72.73	11 15.28 30.56 47.83	9 12.50 25.00 33.33	36 50.00
Home Economics	6 8.33 16.67 27.27	12 16.67 33.33 52.17	18 25.00 50.00 66.67	36 50.00
Totals	22 30.56	23 31.94	27 37.50	72 100.00

Father's Occupation When Respondent Was 13 Years of Age

There was a consistent spread in two of the four categories of occupations in each of the two groups; namely, nonprofessional (24%) and self employed (24%) for the higher education administration group and self-employed (23%) and professional (23%) categories for the home economics group Table XXI). However, there was no consistency, except for the approximately 23% between the self-employed categories when comparing categories between the two groups. There were approximately

2.5% more fathers employed as workers in the higher education administration group than in the home economics group (17%, compared to 44%). The data also reflected that approximately 1.5% more fathers were employed in the nonprofessional category from the home economics group than from the higher education administration group.

TABLE XX

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (MOTHER'S EDUCATIONAL BACKGROUND)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Mother's Educational Background High School	 High School	 College Degree	 Total
Higher Education Administration	14 19.72 38.89 73.68	12 16.90 33.33 36.36	10 14.08 27.78 42.63	36 50.70
Home Economics	5 7.04 14.29 26.32	21 29.58 60.00 63.64	9 12.68 25.71 47.37	35 49.30
Totals	19 26.76	33 46.48	19 26.76	71 100.00

TABLE XXI

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (FATHER'S OCCUPATION WHEN YOU WERE 13)

Frequency / Percent / Row Pct / Col Pct		Father's Occupation When You Were 13: Worker	Nonprofessional	Self-Employed	Professional	Total
Higher Education Administration	2	15 21.74 44.12 71.43	8 11.59 23.53 38.10	8 11.59 23.53 50.00	3 4.35 8.82 27.27	34 49.35
Home Economics	1	6 8.70 17.14 28.57	13 18.84 37.14 61.90	8 11.59 22.86 50.00	8 11.59 22.86 72.73	35 50.72
Totals		21 30.43	21 30.43	16 23.19	11 15.94	69 100.00

Mother's Occupation When Respondent Was 13 Years of Age

Interestingly, the data from mothers' occupations when the respondents were 13 years of age were identical for both the higher education administration and the home economics groups (Table XXII). Sixty-one percent of both groups reported their mothers being at home, as opposed to working outside the home, and 39% of both groups reported their mothers worked outside the home.

TABLE XXII

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (MOTHER'S OCCUPATION WHEN YOU WERE 13)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Mother's Occupation When You Were 13 At Home	Working	Total
Higher Education Administration	22 30.56 61.11 50.00	14 19.44 38.89 50.00	36 50.00
Home Economics	22 30.56 61.11 50.00	14 19.44 38.89 50.00	36 50.00
Total	44 61.11	28 38.89	72 100.00

Socioeconomic Range of Family During Childhood

A majority of the women were from lower-middle socioeconomic backgrounds (Table XXIII). Higher education administration students, representing 62%, and home economics students, representing 51%, reported this socioeconomic class to be representative of their families during adolescence. Neither group was significantly represented in the lower socioeconomic range. Only 18% of the higher education administration students and 9% of the home economics students responded to this category. Similarly, higher education administration was not

well represented by upper-middle class families (21%). There was, however, a total of 40% home economics students who responded to the upper-middle socioeconomic class category.

TABLE XXIII

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (SOCIO-ECONOMIC RANGE DURING CHILDHOOD)

Frequency / Percent / Row Pct / Col Pct		Socioeconomic Range During Childhood: Lower	Lower Middle	Upper Middle	Total
Higher Education Administration	2	6 8.70 17.65 66.67	21 30.43 61.76 53.85	7 10.14 20.59 33.33	34 49.28
Home Economics	1	3 4.35 8.57 33.33	18 26.09 51.43 46.15	14 20.29 40.00 66.67	35 50.72
Totals		9 13.04	39 56.52	21 30.43	69 100.00

Number of Older Sisters

Students in higher education administration and home economics were about evenly divided with regard to having no older sisters and

having some older sisters (Table XXIV). Because of the sparseness of the responses in the original categories of 1, 2, and 3 or more, these three categories were collapsed into the existing "some" category. Higher education administration students reported that 72% of their group had no older sisters, while 28% did have older sisters. Similarly, home economics students reported that 67% of them had no older sisters, while 34% had older sisters.

TABLE XXIV

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (NUMBER OF OLDER SISTERS)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Number of Older Sisters None	 Some	 Total
Higher Education Administration	26 36.11 72.22 52.00	10 13.89 27.78 45.45	36 50.00
Home Economics	24 33.33 66.67 48.00	12 16.67 33.33 54.55	36 50.00
Totals	50 69.44	22 30.56	72 100.00

Number of Younger Sisters

Higher education administration students reported that 75% of their group had no younger sisters, and 25% had some younger sisters. On the other hand, respondents from the home economics student group were evenly split (18 to 18) with respect to having no younger sisters and having some younger sisters (Table XXV). This total represented 50% from each category. The original categories of 0, 1, 2, and 3 or more were collapsed into the existing two categories because of the large number of responses in these two categories.

TABLE XXV

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (NUMBER OF YOUNGER SISTERS)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Number of Younger Sisters None	 Some	 Total
Higher Education Administration	27 37.50 75.00 60.00	9 12.50 25.00 33.33	36 50.00
Home Economics	18 25.00 50.00 40.00	18 25.00 50.00 66.67	36 50.00
Totals	45 62.50	27 37.50	72 100.00

Number of Older Brothers

Higher education administration and home economics students were split fairly evenly on numbers of older brothers, with percentages of 62 and 58, respectively (Table XXVI). With regard to older brothers, higher education administration student responses totaled 39%; home economics student responses totaled 42%. The original categories of 1, 2, and 3 or more were collapsed into the present two categories because of the significant number of responses in these two categories.

TABLE XXVI

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (NUMBER OF OLDER BROTHERS)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Number of Older Brothers None	 Some	 Total
Higher Education Administration	22 30.56 61.11 51.16	14 19.44 38.89 48.28	36 50.00
Home Economics	21 29.17 58.33 48.84	15 20.83 41.67 51.72	36 50.00
Totals	43 59.72	29 40.28	72 100.00

Number of Younger Brothers

The two groups of higher education administration and home economics women students were similar in composition regarding number of younger brothers (Table XXVII). There were 50% and 61%, respectively, who responded to the category of no younger brothers. Similarly, a total of 50% of the higher education administration group responded to the category of some younger brothers; 39% of the home economics group reported that they had younger brothers.

TABLE XXVII

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (NUMBER OF YOUNGER BROTHERS)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Number of Younger Brothers None	 Some	 Total
Higher Education Administration	18 25.00 50.00 45.00	18 25.00 50.00 56.25	36 50.00
Home Economics	22 30.56 61.11 55.00	14 19.44 38.89 43.75	36 50.00
Totals	40 55.56	32 44.44	72 100.00

Major Influence on Life

The categories exhibited in Table XXVIII were originally five in number and included "other female individual," "other male individual," and "other" (which was thought to be peer group influence). However, since the majority of responses were in categories of "female family member" and "male family member," these additional categories were collapsed into one category ("other").

TABLE XXVIII

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (MAJOR INFLUENCE ON LIFE)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Major Influence on Life Female Family Member	 Male Family Member	 Other	 Total
Higher Education Administration	18 25.00 50.00 45.00	7 9.72 19.44 63.64	11 15.28 30.56 52.38	36 50.00
Home Economics	22 30.56 61.11 55.00	4 5.56 11.11 36.36	10 13.89 27.78 47.62	36 50.00
Totals	40 55.56	11 15.28	21 29.17	72 100.00

The data showed that most of the women students in this study were greatly influenced by a female family member. A total of 50% of the higher education administration students responded to this category, and 61% of the home economics students did likewise. Only 19% of the higher education administration group and 11% of the home economics group reported having been greatly influenced by male family members.

Racial or Ethnic Background

Most of the women in the present study were Caucasian (Table XXIX). There were 31 (86%) Caucasian higher education adminstration students and 31 (86%) Caucasian home economics students. The "all other" category originally included Blacks, Indians, and others. However, since there were so few total responses in these three categories, the three were collapsed into the present "all other" category. All other racial or ethnic backgrounds totaled 14% for both groups of higher education administration and home economics women.

Demographic Characteristics and Their Relationship to Personality of Both Groups of Women Students

Relationship of Spouse's Employment to Personal Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between spouse's employment and personal self for the two groups of women graduate students in higher education administration and home

economics (Figure 2). Women who had spouses working in nonprofessional occupations scored higher on personal self than did those women who had spouses working in professional occupations ($t = -2.172$; 47 df; $p = <0.035$).

TABLE XXIX

DEMOGRAPHIC CHARACTERISTICS OF HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND HOME ECONOMICS STUDENTS: FREQUENCIES AND PERCENTAGES (RACIAL OR ETHNIC BACKGROUND)

Frequency Percent Row Pct Col Pct	Racial or Ethnic Background All Other	 Caucasian	 Total
Higher Education Administration	5 6.94 13.89 50.00	31 43.06 86.11 50.00	36 50.00
Home Economics	5 6.94 13.89 50.00	31 43.06 86.11 50.00	36 50.00
Totals	10 13.89	62 86.11	72 100.00

Figure 2. T-Test of Independent Means: Relationship of Spouse's Employment to Personal Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Mother's Occupation to Physical Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between mother's occupation and physical self for the two groups of women graduate students in higher education administration and home economics (Figure 3). The women in both groups who had working mothers, as opposed to mothers at home, scored higher on perception of physical self ($t = -2.949$; 70 df; $p = < 0.004$).

Relationship of Number of Younger Sisters to Moral-Ethical Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between the

variables of the number of younger sisters and moral-ethical self for the two groups of women graduate students in higher education administration and home economics (Figure 4). Those women who had no younger sisters scored higher on moral-ethical self than did those women who had younger sisters ($t = 2.128$; 50.5 df; $p = 0.032$).

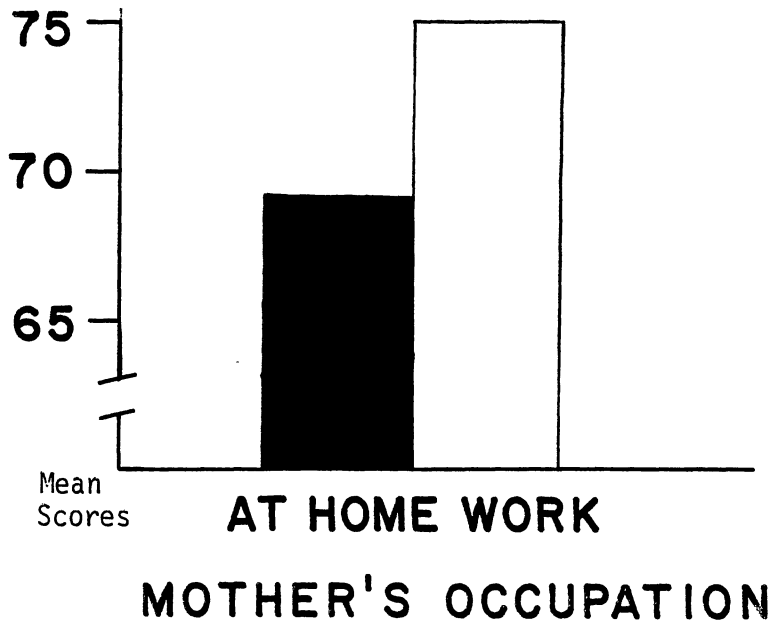


Figure 3. T-Test of Independent Means: Relationship of Mother's Occupation to Physical Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Number of Older Brothers to Moral-Ethical Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between the

variables of the number of older brothers and moral-ethical self (Figure 5). Those women who had older brothers had a higher perception of their moral-ethical self than did those women who had no older brothers. Those women with older brothers scored higher on this personality component than did women who did not have older brothers ($t = -2.703$; 70 df; $p = <0.009$).

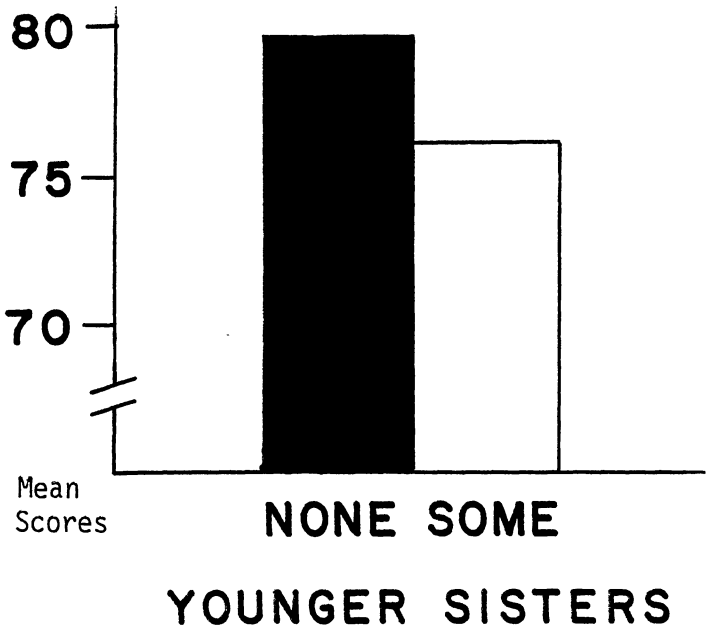


Figure 4. T-Test of Independent Means: Relationship of Number of Younger Sisters to Moral-Ethical Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Figure 5. T-Test of Independent Means: Relationship of Number of Older Brothers to Moral-Ethical Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Demographic Characteristics and Their Relationship to Personality: Significant Analyses of Variance

Relationship of Occupation to Personal Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between occupation and personal self (Figure 6). Those women who were in business had higher scores on personal self than did those women who were in occupations of homemaker, teacher, or other. Those individuals who were teachers had the next highest scores on personal self. This was followed by women who reported homemaking as an occupation, and lastly by "other" ($F = 4.22$; 3 df; $p = <0.009$). A post hoc

Scheffe test conducted indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between those women who were in business occupations and those women who were homemakers, relative to personal self.

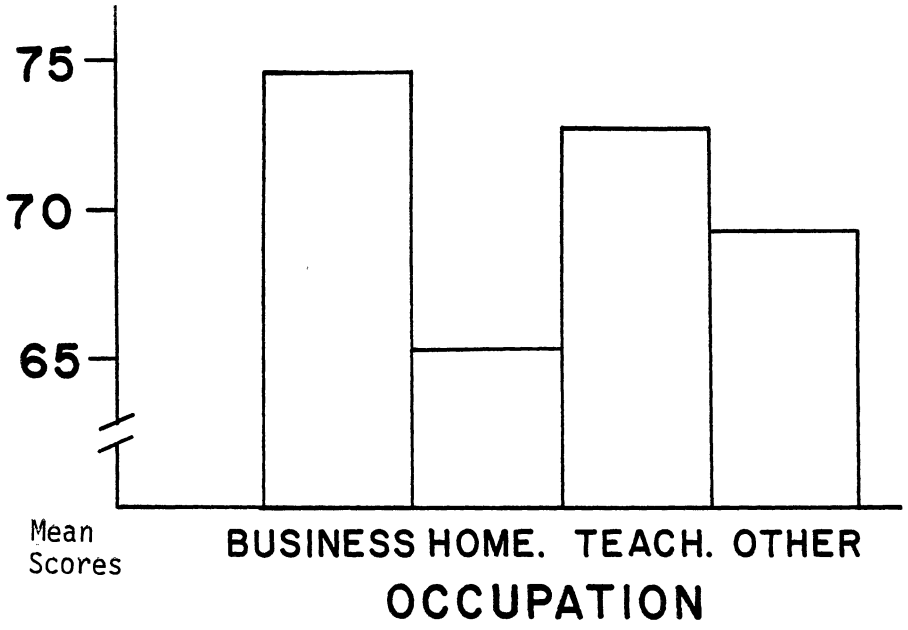


Figure 6. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Occupation to Personal Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Occupation to Family Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between occupation and family self (Figure 7). Those women in business and "other" had identical high scores relative to their perceptions of family self. Those who were teachers scored next highest on their perceptions of family self, followed lastly by homemakers (F = 2.75;

3 df; p = <0.049). A post hoc Scheffe test failed to substantiate a statistically significant difference between women in business, teachers, homemakers, or other occupations, relative to family self.

