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CAREER PATTERNS OF FEMALE AND MALE ADMINISTRATORS IN  
OKLAHOMA SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS INCLUDING  
ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANTS TO THE SUPERINTENDENT AND  
ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS

*The University of Oklahoma*

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THE UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

CAREER PATTERNS OF FEMALE AND MALE ADMINISTRATORS IN  
OKLAHOMA SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS INCLUDING  
ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANTS TO THE SUPERINTENDENT  
AND ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the  
degree of

DOCTOR OF EDUCATION

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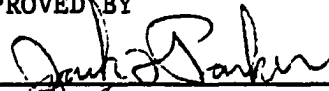




MAE FRANCES LEACH-NOLAN

Norman, Oklahoma

1981

CAREER PATTERNS OF FEMALE AND MALE ADMINISTRATORS IN  
OKLAHOMA SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS INCLUDING  
ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANTS TO THE SUPERINTENDENTS  
AND ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS

APPROVED BY

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

**DEDICATION**

**THIS PAPER IS DEDICATED TO MY CHILDREN,  
SONYA MICHELLE NOLAN AND ANDREA NICOLE NOLAN,  
THE LIGHT OF MY LIFE**

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The writer wishes to express sincere appreciation to the many people who contributed to the completion of the study. The writer is especially grateful to Dr. Jack F. Parker for his supervision, encouragement, patience, and confidence. His interest and thoughtfulness were inspirational throughout the study.

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Special recognition is due the secondary school administrators, administrative assistants, and assistant superintendents who so graciously consented to serve as subjects in the study.

Finally, a very special thanks to the writer's children, Sonya Michelle and Andrea Nicole, for their love, patience, and understanding, and to the writer's brother, Keith Irving Leach, for his moral and emotional support. Only they know the true meaning of the sacrifice, endurance, and faith that were needed to make the study a reality.

Lastly, to Him who makes all things possible for those who truly believe.....I believe.

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CAREER PATTERNS OF FEMALE AND MALE ADMINISTRATORS IN OKLAHOMA  
SECONDARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS INCLUDING ADMINISTRATIVE ASSISTANTS  
TO THE SUPERINTENDENT AND ASSISTANT SUPERINTENDENTS

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

A major recurring criticism of secondary public schools is the absence of women from top level administrative positions. Historically, women have been excluded from the top ranks of school administration and consequently school administration has been the exclusive responsibility of males. A review of the literature denotes that women in education have traditionally adhered to unwritten rules of a caste system which prevented them from career advancement. The literature further reveals that school systems perpetuate stereotypic roles of women as being incompetent.

Schools have not changed the way they institutionalize the role models that are presented to children: women teach while men move up to become principals and superintendents.<sup>1</sup>

School systems are accused of socializing males and females into traditional stereotypic roles, militating against women moving into top

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<sup>1</sup>Interview with Bernice Sandler, Project Director, Status and Education of Women. "Women at Work: Still Fighting Stereotyped Roles." U.S. News and World Report, (January, 1979), p. 73.

level administrative positions, and affecting the career development process on the basis of sex.

In the past, in American society, sex differentiation has been the criterion for dividing up task and maintaining social order and controls. Rituals, myths, and expectations have developed concerning the female's role or the male's role but ignore the abilities and capacities of the individual person.<sup>1</sup>

The purpose of the study is to determine differences that exist between and among career patterns of female and male secondary school administrators.

#### Background and Significance of the Study

A review of the literature indicates that research on female career patterns in Oklahoma secondary schools is limited. Because educational research in Oklahoma tends to avoid explaining the lack of women in administrative positions in secondary schools, it is necessary to show that authors devoted time and effort to the causes and effects of sex discrimination on the employment of women in secondary school administration at a national level.