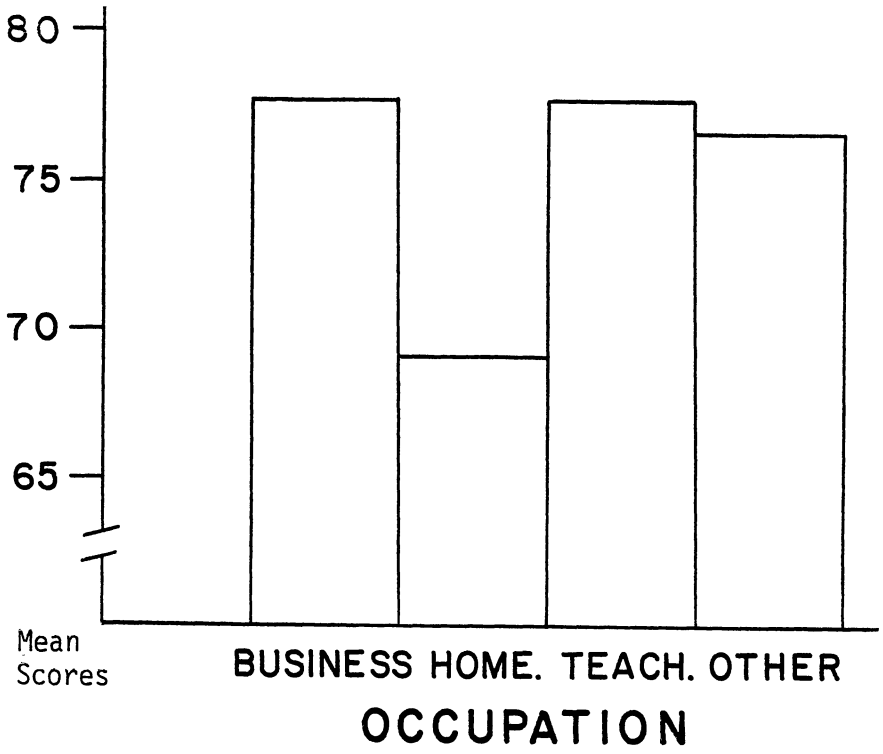


Figure 7. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Occupation to Family Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Mother's Education to Physical Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between mother's education and physical self (Figure 8). Women whose mothers

did not complete high school scored higher on their perceptions of physical self than did those women whose mothers had more education. The second highest scores on personal self were made by women whose mothers received college degrees. Finally, those women whose mothers completed high school scored lowest on this personality component ($F = 3.30$; 2 df; $p = <0.043$). A post hoc Scheffe test failed to verify that there was a statistically significant difference between any of the three categories of mother's education with regard to physical self.

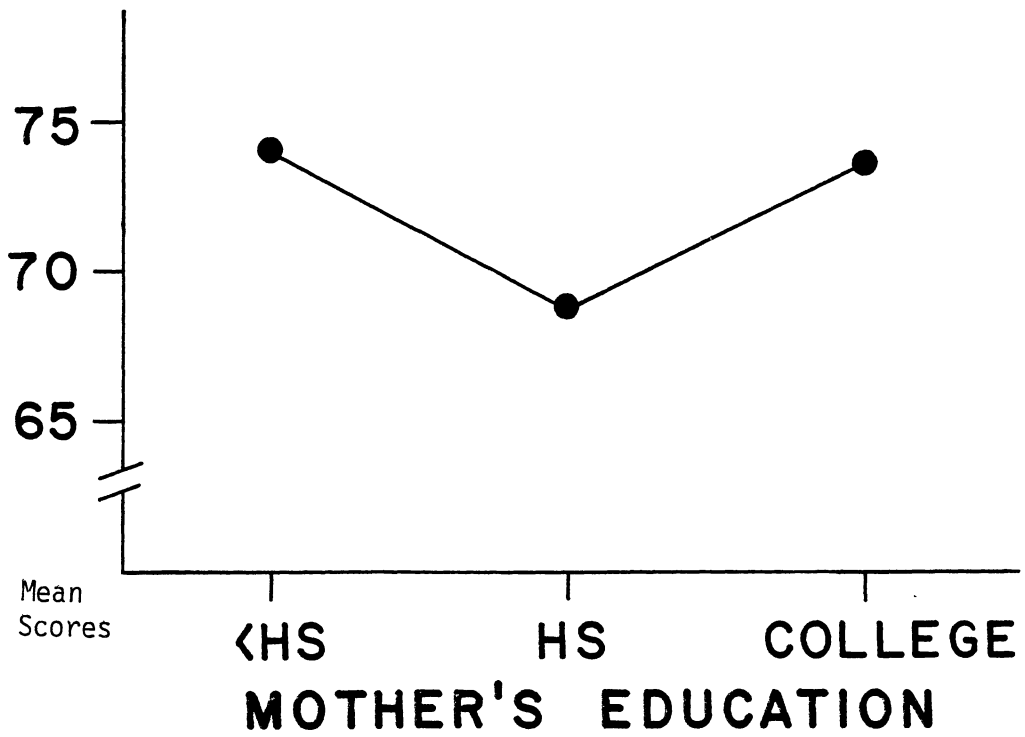


Figure 8. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Mother's Education to Physical Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Education to Moral-Ethical Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between mother's education and moral-ethical self (Figure 9). Women whose mothers did not complete high school had higher scores on their perceptions of moral-ethical self than did those women who had mothers with more education. Those women who had mothers receiving college degrees scored second highest on perceptions of moral-ethical self. Lowest in scoring were women whose mothers had completed high school ($F = 3.94$; 2 df; $p = <0.024$). A post hoc Scheffe test substantiated that there was a statistically significant difference between those women whose mothers did not complete high school and those women whose mothers did complete high school.

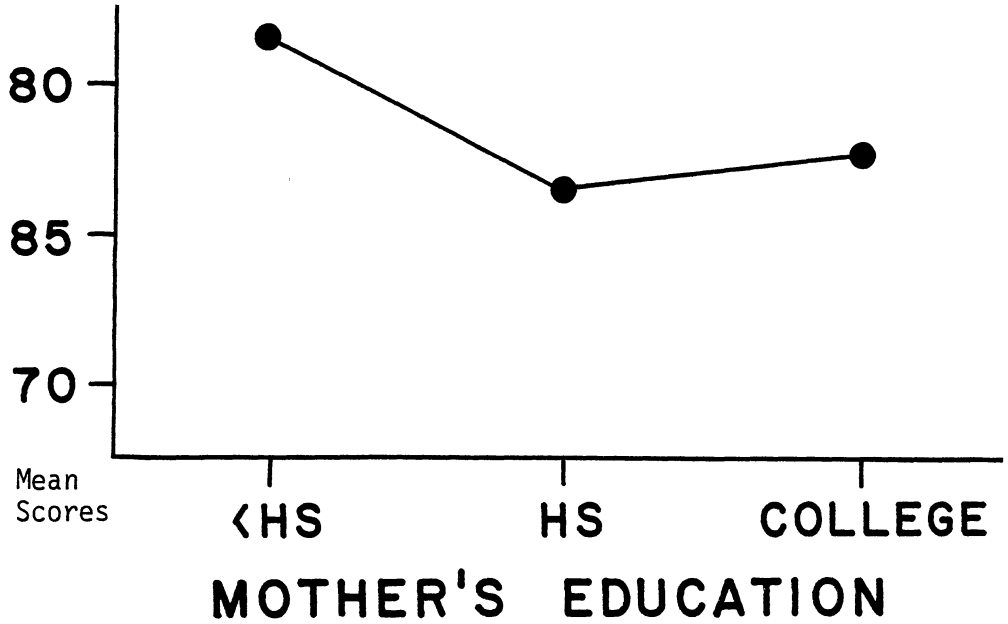


Figure 9. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Mother's Education to Moral-Ethical Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Mother's Education to Personal Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between mother's education and personal self (Figure 10). Those women whose mothers did not finish high school had the highest scores on personal self. Women whose mothers had received college degrees scored second highest on their perceptions of personal self, followed lastly by women who had mothers with high school degrees ($F = 5.79$; df 2; $p = <0.005$). A post hoc Scheffe test proved a statistically significant difference between those women whose mothers did not complete high school and those women whose mothers completed high school, with regard to personal self.

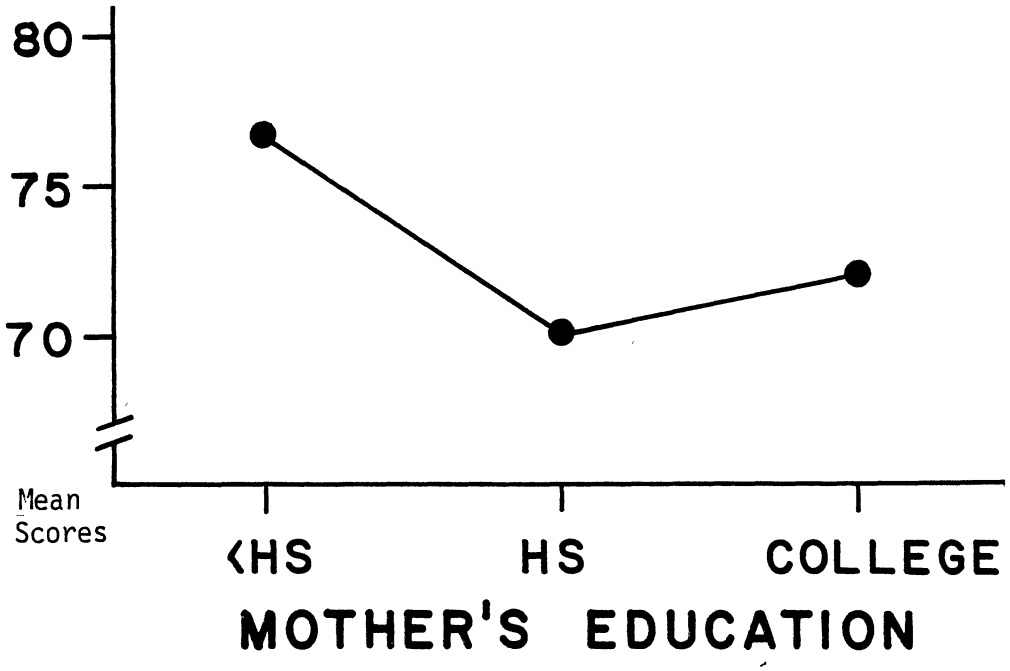


Figure 10. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Mother's Education to Personal Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Mother's Education to Family Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between mother's education and family self (Figure 11). Women whose mothers obtained a high school degree had lower family self scores than did women whose mothers had not completed high school or had received college degrees. Those women scoring highest on family self scores were those women whose mothers did not finish high school ($F = 3.36$; 2 df; $p = 0.041$). A post hoc Scheffe test confirmed that a statistically significant difference existed between women whose mothers did not finish high school and those whose mothers did complete the twelfth grade, relative to family self.

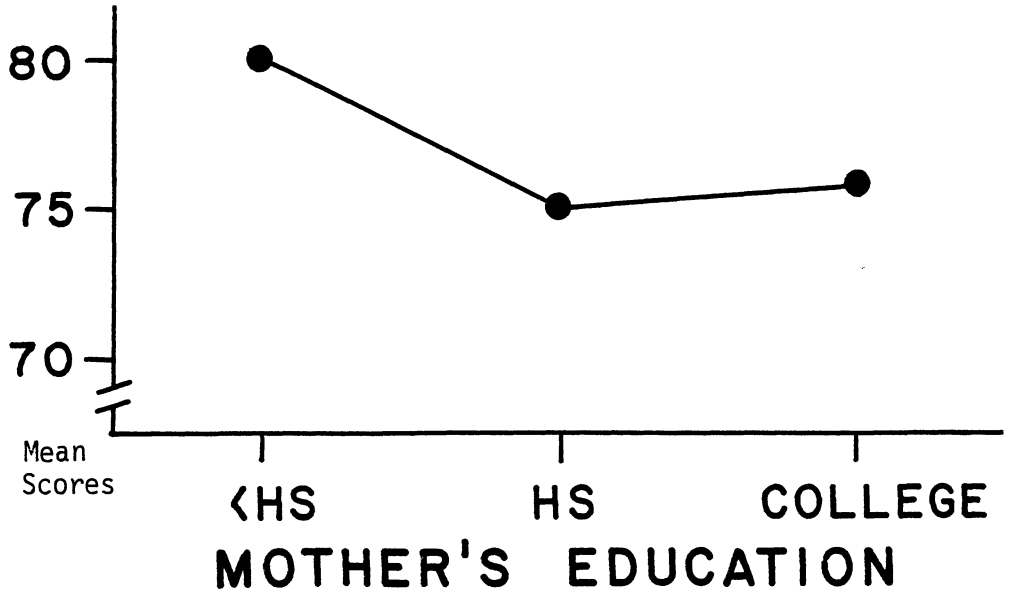


Figure 11. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Mother's Education to Family Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Mother's Education to Social Self

There was a statistically significant relationship between mother's education and social self (Figure 12). Those women whose mothers received high school degrees scored lowest on social self. Those scoring highest on social self were women whose mothers did not complete high school ($F = 5.63$; 2 df; $p = 0.006$). A post hoc Scheffe test found there was a statistically significant difference was present between women whose mothers did not finish high school and those whose mothers had completed high school, relative to social self.

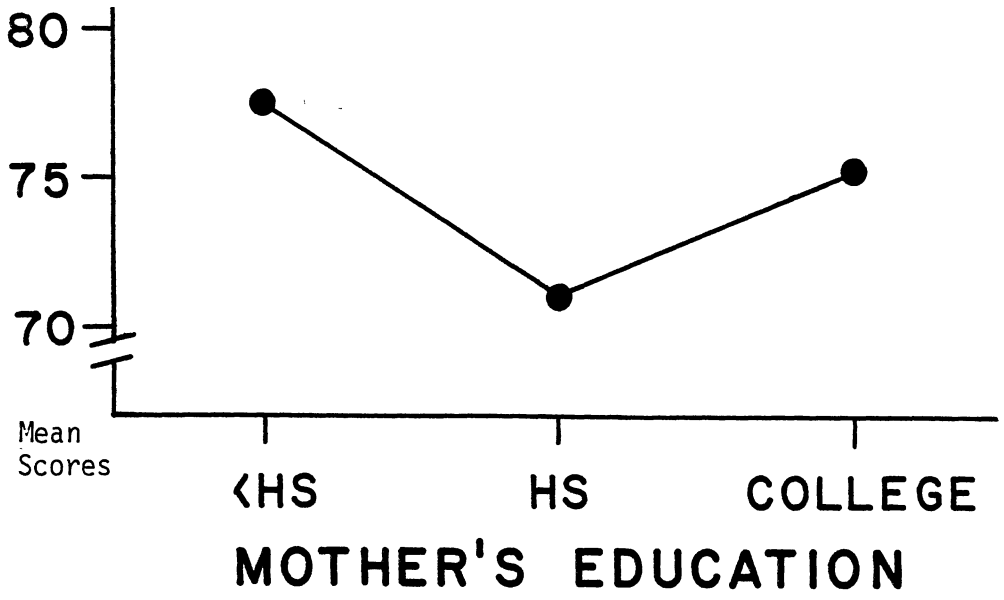


Figure 12. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Mother's Education to Social Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Mother's Education to Identity

There was a statistically significant relationship between mother's education and identity. Women whose mothers did not finish high school scored highest on identity (Figure 13). Those who scored lowest on identity were women who had mothers who had completed high school ($F = 4.54$; 2 df; $p = < 0.014$). A post hoc Scheffe test provided evidence that there was a statistically significant difference between those women whose mothers did not finish high school and those women whose mothers had completed high school, relative to identity.

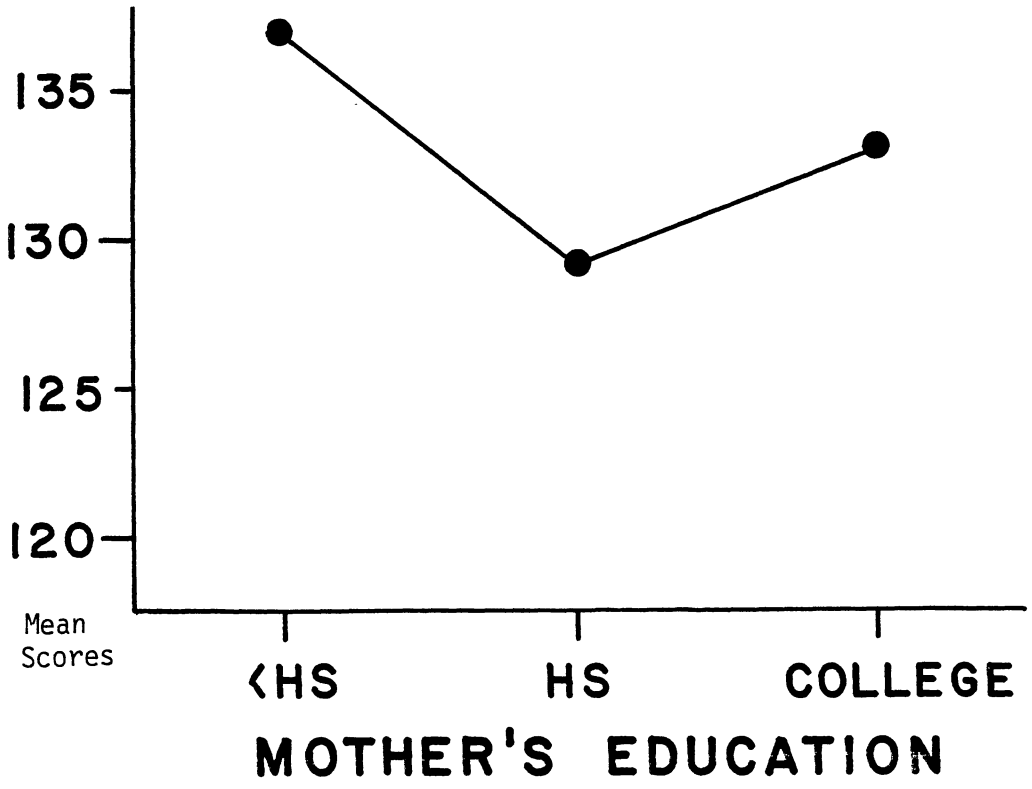


Figure 13. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Mother's Education to Identity Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Mother's Education to Self-Satisfaction

There was a statistically significant relationship between mother's education and self-satisfaction (Figure 14). Women who scored lowest on self-satisfaction were those individuals whose mothers did complete high school. Comparatively, those mothers who did not finish high school were those whose daughters scored highest on self-satisfaction. Women scoring in the middle on this variable were those whose mothers received college degrees ($F = 4.54$; 2 df; $p = <0.014$). A post hoc Scheffe test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between those students whose mothers did not finish high school and those whose mothers completed high school, relative to self-satisfaction.

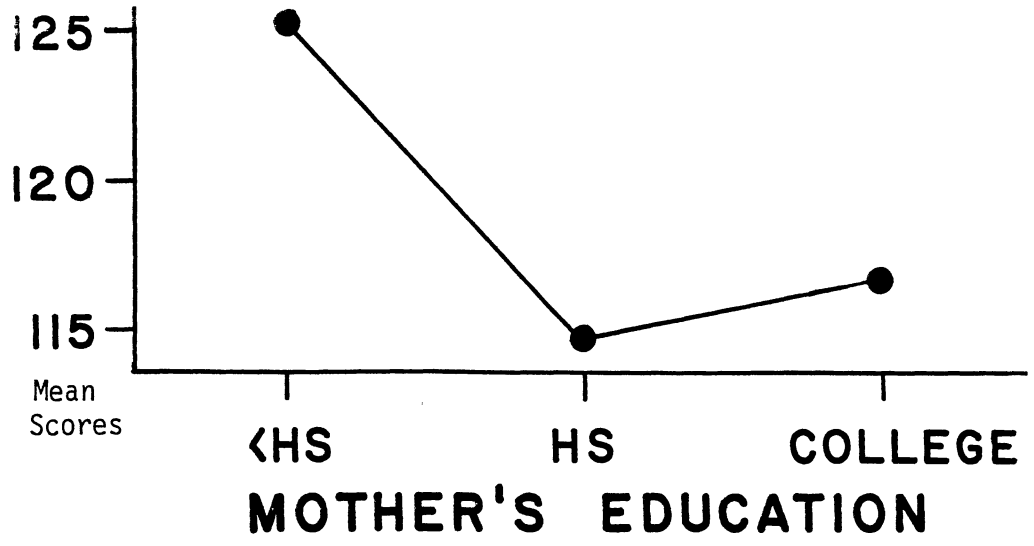


Figure 14. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Mother's Education to Self Satisfaction Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Mother's Education to Behavior

There was a statistically significant relationship between mother's education and behavior (Figure 15). Scoring highest on behavior were those women whose mothers did not finish high school. The lowest scores on behavior were women whose mothers had completed high school. Women who scored in the middle range were those individuals whose mothers had received college degrees ($F = 5.80$; 2 df; $p = <0.005$). A post hoc Scheffe test substantiated a significant difference between those students whose mothers did not complete college and those students whose mothers finished high school, relative to behavior.

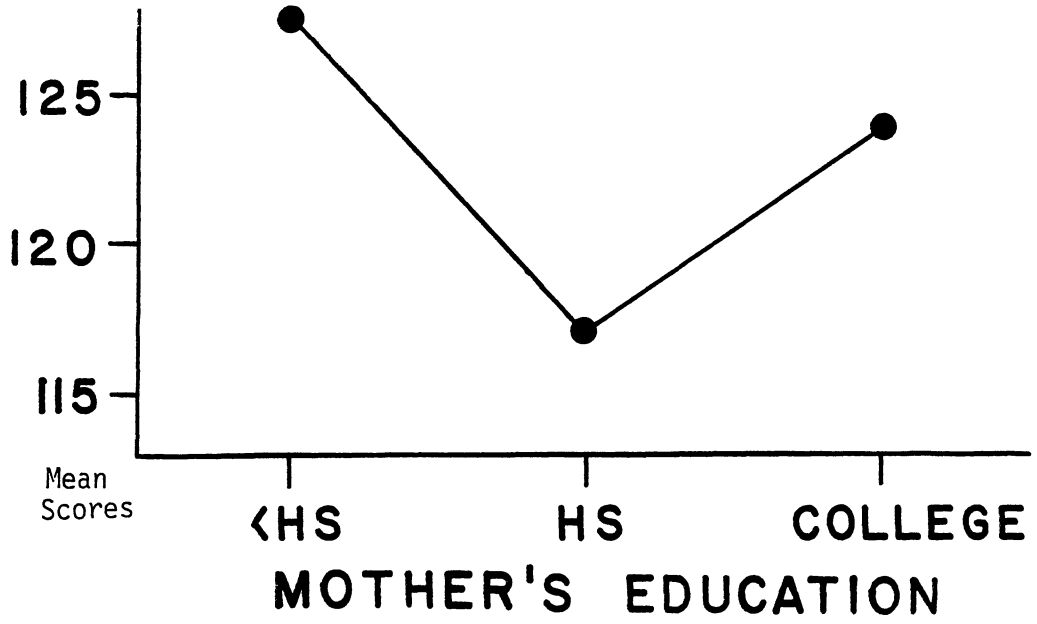


Figure 15. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Mother's Education to Behavior Mean Scores of Both Groups

Relationship of Mother's Education to Overall Self-Esteem

There was a significant relationship between mother's education and overall self-esteem (Figure 16). Those women whose mothers did not finish high school scored highest on overall self-esteem Scoring lowest on overall self-esteem were women whose mothers did complete high school. Scoring between the high and low scores were those women whose mothers had received college degrees ($F = 6.32$; 2 df; $p = 0.003$). A post hoc Scheffe test indicated that there was a statistically significant difference between those women whose mothers did not complete high school and those women whose mothers finished high school with regard to overall self-esteem.

Major Influence in Life on Personal Self

A statistically significant relationship existed between major influence in life and personal self (Figure 17). Women whose major influence in life had been a male family member scored highest on personal self. The second highest scores were from women who reported "other" as the major influence in their life. Lastly, those women who responded as having been influenced by a female family member scored lowest on personal self ($F = 3.85$; 2 df; $p = <0.026$). A post hoc Scheffe test failed to provide evidence of any significant relationship between variables.

Significant Chi-Square

This section presents a brief discussion of each of the demographic characteristics and their relationships to career choices

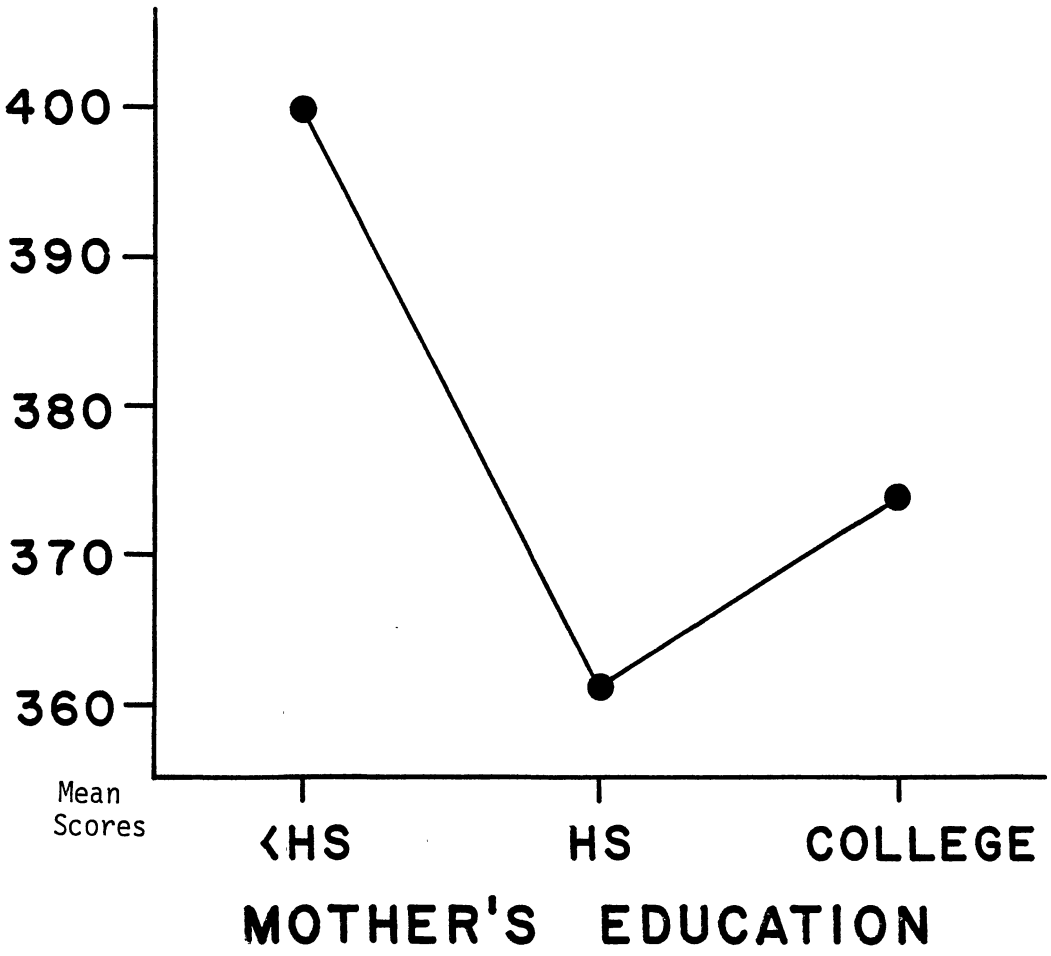


Figure 16. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Mother's Education to Overall Self-Esteem Mean Scores of Both Groups

which are statistically significant at or below the 0.05 level. Table XXX contains information regarding the demographics of women students who aspired to nontraditional careers in higher education administration and traditional careers in home economics. Ten items generated a significant chi-square.

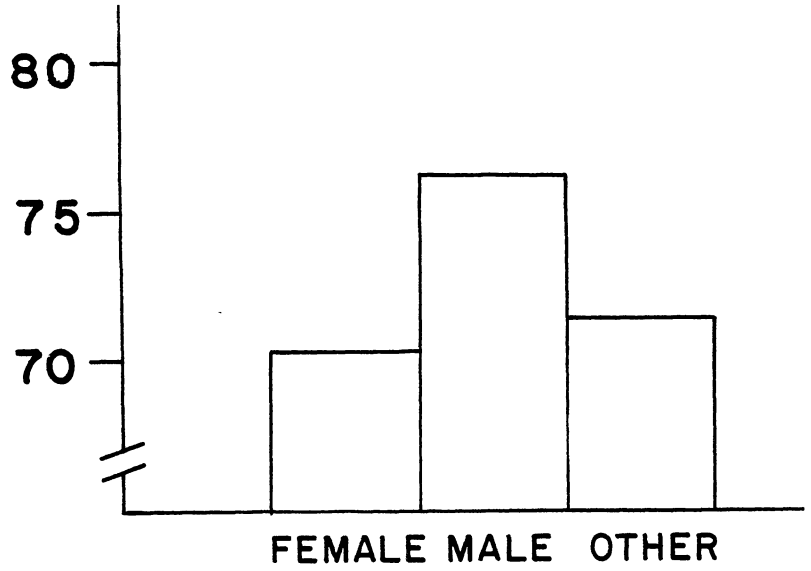


Figure 17. Analysis of Variance: Relationship of Major Influence in Life to Personal Self Mean Scores of Both Groups

Higher education administration students were significantly older than home economics students (Figure 18). Nearly 31% of the higher education administration students were grouped in the age category of 36 to 40 years of age. Approximately 17% of the higher education administration group fell into the 41 to 46 years of age category. Twenty-two

TABLE XXX

CHI-SQUARE RELATED TO DEMOGRAPHIC VARIABLES AND CAREER CHOICE

Item	Higher Education Administration (N=36)[a] f[b]	%	Home Economics (N=36) f	%	df	Chi-Square Probability
Age						
25 or less	0	0	11	30.6	6	$X^2 = 23.805$
25-30	2	5.5	9	25.0		$p = 0.006$
31-35	4	11.1	4	11.0		
36-40	11	30.6	5	13.9		
41-45	6	16.7	2	5.6		
46-50	8	22.2	2	5.6		
51-55	5	13.9	3	8.3		
Marital Status						
Single	9	25.0	14	38.9	1	$X^2 = 1.597$
Married	27	75.0	22	61.1		$p = 0.2063$
Spouse's Employment						
Single (N/A)[b]	(8)	--	(15)	--	1	$X^2 = 0.258$
Nonprofessional	18	64.3	12	57.1		$p = 0.6116$
Professional	10	35.7	9	42.9		
Present or Previous Occupation						
Homemaker	1	2.8	5	14.3	3	$X^2 = 22.692$
Teacher	15	41.7	14	40.0		$p = 0.001$
Business	20	55.5	5	14.3		
Other	0	0	11	31.4		
Number of Professional Positions Held						
One	3	8.3	14	41.2	3	$X^2 = 15.246$
Two	7	19.5	8	23.5		$p = 0.002$
Three	17	47.2	4	11.8		
Four	9	25.0	8	23.5		
Number of Children						
None	9	25.0	17	48.6	3	$X^2 = 9.909$
One	7	19.5	9	25.7		$p = 0.019$
Two	12	33.3	2	5.7		
Three (or more)	8	22.2	7	20.0		

TABLE XXX (Continued)

Item	Higher Education Administration (N=36)[a] f[b]	%	Home Economics (N=36) f	%	df	Chi-Square Probability
Major Field of Last Degree						
Education	25	71.4	6	17.1	2	X^2 = 24.287
Home Economics	2	5.7	17	48.6		p = 0.001
Other	8	22.9	12	34.3		
Age at Last Degree						
25 or less	5	13.9	24	66.7	4	X^2 = 23.048
26-30	7	19.4	4	11.1		p = 0.001
31-35	7	19.4	3	8.3		
36-40	7	19.5	4	11.1		
41-50	10	27.8	1	2.8		
Religious Background						
Protestant	35	97.2	20	55.6	1	X^2 = 17.326
Other	1	2.8	16	44.4		p = 0.001
Father's Educational Background						
Did not finish high school	16	44.4	6	16.7	2	X^2 = 7.589
High school	11	30.6	12	33.3		p = 0.023
College degree	9	25.0	18	50.0		
Mother's Educational Background						
Did not finish high school	14	38.9	5	14.3	2	X^2 = 6.758
High school	12	33.3	21	60.0		p = 0.034
College degree	10	27.8	9	25.7		
Mother's Occupation When 13						
At home	22	61.1	22	66.1	1	X^2 = .000
Working	14	38.9	14	38.9		p = 1.000
Father's Occupation When 13						
Worker	15	44.1	6	17.1	3	X^2 = 7.307
Nonprofessional	8	23.5	13	37.2		p = 0.063
Self-employed	8	23.6	8	22.9		
Professional	3	8.8	8	22.8		

TABLE XXX (Continued)

Item	Higher Education Administration (N=36)[a] f[b]	%	Home Economics (N=36) f	%	df	Chi-Square Probability
Socioeconomic Range During Childhood						
Lower	6	17.7	3	8.6	2	$X^2 = 3.550$
Lower middle	21	61.7	18	51.4		$p = 0.170$
Upper middle	7	20.6	14	40.0		
Number of Older Sisters						
None	26	72.2	24	66.7	1	$X^2 = 0.262$
Some	10	27.8	12	33.3		$p = 0.609$
Number of Younger Sisters						
None	27	75.0	18	50.0	1	$X^2 = 4.800$
Some	9	25.0	18	50.0		$p = 0.029$
Number of Older Brothers						
None	22	61.1	21	58.3	1	$X^2 = 0.058$
Some	14	38.9	15	41.7		$p = 0.810$
Number of Younger Brothers						
None	18	50.0	22	61.1	1	$X^2 = 0.900$
Some	18	50.0	14	38.9		$p = 0.343$
Major Influence on Life						
Female family member	18	50.0	22	30.6	2	$X^2 = 1.266$
Male family member	7	19.4	4	5.5		$p = 0.531$
Other	11	30.6	10	13.9		
Racial/Ethnic Background						
Caucasian	31	86.11	31	86.11	1	$X^2 = 0.000$
Other	5	13.89	5	13.89		$p = 1.400$

[a]N may not equal reported cases in all columns due to missing values.

[b]f = frequency counts, % = percentages, X^2= chi-squares, p = probability score, N/A = not applicable.

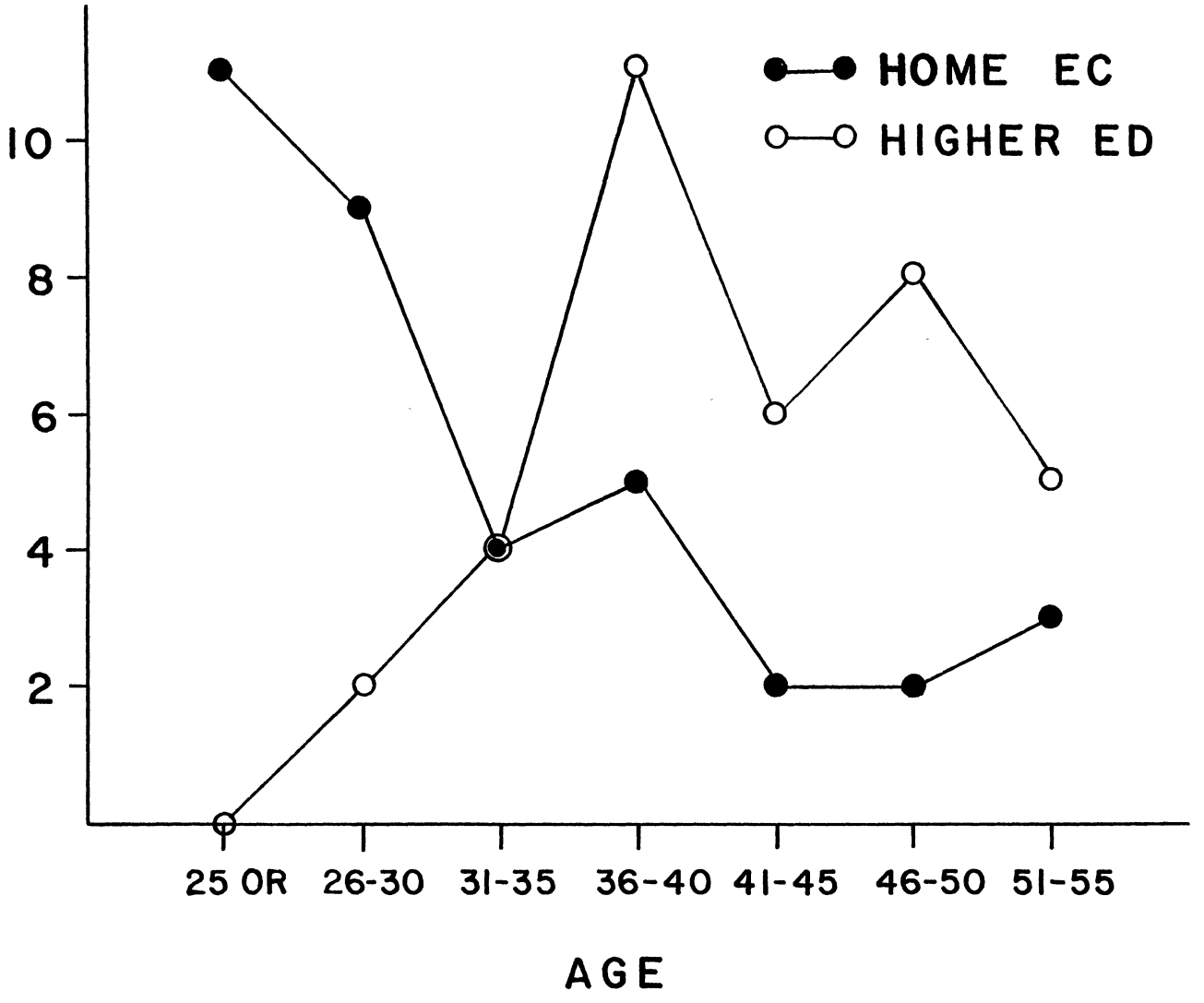


Figure 18. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Age of Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents Relative to Numbers of Respondents

percent of this group were 46 to 50 years of age. On the other hand, nearly 67% of the home economics students ranged from 25 or less to 35 years of age.

There was a significantly greater number of higher education administration students who had been or were in business occupations (56%) (Figure 19). There were approximately 31% of the home economics students who listed "other" as their past or present occupation, whereas none of the students in higher education administration responded to this category.

Eight percent of the higher education administration students and 41% of the home economics students responded that they had held one professional position (Figure 20). More than 47% of the higher education administration students claimed to have held three or more professional positions, as contrasted with 12% of the home economics students.

A significantly greater percentage of higher education administration students, as compared to home economics students, reported that they had two or more children (Figure 21). Approximately 25% of the higher education administration students reported having no children, in contrast to 49% of the home economics students.

More than 71% of the higher education administration students had received their last degrees in education, but only 6% had obtained this last degree in the field of home economics (Figure 22). Conversely, 17% of the home economics students had earned their last degrees in education, whereas more than 48% of them had received this last degree in home economics.

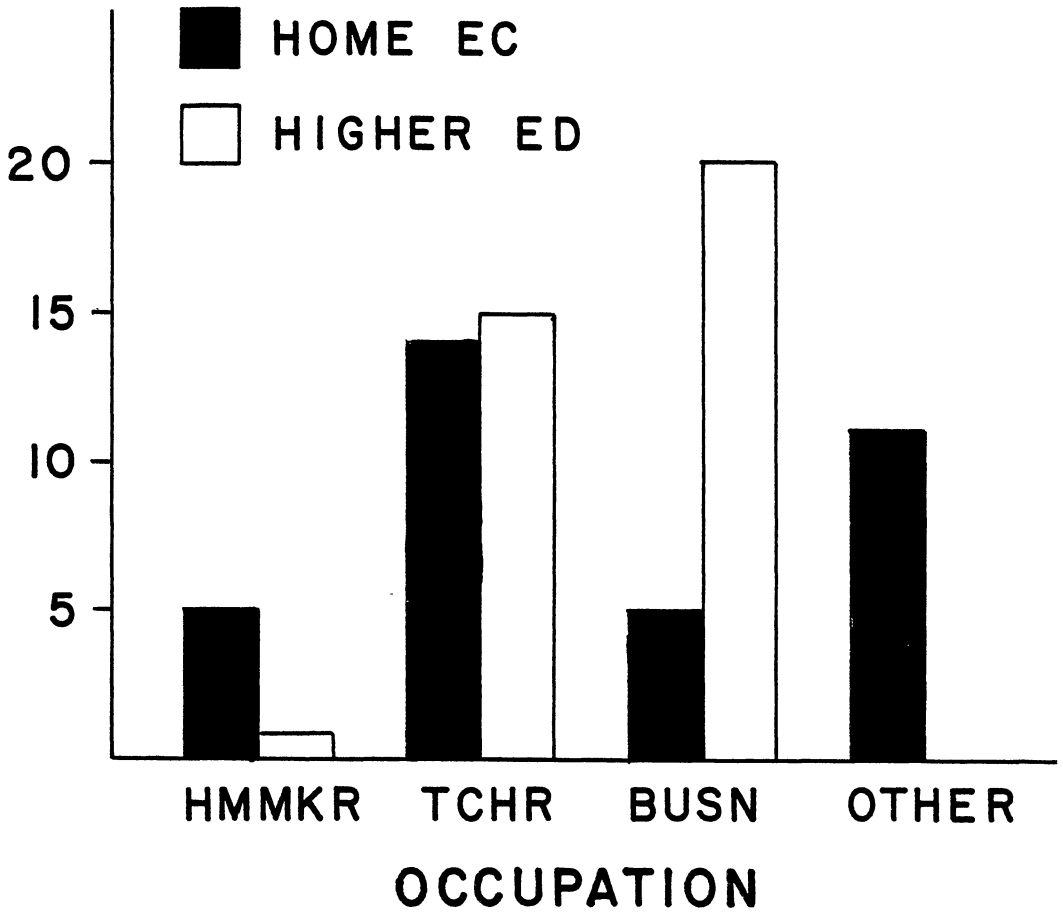


Figure 19. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Previous or Present Occupation of Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents and Frequency of Occurrence

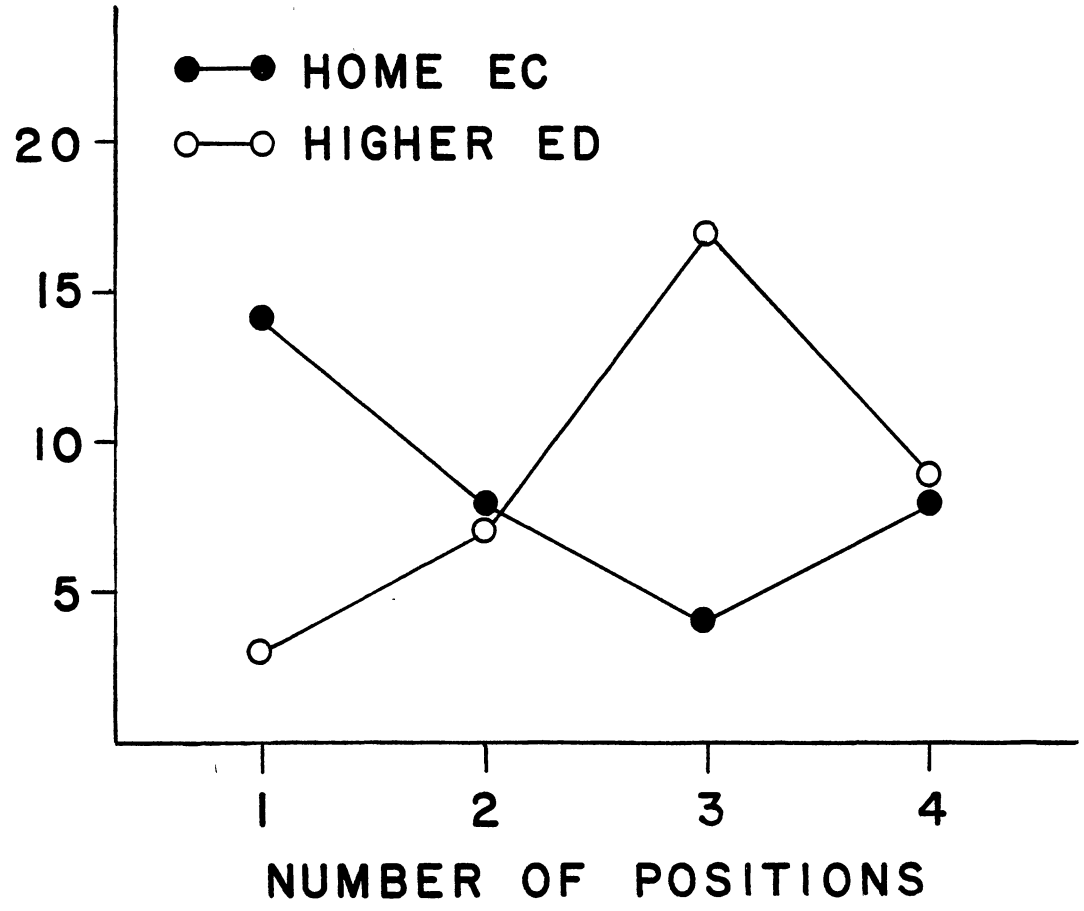


Figure 20. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Number of Professional Positions Held by Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents and Frequency of Occurrence

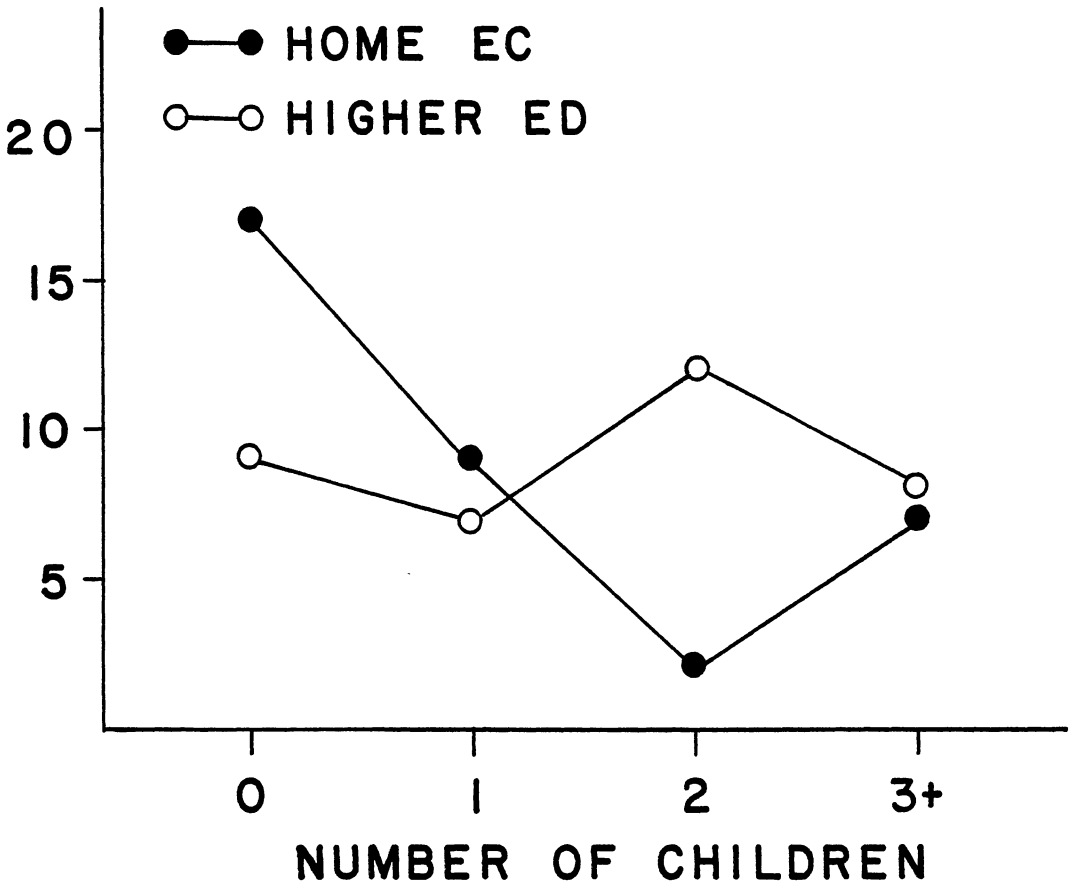


Figure 21. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Number of Children of Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents and Frequency of Occurrence

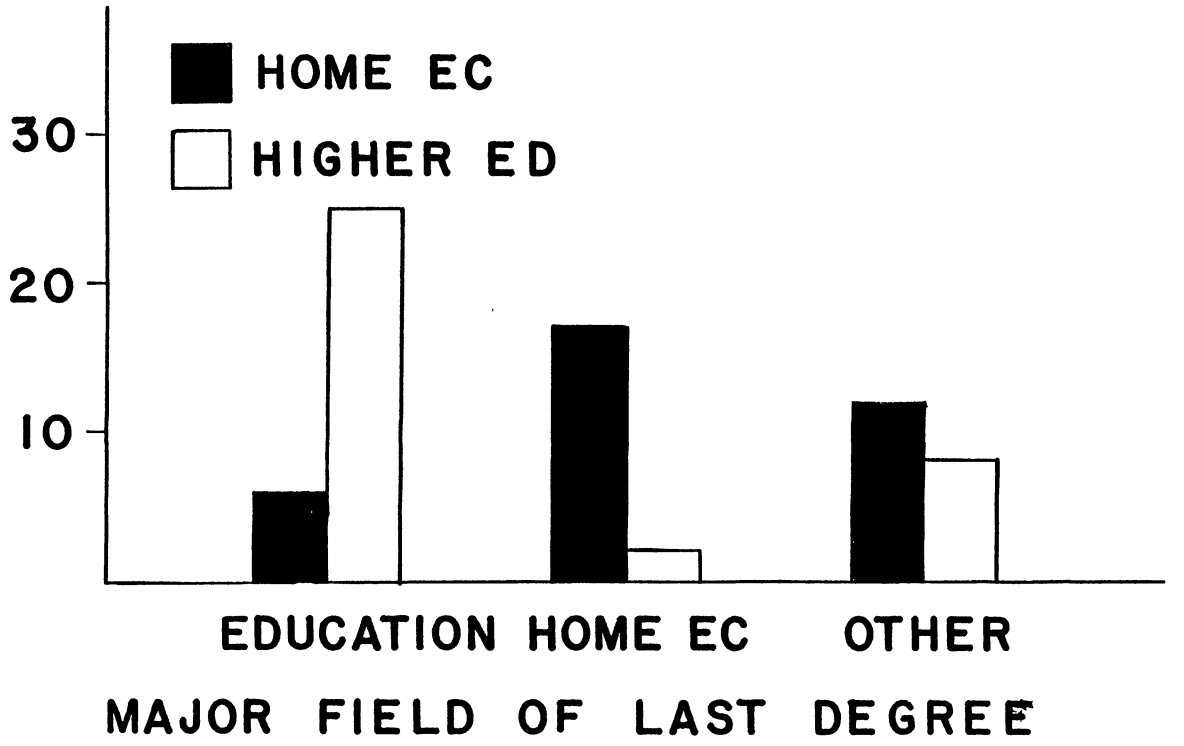


Figure 22. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Major Field of Last Degree of Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents and Frequency of Occurrence

There was a significant pattern for both the higher education administration and home economics students with regard to age at last degree (Figure 23). Fourteen percent of the higher education administration students received their last degrees at 25 years of age or less, and this percentage increased with increased years. By comparison, approximately 67% of the home economics students earned their last degrees before or at the age of 25 and then started decreasing with increased years.

Regarding religious background, there was a significantly greater number of higher education administration students who reported Protestant backgrounds (Figure 24). Only one person in this group (3%) claimed "other" as religious background. Students in home economics, however, were fairly evenly divided between Protestant and "other" religious backgrounds.

More than twice as many higher education administration students than home economics students had fathers who did not complete high school (Figure 25). Comparatively, 25% of the higher education administration students had fathers who were in the professional category, as opposed to 50% of the fathers of those students in home economics.

There was a significantly larger number of mothers of students (39%) in higher education administration who did not finish high school than mothers of students (14%) in home economics (Figure 26). The trend reflected that mothers of the higher education students completed high school at a significantly smaller percentage rate (33%), as compared to mothers of home economics students (60%). This was followed by completion of college by only 28%. Conversely, 60% of

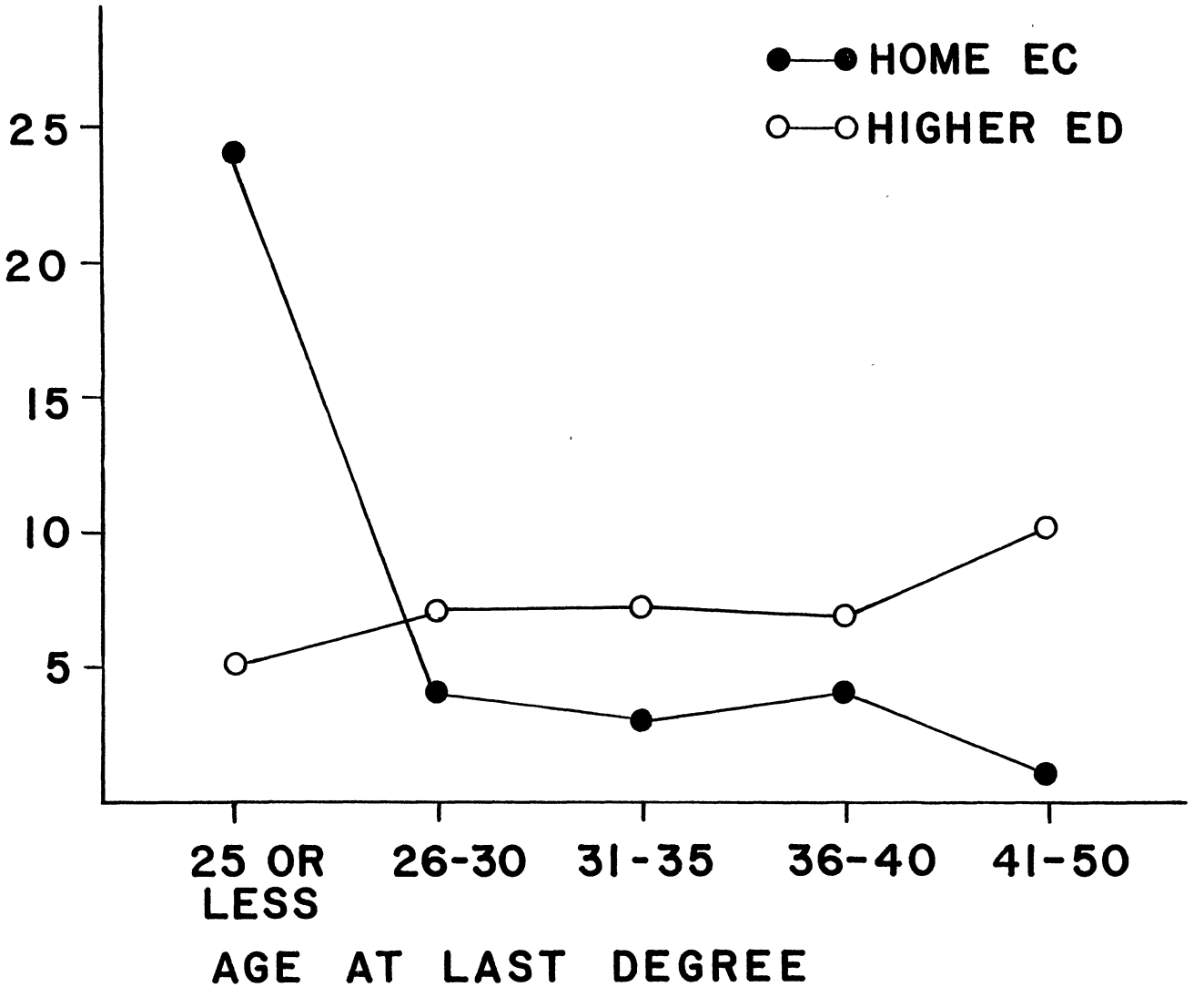


Figure 23. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Age at Last Degree of Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents and Frequency of Occurrence

the mothers of the students in home economics had completed college, and only 14% of this group did not finish high school.

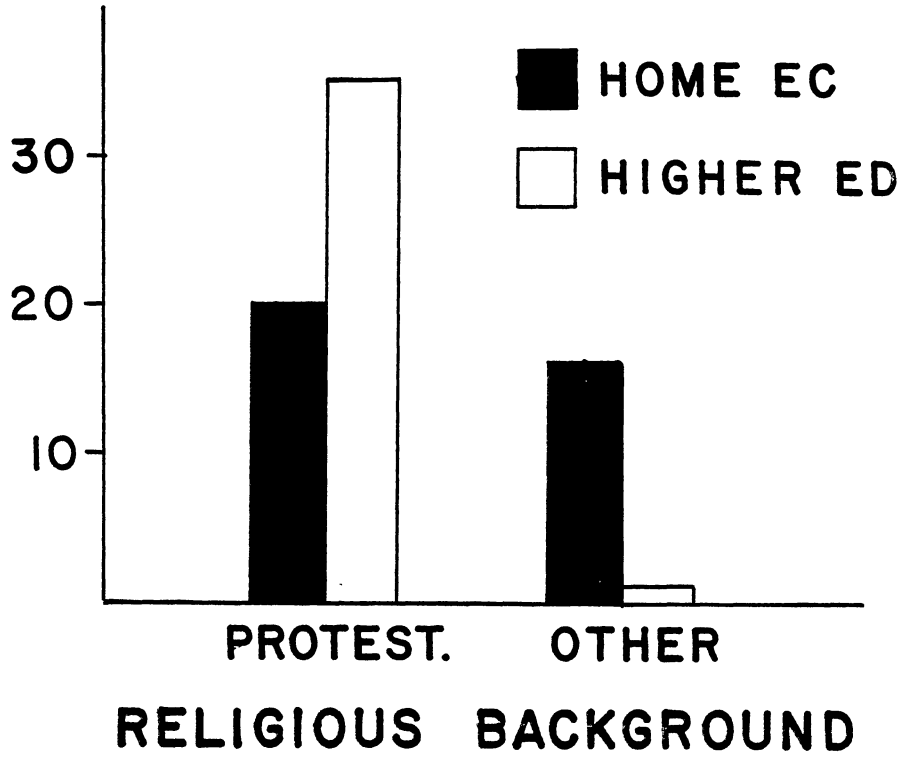


Figure 24. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Religious Background of Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents and Frequency of Occurrence

There was a large number of students in higher education administration who had no younger sisters (Figure 27). Seventy-five percent of this group did not have younger sisters, compared to 25% of the students in home economics. Students in home economics reported that 50% of their group had no younger sisters, and 50% had some younger sisters.

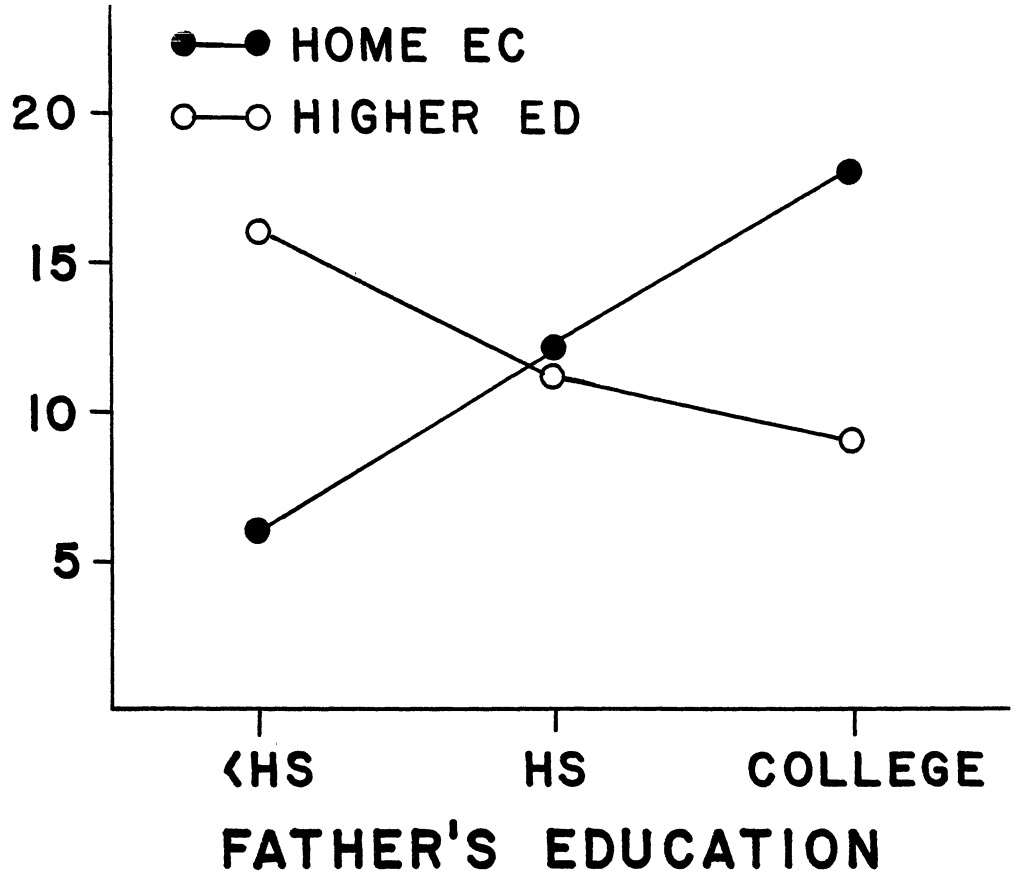


Figure 25. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Father's Educational Background of Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents and Frequency of Occurrence

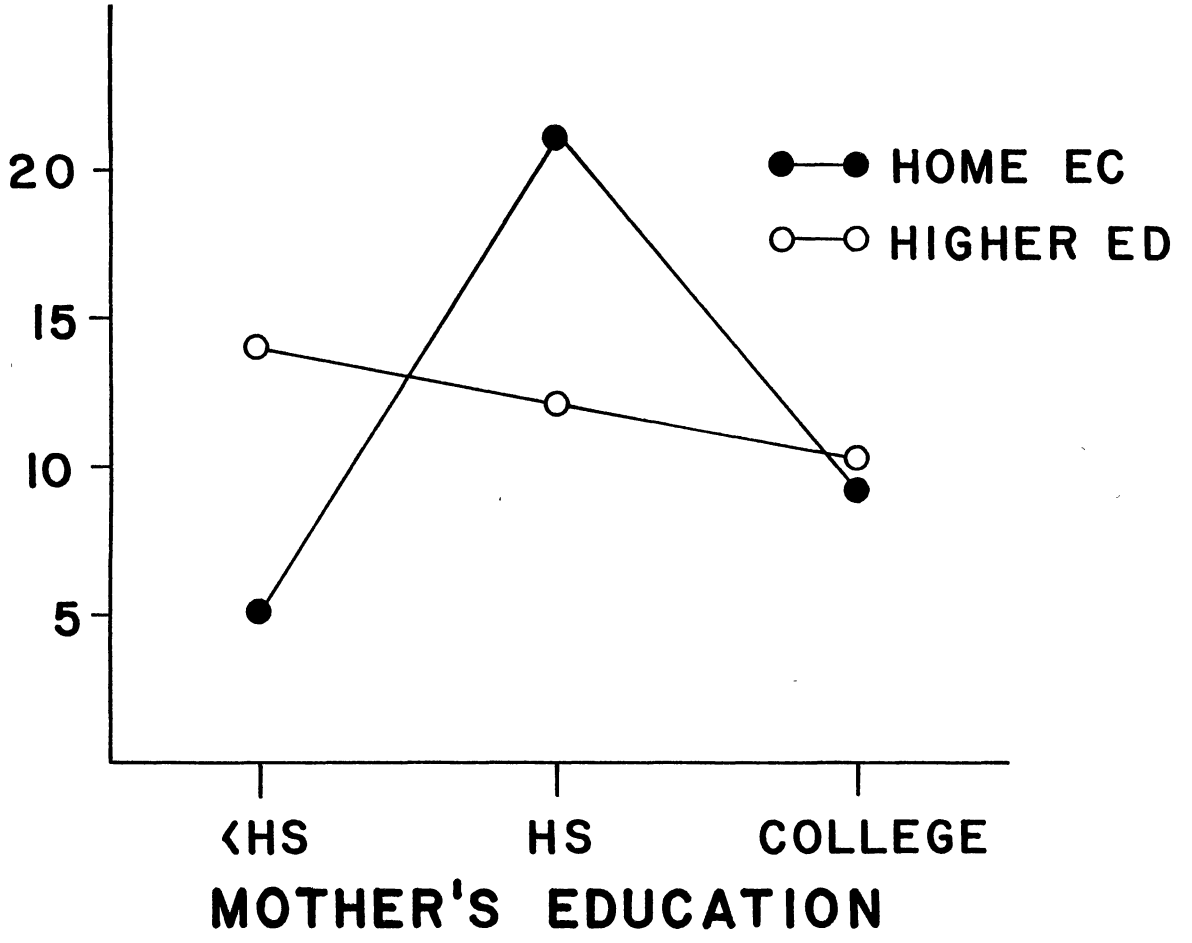


Figure 26. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Mother's Educational Background of Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents and Frequency of Occurrence

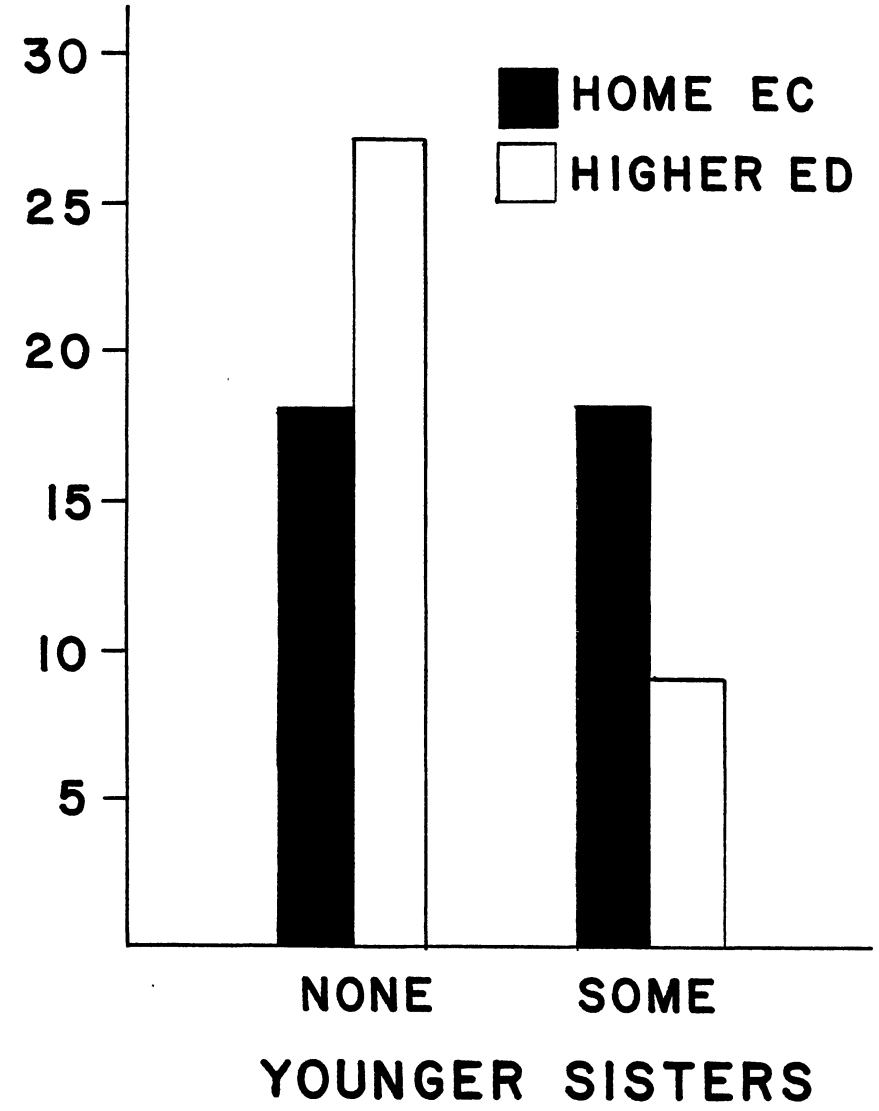


Figure 27. Chi-Square Statistical Test: Number of Younger Sisters of Higher Education Administration and Home Economics Respondents and Frequency of Occurrence

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to present in summary form the background of the present study, to present methods and procedures of the study, to present summary findings of the study, to present conclusions of the study, and to close with recommendations based on the conclusions.

Summary of the Background

The limited participation of women in top-level administrative positions in higher education is still a fact. This is true despite legislation affecting women's equality, increased economic opportunities, and changing individual characteristics. Women's participation in higher education administration is yet a part of a rather gradual, historical trend of women moving into nontraditional fields.

In efforts to explain this low level of participation of women in traditionally male professions, many theories have been developed. However, a search of the literature found no conclusive results associated with studies focusing on self-concept as a variable on the nontraditional career choices of women. In addition, no studies were found which determined exactly what individual characteristics were significant on the part of women in influencing career choices in higher education administration.

The focus of this research was on these areas of personality and personal/family background characteristics of women aspiring to non-traditional occupations in higher education administration.

The present study analyzed the responses of a population of women graduate students enrolled in the Higher Education Administration Program with regard to self-concept or personality. Their responses to personality questions were compared to those responses from women graduate students who were enrolled in the College of Home Economics. Additional research concerns within this study included an investigation of personal and family background characteristics of the women students. The relationships of these demographic variables with both personality and career choices were carefully examined.

Methods and Procedures

The TSCS was selected in this research study for the purpose of testing each individual subject's overall perception of her personality. A questionnaire was also developed to obtain information on selected individual demographic characteristics of women graduate students in both traditional and nontraditional major fields of study. The questionnaire was sent to the respondents at the same time as the TSCS. Self-addressed, stamped envelopes were mailed to 48 higher education administration and 48 home economics women graduate students at Oklahoma State University. These subjects were randomly selected from the existing populations.

Of the 48 higher education administration students surveyed, 36 (75%) responded. Of the 48 home economics students surveyed, 36 (75%)

responded. Several follow-up procedures were used to obtain an adequate number of responses.

Frequency counts, percentages, analyses of variance, post hoc Scheffe, and chi-squares were computed from the various demographic characteristics at the Oklahoma State University computer center. Additional t-tests of independent means were computed from the test scores of the TSCS.

Summary of Findings

As stated in Chapter I, the purpose of this study was to ascertain the differences in personality, as well as selected individual characteristics, of the two groups of women graduate students who aspired to nontraditional careers in higher education administration or to traditional careers in home economics.

Pursuant to the purpose in the study, nine null hypotheses were tested for significant statistical differences at or below the 0.05 level of confidence. Of those items tested, four were found to be statistically significant, and five were found to be statistically insignificant.

The null hypothesis one of no statistically significant difference between higher education administration and home economics students on perceptions of overall self esteem was not accepted. There was a significant difference between the two groups of women students with regard to overall self-esteem.

The null hypothesis two of no statistically significant difference between perceptions in identity was not rejected. There was no

difference between the two groups of higher education administration and home economics students with regard to this personality component.

The null hypothesis three of no statistically significant difference in self-satisfaction, as perceived by the two sample groups of students, was not accepted.

The null hypothesis four dealing with no statistically significant difference in perceptions of behavior on the part of the higher education administration and home economics students was not accepted.

Regarding the null hypothesis five of no statistically significant difference between the two groups of traditional and nontraditional women graduate students on perceptions of physical state of health, this item was not rejected.

Regarding the null hypothesis six, which dealt with no statistically significant difference in perceptions of moral-ethical self on the part of the two population groups, this item was not rejected.

The null hypothesis seven regarding no statistically significant difference in perceptions of personal self was not accepted. There was a statistically significant difference in perceptions of this personality component between the students in higher education administration and home economics.

The null hypothesis eight of no statistically significant difference in Family Self, as perceived by the two groups of traditional and nontraditional women graduate students, was not rejected.

Regarding the null hypothesis nine, which dealt with no statistically significant difference in perceptions of social self, this item was not rejected.

Additional research on the impact of personal and family background characteristics on personality resulted in 16 significant findings at or below the 0.05 level of confidence. These significant relationships were the following: (1) spouse's employment and personal self, (2) mother's occupation and physical self, (3) number of younger sisters and moral-ethical self, (4) number of older brothers and moral-ethical self, (5) previous or present occupation and personal self, (6) previous or present occupation and family self, (7) mother's education and physical self, (8) mother's education and moral-ethical self, (9) mother's education and personal self, (10) mother's education and family self, (11) mother's education and social self, (12) mother's education and identity, (13) mother's education and self-satisfaction, (14) mother's education and behavior, (15) mother's education and overall self-esteem, and (16) major influence in life and personal self.

There were 87 insignificant personal and background factors related to personality, including: age and each of the nine personality components, previous or present occupation and seven of the nine personality components (excluding personal self and family self), number of children and each of the nine personality components, major field of last degree and each of the nine personality components, age at last degree and each of the nine personality components, father's occupation and each of the nine personality components, father's education and each of the nine personality components, socioeconomic range of family and each of the nine personality components, and major influence in life and eight of the nine personality components (excluding personal self).

Research findings pertaining to the impact of personal and family background characteristics on traditional and nontraditional career choices resulted in 10 significant relationships at or below the 0.05 level of confidence. These significant demographic factors were: (1) age (although this result was questionable, as discussed in Chapter IV), (2) present or previous occupation, (3) number of professional positions held, (4) number of children, (5) major field of last degree, (6) age at last degree, (7) father's educational background, (8) religious background, (9) mother's educational background, and (10) number of younger sisters.

Insignificant relationships concerning the impact of personal and family background factors on career choices totaled nine. These insignificant demographic variables were: (1) marital status, (2) spouse's employment, (3) father's occupation when 13, (4) socioeconomic range of family during childhood, (5) number of older sisters, (6) number of older brothers, (7) number of younger brothers, (8) major influence in life, and (9) racial or ethnic background.

Discussion

Studies by Lever (1976) suggested that, when confronted with the realities of adult life, if a girl does not desire to be left dependent on men, she must learn to play like a boy. Both symbolically and literally, the results of this study have demonstrated that Lever's intimation may have some validity in terms of learning attributes and values for nontraditonal careers.

Symbolically speaking, "playing like a boy" was interpreted by this researcher to mean holding power, being in decision-making

positions, delegating responsibilities, and learning well the organizational "rules of the game," which have historically been male-oriented. Women in nontraditional career fields have greater opportunities to achieve this professional independence and autonomy than do women in traditional roles or career fields wherein responsibilities are more structured and rigid.

In a more literal sense, "playing like a boy" simply meant learning to play boys' games as boys play them, as well as learning to play their own girls' games, during middle childhood years when social development is so intensely tied to peer group interaction. Lever (1976) discovered there were sex differences in the games children play; that is, boys play competitive games more often than girls. Kohlberg (1969) pointed out that traditional girls' games (like jump rope and hopscotch) were games where competition is indirect, since one person's success does not necessarily signify another's failure. Lever also stated that, from the games that boys play, they learn the independence and organizational skills necessary for coordinating activities of large, diverse groups. Lever further noted that through their games boys learn to deal with competition in a forthright manner--"all in accordance with the rules of the game." In contrast, girls' play replicates the social pattern of primary human relationships, and the organization of their play is more cooperative. According to Mead's (1934) theories, girls' play fosters the development of empathy and sensitivity. It is suggested here that different leadership styles of men and women, as well as organizational skills, could be interpreted from this insight into sex differences in girls'

and boys' games. This is a possible spinoff of the aforementioned explanation.

Although dependence or independence on the part of women (as discussed in the introduction of this section) was not the major concern concern of this research study, the above discussion functioned as a prelude to a clearer understanding of this study. The major issue was that of traditional versus nontraditional career choices of women and the reasons for these choices. This study has provided findings that may help explain why some women elected traditional career fields while others selected nontraditional career fields. This researcher believed, however, that the door must remain open to other possible explanations and alternative interpretations to facilitate better understanding.

The first principal conclusion that appeared warranted in the study was that women in the Higher Education Administration Program possessed strong self-concepts. These women needed to feel good about themselves in order to attempt to do something nontraditional. This finding coincided with research conducted by Korman (1967) and Richardson (1975) on self-esteem as a moderator variable on occupational choice. It was also concluded that the women were making nontraditional career choices which were congruent with their self-concepts. This theory was discussed by Korman and Oppenheimer (1966) in the context of relating appropriate career choice with high self-esteem. The women's perceptions of self-satisfaction, behavior, personal self, and overall self-esteem were all higher (indicative of their self-concepts in general) in the higher education administration group, as compared to those perceptions on the part of women in the traditional

career field of home economics. This was not to say that women students in home economics or other traditional career fields could not have a high self-concept. It is merely projected that most women who choose to enter nontraditional career fields of study such as higher education administration, probably have internalized a strong sense of self, or high self-concept. Inasmuch as future administrative "rules of the game" will include responsible decision-making, leadership abilities, autonomous thinking, organizing skills, and wielding of power, these attributes of a strong sense of self are also predicted to be of great future benefit to the female student in higher education administration who strives to become an administrator.

The second principal conclusion of the study related to the personal and family background characteristics of the women students, which were considered important as they helped explain personality and subsequent career choices. The women in higher education administration were typically from lower-middle socioeconomic families, had parents with less formal education, and were part of a large family. The mothers of these women not only did not complete high school, but these mothers of the students generally worked inside the home as opposed to working outside the home. These women students in the study married men who were generally in jobs or occupations not considered to be professional. These women had two or more children, and they worked to help subsidize the family income. More often than not, these women married first and started college later in life after holding a number of jobs. Frequently, the jobs in which these women were employed were nontraditional in nature; for example, business.

Most important was the fact that these women were highly ambitious, motivated, and desirous of upward mobility. Their backgrounds were indicative of the fact that perhaps they wanted more out of life than they had previously experienced. The pattern of these women's lives signified that they were "risk-takers." They were willing to assume nontradiitonal jobs, roles, and aspirations in an effort to achieve greater social and economic rewards. These women were, essentially, willing to take chances in order to succeed.

There were other demographic characteristics of these women which were considered to be noteworthy. These demographics were, however, relegated to a secondary status, relative to the two principal conclusions just discussed. The connection between having older brothers and spouses and making nontraditional career choices of higher education administration appeared to have some merit. Some of the women in the study did have older brothers, and most of the women in higher education administration were married. This fact was significant because, as sex differences in boys' and girls' games were discussed previously, those women in both groups who did have older brothers may have learned to play boys' games more so than those women with no older brothers. Possibly, those women learned nontraditional attributes and behavior through interaction in competitive games with their brothers and their male friends. Those who were married may have learned nontraditional values through interaction with their spouses. The conclusion offered was that these women were, perhaps, more socialized to the nontraditional value system which represented for some of them their future nontraditional career choices in higher education administration.

There was also a direct relationship between having no younger sisters and making a career choice in the nontraditional area of higher education administration. The projection was that those women as adolescents who had no younger sisters may have had more time to pursue their own goals and to develop as individuals. They were free from responsibilities of younger siblings. This perhaps helped to develop within their personalities a strong sense of self-worth and self-confidence as individuals. Upon becoming adults, this strong personality may have influenced their choices of nontraditional careers in higher education administration. This finding coincided with research by McBee, Murray, and Suddick (1976), which indicated that women in nontraditional occupations had higher self-esteem than women in more traditional occupations.

The overall most significant family background variables in this study was the mother's educational background. This was, as presented earlier, true for its effect on both personality and career choices. Those women whose mothers did not complete high school scored higher on all of the components comprising self-concept, and four of these personality components (overall self-esteem, self-satisfaction, personal self, and behavior) may have directly influenced nontraditional career choices of higher education administration. Those women whose mothers obtained a college degree scored second highest on the self-concept personality components, whereas those women with mothers completing high school socred lowest on these personality tests. Thus, the mother's educational background was inversely related to a positive self-image in the first instance and not in the last instance. This finding was contradicted by research conducted by Greenfeld,

Greiner, and Wood (1980), who theorized that women in male-dominated fields have better educated fathers. Greenfeld, Greiner, and Wood contended that the most significant variable in the background of a woman, with regard to career, was the father's educational achievement.

It was projected that possibly it was the mother who was less formally educated and probably not working outside the home who put her "whole self" into developing the personality of her daughter. She perhaps played the nurturing and developmental role to the fullest extent possible. She had few outside or career interests which took priority from her number one job of rearing her children. Along this same line of reasoning, it is possible that those mothers who completed college may or may not have worked outside the home. In any case, these women did a relatively good job of rearing their daughters with regard to their total development. These mothers might, however, have had to combine their outside interests or careers with childrearing, though their careers may have been office jobs or other jobs that were less demanding. Lastly, it was speculated that those mothers who completed high school were perhaps in the most unfortunate situation of any of the three groups, relative to rearing children commensurate with helping with the famiy income. These mothers may have been working in manual, or blue-collar, jobs that were quite tedious and time-consuming; consequently, their daughters were not granted as much of their time or energy. This group of high-school-educated mothers might not be as family-oriented or traditional as those mothers not completing high school. (Yet, the mothers who did not complete high

school perhaps did not have the sophistication and the overall knowledge about their lifestyles as did the college-educated mothers.)

Another related observation being presented by the researcher has to do with the major influence in life for the women in this study. It has been disclosed that those women with high personality scores were women in the higher education administration group who had been greatly influenced by female family members. It was speculated that this female family member was, in most instances, the woman's mother. In view of the theoretical framework provided in Chapter II, this conclusion could be considered surprising. However, the theory by Stoller (1964) that follows confirms such findings.

Stoller's (1964) studies indicated that the unalterable sense of gender development--a core gender identity--has already been established for both sexes by the time of the phallic stage of the child. Given that the primary caretaker in the first three years of life is usually female, Chodorow (1974) stated that girls, in identifying themselves as female, experience themselves as like their mothers. This, according to Chodorow, fuses the experience of attachment with the process of identity formation.

A typical demographic pattern emerged in the study for the higher education administration group of students. Higher education administration women students were more than likely to be 36 years of age or older, married, have two or more children, received their last degree after the age of 30, and had held three or more professional positions, and were Caucasian. This finding on age coincided with research by Greenfeld, Greiner, and Wood (1980), who found that women in male-dominated professions were older than women in more traditionally

oriented jobs. There was, at first glance, a significant relationship between number of children and career choice. After closer examination, however, it was concluded that having no children was primarily related to being single on the part of the home economics women students. Therefore, traditional or nontraditional career choice was not a function of number of children. Therefore, traditional or nontraditional career choice was not a function of number of children. The group of higher education administration students were older upon receiving their last degree than were the home economics group of women. Again, age was one of the reasons that the women in the higher education. The probability was increased that the older students would have had the opportunities to hold a greater number of professional positions.

With regard to this demographic pattern, it appeared that the majority of women entering programs of higher education administration could be stereotyped according to the described demographics. These women all basically seemed to have been pioneers in this field of endeavor--individuals whose strong desires and aggressive mobility channeled them in nontraditional directions and career choices. Their similar personal and family background characteristics seemingly have "mainstreamed" them, so that there are few deviations from this homogeneous model.

It was projected that the majority of women entering nontraditional career fields were influenced in their career choices by their background experiences in nontraditional fields of study and/or work. The same influences would be applicable to women choosing traditional fields. This conclusion would hold true because it is theorized that

the basic formation of the personality is more than likely be fixed at an early age, reinforced by adolescent socialization processes, bolstered by society, and then manifested by particular career choices and life decisions. This decision-making process was evidenced by both groups of women students who continued on in their graduate fields of study in their original traditional or nontraditional studies and/or work.

The final observation of this study dealt with the occupations of the women's spouses. The study indicated that the majority of the women in higher education administration had spouses with jobs and occupations which, for purposes of this study, were not considered to be professional. To conclude why the variable of high self-concept was related significantly to that of spouse's occupation for this group of women might appear to be a paradox. Logically, this seemingly inconsistency may be because the spouses who held nonprofessional jobs might have more time, energy, and tolerance to employ in assisting their wives' career goals and ambitions. A professional career may have necessitated that these men concentrate more on their own responsibilities and demands. Viewed within this framework, the finding related to spouse's occupation appeared acceptable to the researcher.

Recommendations

The researcher was very encouraged by some of the insights provided by this study in the area of women's career choices in higher education administration and the relationship of these nontraditional career choices to personality components and personal and family

background characteristics. Future research possibilities are many in number and kind, as are suggested approaches to the various studies. Fair consideration must be given, however, to the most significant recommendations as presented. Personality components should be given a great deal of consideration as a major factor in women's nontraditional career choices of higher education administration. A positive self-concept, indicative of high overall self-esteem, is recommended to be a predictor of a woman's career choice in the nontraditional field of higher education administration. Similarly, a predictor of a woman's potential for an administrator in higher education administration should be her strong self-concept and high self-esteem. Consideration of a woman for hiring or promotion purposes should take into consideration these two factors of personality. Evaluation of women in top-level administrative positions in higher education administration should give credence to the concept that women administrators have strong personalities. These evaluations should consider judgments that, in all probability, these individual women administrators have the self-confidence and the personal ego strength necessary to be capable administrators.

It is recommended that additional research into personality and administrators in higher education in general be conducted to determine the differences, if any, between the personality components of men as compared with women administrators. The differences in male and female leadership capabilities, as well as leadership styles, should also be explored further. Additional research should be undertaken as well into personality of women who aspire to many different nontraditional careers. Similarities and differences of women in

higher education administration, as compared to other nontraditional career areas, could be investigated.

With regard to personal characteristics of women students in higher education administration, the primary recommendation is to deal with this group of students as nontraditional students, as opposed to traditional students. Higher education administration departments should plan their programs around this fact. Scheduling of courses (times and days), specific courses, content of courses, and requirements should be important considerations in planning for the needs and successes of the nontraditional higher education administration students. It should also be recognized that most women students in university higher education administration programs will have past or present work experience in nontraditional occupations. The experiences of the students should be recognized as a viable part of the higher education program; as such, these "on-the-job" experiences of the students should be incorporated into the curricula by the department faculty. Similarly, the field of last degree of many of the higher education admininstration women students will be education. Again, this academic experience of the students should be credited by the faculty and acknowledged in the planning of the courses.

The recommendation is made that more research be done on the mother's role in influencing the personality development of the daughter. Specifically, research concentration should be focused on the nuturing and developmental role of the mother. Those mothers who are less educated and who stay at home to devote their lives to their families and children are of particular research interest, especially when they are compared with those mothers who are more educated and who

perceive their role in life differently (not totally revolving around their families and children). Further research akin to Gilligan's (1982) study on the mother's role of the moral development of the child is suggested.

The present study should be extended to include a sampling of higher education administration programs around the country. It would be important to learn if the findings of this study would hold true for a larger sampling of population of students in higher education administration if replicated in other institutional settings.

As a final recommendation, the researcher proposes that a different methodology be incorporated to approach the same research questions dealing with personality and individual characteristics of women in higher education administration. In future studies, the demographic characteristics of women students should again be related to personality components in general for both groups of higher education and home economics students. However, the design of the study should be modified to allow the demographic characteristics to be related individually to both the traditional group and the nontraditional group separately and not just as one group as a whole. This would offer additional interpretations to the study.

A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY

Almquist, E. M. "Occupational Choice and Career Salience Among College Women." (Unpub. doctoral dissertation, University of Kansas, 1969.)

Bakan, S. L. The Duality of Human Existence. Chicago: Rand McNally, 1966.

Bakeman, R.; Helmreich, R.; and Wilhelm, J. The Life History Questionnaire (LHQ): II. Description and Application. Washington, D.C.: American Psychological Association, 1974.

Bentler, P. M. The Seventh Mental Measurements Yearbook, I. Highland Park, New Jersey: Gryphon Press, 1972.

Bloom, R. and Arnold, K. M. Fear of Success? The Effects of Socialization Orientation. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, 1979.

Broverman, I. K.; Vogel, S. R.; Broverman, D. M.; Clarkson, P. E.; and Rosenkrantz, P. S. "Sex-Role Stereotypes: A Current Appraisal." Journal of Social Issues, 28(2), 1972, pp. 59-78.

Brown, G. H. Master's Degree Awards to Women. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Center for Education Statistics, 1978.

Burstiner, I. "Comparing Male and Female Department Heads for Self-Confidence and Job Adjustment." College Student Journal, 8, 1974, pp. 61-68.

Chodorow, N. "Family Structure and Feminine Personality." In: Women, Culture, and Society, M. Z. Rosaldo and L. Lamphere, Eds. Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1974.

Clance, P. and Imes, J. "The Imposter Phenomenon in High Achieving Women; Dynamics and Therapeutic Interaction." Psychotherapy: Theory, Research, and Practice, 15, 1978, pp. 241-247.

Crump, B. R. and Handley, H. M. "Factors in Self-Concept Discrimination Between Women in Traditional and Nontraditional Areas in Business." Journal of Vocational Education Research, 8(1), Winter, 1983, pp. 1-8.

Donahue, W. Seminar-Level Administration: How Do Women Prepare? Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, National Institute of Education, 1981.

Dzierlenga, D. "Sources and Information. Women in the Community College." New Directions for Community Colleges, 34, 1981, pp. 79-89.

Elder, P. "Women in Higher Education: Qualified, Except for Sex." National Association of Student Personnel Administration Journal, 13, 1975, pp. 9-18.

Epstein, C. F. "Separate and Unequal Notes on Women's Achievement." Social Policy, 6, 1976, pp. 17-23.

Erez, M. and Shaier-Barazani, J. "Sex Role Stereotypes and Women's Choice of Innovative Fields of Study." (Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles, California, August 24-26, 1981.)

Estler, S. E. "Women as Leaders in Public Education." Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 1, 1975, pp. 363-386.

Fitts, W. H. The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale Manual. Los Angeles: Western Psychological Services, 1983.

Foreman, J. "The Right Woman for the Right Job." Change, 14, 1982, pp. 42-46.

Fralick, M. A. "Meeting the Needs of the New Pioneers: Women in Nontraditional Occupations." Community College Review, 11, 1982, pp. 5-9.

Frasher, J. M. and Frasher, R. S. Perspective: Educational Administration Quarterly, 15(2), Spring, 1979, pp. 1-11.

Gay, R. J. Educational Research. Columbus, Ohio: Charles E. Merrill, 1981.

Gerdes, E. P.; Imperatrise, P. A.; and Sunday, D. S. "Women Entering Traditionally Male Professions: Achievement-Related Variables and Stress." (Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Association for Women in Psychology, Boston, Massachusetts, March 5-8, 1981.)

Gilligan, C. In a Different Voice: Psychological Theory and Women's Development. Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1982.

Grant, W. V. and Eiden, L. J. Digest of Education Statistics 1982. Washington, D.C.: National Center for Education Statistics, 1982.

Greenfeld, S.; Greiner, L.; and Wood, M. M. "The Feminine Mystique in Male-Dominated Jobs: A Comparison of Attitudes and Background Factors of Women in Male-Dominated Versus Female-Dominated Jobs." Journal of Vocational Behavior, 17, 1980, pp. 291-309.

Gross, N. and Trask, A. E. The Sex Factor and the Management of the Schools. New York: Wiley, 1976.

Higher Education and National Affairs. Newsletter of the American Council on Education, 34(11), September, 2, 1985.

Hirschfeld, M. "The Imposter Phenomenon in Successful Career Women." (Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., August 23-27, 1982.)

Holland, J. L. and Gottfredson, G. D. "Predictive Value and Psychological Meaning of Vocational Aspirations." Journal of Vocational Behavior, 6, 1975, pp. 349-363.

Horner, M. S. "Toward an Understanding of Achievement-Related Conflicts in Women." Journal of Social Issues, 28, 1972, pp. 157-175.

Houser, B. B. Social Process and Internal Factors Affecting Female Enrollment in Technical Vocational Programs. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, January, 1981.

Hyer, P. B. "Women Faculty at Doctorate-Granting Universities: A Ten-Year Progress Report." Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, 5(3), Fall, 1985, pp. 235-236.

Jaccard, J. Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences. Belmont, California: Wadsworth, 1983.

Jacobson, E. "The Self and the Object World." Psychoanalytic Study of the Child, 9, 1954, pp. 75-128.

Kanter, R. M. "Some Effects of Proportions in Group Life: Skewed Sex Ratios and Responses to Token Women." American Journal of Sociology, 82(2), 1977, pp. 965-990.

Kerlinger, F. N. Foundation of Behavioral Research. New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1964.

Kohlberg, L. "The Development of Modes of Thinking and Choices in Years 10 to 16." (Unpub. doctoral dissertation, University of Chicago, 1958.)

Korman, A. K. "Self-Esteem As a Moderator of the Relationship Between Self-Perceived Abilities and Vocational Choice." Journal of Applied Psychology, 51(1), 1967, pp. 65-67.

Korman, A. K. "Self-Esteem Variable in Vocational Choice." Journal of Applied Psychology, 50(6), 1966, pp. 479-486.

Leonard, R. "Managerial Styles in Academe: Do Men and Women Differ?" (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Southern Speech Communication Association, Austin, Texas, April 7-10, 1981.)

Lester, P. and Chu, L. "Women Administrators" Feminine, Masculine or Androgynous?" Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, 1, 1981, pp. 171-179.

Lever, J. "Sex Differences in the Games Children Play." Social Problems, 23, 1976, pp. 478-487.

Loomis, L. J. and Wild, P. H. Increasing the Role of Women in Community College Administration. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, 1978.

Low, W. B. and Shaver, J. P. Open-Closed Mindedness of Students in Teacher Education and In Other College Fields. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1971.

Mackett, M. and Frank, F. P. "Issues Attendant to Training Minority and Female Educators for Educational Adminsitration." Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, 2, 1981, pp. 3-27.

Malcolm, M. S. "The Educational Role of Women in New Zealand." Journal of Education Administration, 17(1), 1979, pp. 102-105.

Mark, S. F. "Leadership in Higher Education: Consequences of Career Commitments." (Paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Eastern Psychological Association, Baltimore, Maryland, April 14-17, 1982.)

McBee, M. L.; Murray, R.; and Suddick, D. E. "Self-Esteem Differences of Professional Women." Journal of the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, 39, 1976, pp. 186-189.

McClelland, J. W.; Clark, R. A.; and Lawell, E. G. The Achievement Motive. New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1953.

Mead, G. H. Mind, Self, and Society. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1934.

Moore, K. M. "Towards a Synthesis of Organizational Theory and Historical Analyses: The Case of Academic Women." Review of Higher Education, 5(4), Summer, 1982, pp. 213-223.

Moore, K. M. and Salimbene, A. M. "The Dynamics of the Mentor-Protege Relationship in Developing Women as Academic Leaders." Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, 2, 1981, pp. 51-64.

Moore, L. L. "Women as Managers." New Directions for Community Colleges, 34, 1981, pp. 67-89.

Murrell, P. H. and Donahue, W. G. The Life Cycles and Career Stages of Senior-Level Administrative Women in Higher Education. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, National Institute of Education, 1982.

National Association of State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges (NASULGC). Women in Administration, 1978. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, National Institute of Education, 1979.

O'Connell, A. N. "Correlates of Life Style: Personality, Role, Concept, Attitudes, Influence, and Choices." Human Relations, 33(8), 1980, pp. 589-599.

Oppenheimer, E. A. "The Relationship Between Certain Self-Constructs and Occupational Preferences." Journal of Counseling Psychology, 13(2), 1966, pp. 191-197.

Ottinger, C. A., Editor. 1984-85 Fact Book on Higher Education. American Council on Education. New York: Macmillan, 1984.

Parsons, T. and Bales, R. F. Family, Socialization and Interaction Process. Glencoe, Illinois: Free Press, 1955.

Plas, J. M. and Wallston, B. S. "Women Oriented Toward Male Dominated Careers: Is the Reference Group Male or Female?" Journal of Counseling Psychology, 30(1), 1983, pp. 46-54.

Professional Women and Minorities. (A Manpower Data Resource Service.) Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, Scientific Manpower Commission, 1984.

Psathas, G. "Toward a Theory of Occupational Choice for Women." Sociology and Social Research, 52, 1967, pp. 253-267.

Quell, M. and Pfeifter, I. L. "Instances of Sex Bias Rated by Women Administrators." Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, 2, 1982, pp. 268-273.

Ray, E. M. An Experimental Attempt to Maximize the Professional Potential of Home Economics Teachers Through a Program of Group Counseling in College. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Office of Education, 1968.

Reohr, J. R. "Work and Female Identity." (Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the Association for Women in Psychology, Boston, Massachusetts, March 5-8, 1981.)

Richardson, M. S. "Self-Concepts and Role Concepts in the Career Orientation of College Women." Journal of Counseling Psychology, 22(2), 1975, pp. 122-126.

Silber, E. and Tippett, J. S. "Self-Esteem: Clinical Assessment and Measurement Validation." Psychological Reports, 16, 1965, pp.

Spence, J. T.; Helmreich, R.; and Stapp, J. "Ratings of Self and Peers on Sex Role Attributes and Their Relation to Self-Esteem and Conceptions of Masculinity and Femininity." Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 32, 1975, pp. 29-39.

Stein, A. H. and Bailey, M. M. "The Socialization of Achievement Orientation in Females." Psychological Bulletin, 80, 1973, pp. 345-366.

Stoller, R. "A Contribution to the Study of Gender Identity." International Journal of Psychoanalysis, 45, 1965, pp. 220-226.

Super, D. E. The Psychology of Careers. New York: Harper and Row, 1957.

Swatko, M. K. "What's in a Title? Personality, Job Aspirations, and the Nontraditional Woman." Journal of Vocational Behavior, 18, 1981, pp. 174-183.

Taylor, E. "Women Community College Presidents." New Directions for Community Colleges, 34, 1981, pp. 1-13.

Thomas, H. B. "Perceived Personal-Social Barriers to Entering Nontraditional Occupations for Women." Journal of Vocational Educational Research, V(4), Fall, 1980, pp. 1-19.

Thomas, H. B.; Christie, L.; Calvin, K.; and Denbroeder, K. "Impact of an Educational Program Designed to assist Women Overcome the Deterrents to Entering Nontraditional Occupations." (Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Boston, Massachusetts, April 11, 1980.)

Tung, R. L. "Comparative Analysis of the Occupational Stress Profiles of Male Versus Female Administrators." Journal of Vocational Behavior, 17, 1980, pp. 344-355.

U.S. Department of Labor. (Women's Bureau.) 1975 Handbook of Women Workers. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975.

Van Tuinen, M. and Ramaniah, N. V. "A Multimethod Analyses of Selected Self-Esteem Measures." Journal of Research in Personality, 13(1), March, 1979, pp. 16-23.

Wasden, F. D. "In Defense of the External Ed.D." Phi Delta Kappan, 60, 1979, p. 568.

Wolfe, L. K. and Betz, N. E. "Traditionality of Choice and Sex-Role Identification as Moderators of the Congruence of Occupational Choice in College Women." Journal of Vocational Behavior, 18, 1981, pp. 43-55.

Wood, M. M. and Greenfeld, S. T. "Women Managers and Fear of Success: A Study in the Field." Sex Roles, 2(4), 1976, pp. 375-387.

Zanna, M. P. "On Confirming Others' Sex-Role Stereotypes." (Paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Los Angeles, California, August 24-26, 1981.)

Zuckerman, D. M. "Self-Esteem, Personal Traits, and College Women's Life Goals." Journal of Vocational Behavior, 17, 1980, pp. 310-319.

APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

CORRESPONDENCE

Oklahoma State University

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION
AND HIGHER EDUCATION

STILLWATER, OKLAHOMA 74078
309 GUNDERSEN HALL
(405) 624-7244

July 11, 1985

Dear Graduate Student:

I am a fellow graduate student at Oklahoma State University, completing my doctorate in Higher Education Administration. My dissertation topic is entitled "Self-Concept as a Moderator Variable in Nontraditional Career Choices of Women in Higher Education Administration." Within the context of this research, I am collecting data from women in both the Higher Education Administration and the Home Economics graduate programs at Oklahoma State University. The objective of the research is to compare the various measures of self-concept in relation to career choice, and your participation in this research study is vital to its success.

The test instrument selected to collect data on self-concept is the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale. The test booklet and answer sheet for this test are enclosed. The instructions are found on the front page of the test booklet. Please disregard the instruction to fill in your name; simply leave this part blank. The one-page answer sheet for this test is separate and should be lined up in accordance with the test booklet instructions. In addition, I have enclosed a brief demographic questionnaire which I would like you to complete. Please return only the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale answer sheet and the demographic questionnaire by July 29.

Participation will, of course, be kept completely anonymous. Numbers on the envelopes will simply help in identifying nonrespondents for any necessary follow-up. These envelopes will be opened and then destroyed before the test results or questionnaires are analyzed.

I hope to be able to contribute to the existing body of knowledge related to women in higher education through this study. More generally, the influences on women, relative to career choices, are considered to be important research issues. The results of this study will be shared with each of you as soon as they are available.

Once again, your participation in this research study is very important. It will certainly be appreciated.

Sincerely yours,

Jan Shanklin

August 7, 1985

Dear Graduate Student:

I am writing this letter to ask you again for some assistance on my research project in Higher Education Administration at Oklahoma State University. As you might recall, my dissertation topic is on "Self-Concept as a Moderator Variable in the Non-traditional Career Choices of Women in Higher Education Administration." The Tennessee Self-Concept Scale was sent to you, as well as a brief demographic questionnaire, and I asked you to complete these items and send them back to me in the enclosed, stamped, self-addressed envelope.

The responses on this project have, indeed, showed that women graduate students at Oklahoma State University are interested in this research topic and that they are willing to cooperate with such a project. However, I need additional responses in order to validate my study and proceed with this research. This is the intent of this follow-up letter to ask you once again to take a brief period of time and complete the Tennessee Self-Concept Scale and the questionnaire. I am sure that many non-respondents are simply away from their regular addresses this summer, either working or traveling. If you have been gone this summer and are just now returning home, please do not think it is too late to respond. I will be receiving responses through the summer.

If you have any questions related to the information required, please phone me at the following number (collect): (405) 275-4779 or leave a message at (405) 273-2944. I do plan on completing this project this fall and will prepare abstracts for all responding graduate students at this time. YOUR response is very important, so please realize it will make a difference.

Thanking you in advance. Please don't hesitate to contact me.

Very sincerely yours,

Jan Shanklin,
Doctoral Student,
Higher Education Administration

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please choose the response which is most accurate and put the number of that response on the line provided.

____ 1. What is your present age?

1. 25 years or younger
2. 26 - 30
3. 31 - 35
4. 36 - 40
5. 41 - 45
6. 46 - 50
7. 51 - 55

____ 2. What is your marital status? (Please choose the response or responses which best describe your situation.)

1. Single - never been married
2. Married
3. Separated
4. Widowed
5. Divorced

____ 3. If married and your spouse is employed, what is the nature of his employment?

1. Self-employed
2. Teacher or professor
3. Businessman
4. Technical trade or laborer
5. Professional (specify) _____
6. Other (specify) _____

____ 4. What is your previous or present occupation?

1. Homemaker
2. Public school teaching or staff
3. College teaching or staff
4. Industry or business employee
5. Administrative position--private sector
6. Administrative position--public sector
7. Other (specify) _____

____ 5. How many professional positions have you held since completing your college degree(s)?

1. One
2. Two
3. Three
4. Four
5. Five or more

_____ 6. How many children of your own or adopted have you had?

1. None
2. One
3. Two
4. Three
5. Four
6. Five
7. Six

_____ 7. What was your major field of your last degree?

1. Education
2. Home Economics
3. Business
4. Library Science
5. Music, Art, Drama
6. Other (specify) _____

_____ 8. What age were you when you received your last degree?

1. 25 years or younger
2. 26 - 30
3. 31 - 35
4. 36 - 40
5. 41 - 45
6. 46 - 50

_____ 9. What is your religious background?

1. Protestant (specify) _____
2. Catholic
3. Jewish
4. Other (specify) _____

_____10. What was your father's educational background?

1. Did not graduate from high school
2. High school graduate
3. Associate degree
4. Four-year college degree
5. Master's degree
6. Professional degree (specify) _____

_____11. What was your mother's educational background?

1. Did not graduate from high school
2. High school graduate
3. Associate degree
4. Four-year college degree
5. Master's degree
6. Professional degree (specify) _____

_____12. What was your mother's occupation when you were about 13 years old?

1. Housewife
2. Clerk, Secretary, or Bookkeeper
3. Unskilled laborer
4. Skilled laborer
5. Teacher
6. Self-employed
7. Professional (specify) _____
8. Other (specify) _____

_____13. What was your father's occupation when you were about 13 years old?

1. Blue-collar worker, unskilled laborer
2. Skilled laborer
3. Paraprofessional
4. White-collar worker
5. Teacher
6. Self-employed
7. Professional (specify) _____

_____14. What was the major socioeconomic range of your family during the majority of your childhood and adolescence?

1. Lower class
2. Upper lower class
3. Lower middle-class
4. Upper middle-class
5. Lower upper class
6. Upper upper class

For the next four questions, the same number responses will apply. Please refer to the number answers following the four questions. For each of these four questions, please include the number of your own sisters and brothers, step-brothers and step-sisters, and half-sisters and half-brothers, if raised in the same family as yourself.

_____15. How many older sisters do you have?

_____16. How many younger sisters do you have?

_____17. How many older brothers do you have?

_____18. How many younger brothers do you have?

1. None
2. One
3. Two
4. Three
5. Four
6. Five
7. Six or more

_____20. Who would you say has been the major influence on your life?

1. Mother or other female family member
2. Father or other male family member
3. Other male
4. Other female
5. Other (specify) _____

_____21. What is your racial or ethnic background?

1. Indian
2. Black
3. Caucasian
4. Other (specify) _____

2

VITA

Gatha Jan Shanklin

Candidate for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Thesis: WOMEN'S CAREER CHOICES IN HIGHER EDUCATION ADMINISTRATION AND THEIR RELATION TO THE MODERATOR VARIABLE OF SELF-CONCEPT

Major Field: Higher Education Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Seminole, Oklahoma, on January 27, 1944, the daughter of Mr. and Mrs. J. C. Jackson.

Education: Graduated from Nathan Hale High School, Tulsa, Oklahoma, in 1962; received Bachelor of Arts degree from University of Oklahoma in 1968; received Master of Arts degree from University of Oklahoma in 1972; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 1986.

Professional Experience: Oklahoma City Planning Department, April, 1973, to August, 1983; Health Planner, NECO, Vinita, Oklahoma, August, 1973, to January, 1974; Education Director, United Indian Tribes of Western Oklahoma and Kansas, July, 1973, to August, 1973 and January, 1974, to June, 1975; Planner, Potawatomi Tribe of Oklahoma, Shawnee, Oklahoma, July, 1975, to April, 1976; Planner/Coordinator, St. Gregory's College Early Child Development Program and Programs for the Handicapped, Shawnee, Oklahoma, December, 1976, to September, 1979; Title III Director, SDIP, St. Gregory's College, Shawnee, Oklahoma, October, 1979, to September, 1981; President, Preferred Leases, Ltd., Shawnee, Oklahoma, January, 1981 to present; Title III Director, SDIP, U.S. Department of Education Program, Seminole Junior College, Shawnee, Oklahoma, October, 1983 to present.