Ginzberg has succinctly summarized the theory that occupational socialization processes determine career choices for both males and females at an early age.<sup>2</sup> This determination is influenced by role

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<sup>1</sup>Helen Bray and Marcia Guttentag, Undoing Sex Stereotypes: Research and Resources for Educators, (New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1976), p. 2

<sup>2</sup>Eli Ginzberg, Sol Ginzberg, Sidney Axelrad, and John L. Herma, Occupational Choice: An Approach to A General Theory (New York: Columbia University Press, 1951), p. 7

models which imply to children that occupations are sex oriented; males are decision-makers, and women are not. The decision-maker may influence career choices by curtailing aspirations and job potential through sex-bias practices and policies. "This bias is so insidiously pervasive that only when consciousness is intensely heightened can one begin to comprehend this discriminatory nature and to realize its harmful impact."<sup>1</sup> Levy blames schools for reinforcing sex-role stereotypic behavior already taught by society. She believes that schools prescribe acceptable behavior for students on the basis of sex,<sup>2</sup> thus, "Channeling members of each sex into restrictive roles that limit the life options and behavioral choices of each."<sup>3</sup> Maccoby postulates that sex-typing of behavior occurs much earlier than the concept of gender constancy normally develops. According to Maccoby, children develop appropriate gender and sex-typed behavior patterns through generalization, discrimination, and observation.<sup>4</sup> Such differential socialization behavior contributed significantly to career choices by sex, but more specifically, career patterns of females were influenced.

Female acceptance of predetermined societal roles from an early age leaves them not only unprepared for top level administrative positions, but frequently unwilling to pursue administrative employment models

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<sup>1</sup>Nancy Frazier and Myra Sadker, Sexism in School and Society (New York: Harper and Row, 1977), p. 115

<sup>2</sup>Betty Levy, "Do Schools Sell Girls Short?" (Ed.) Judith Stacey, Susan Gereaud, and Joan Daniels, And Jill Came Tumbling After: Sexism in American Education (New York: Dell Press, 1974), pp. 142-146

<sup>3</sup>Carole Joffe, "As The Twig is Bent," In And Jill Came Tumbling After: Sexism in American Education, p. 94

<sup>4</sup>Eleonor Maccoby and Carol Jacklin, The Psychology of Sex Differences (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1974), pp. 1-9

opportunities. "When women define themselves according to society's sex role expectations, they automatically include many negative aspects of femininity which may lower their own self-esteem."<sup>1</sup> Messages received by women at an early age about their potential achievement in nontraditional occupations encourage negative self-concepts. These messages are communicated in such subtle ways that women question neither their meaning nor their intent.

There is widespread agreement among educators that sexism in employment will be difficult to eliminate in educational institutions. Males and females receive identical academic training for educational careers and follow compatible career patterns at the lower level, but differential treatment on the basis of sex remains. Studies on personal aspirations and career counseling both help legitimize female professional immobility, i.e. these studies suggest that female's fear of success<sup>2</sup> and career counseling programs, "reinforce sex-typed occupational preferences already taught to girls by guiding them into 'suitable' occupations such as teaching."<sup>3</sup> Consequently, males occupy a highly disproportionate number of administrative positions in secondary public education even though women dominate the teaching profession.<sup>4</sup> The message is very clear: women teach, and men administer.

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<sup>1</sup>Bray and Guttentag, Undoing Sex Stereotypes: Research and Resources for Educators, p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>Matina Horner. "Women's Will to Fail." Psychology Today (New York: November, 1969), pp. 36-38.

<sup>3</sup>R.M. Fields. Public Education: Training for Sexism. (Pittsburg: KNOW, Inc., 1971).

<sup>4</sup>Sandler, "Women at Work: Still Fighting Stereotyped Roles.", p. 73.

A review of literature shows statistically that males enjoy elitist positions of power, status, and monetary value in secondary schools. According to PEER, women represent one-tenth of one percent of school superintendents.<sup>1</sup> The Resource Center for Sex Roles in Education found that 48.3 percent of secondary teachers were women.<sup>2</sup> Yet in 1978 only 7 percent of the nation's high school principals were women as compared to 10 percent in 1965.<sup>3</sup> The Women's National Education Fund said that although women represented 15 percent of all public school administrators, only 13 percent of school board members were women.<sup>4</sup>

Patricia A. Schmuck quotes findings from Fishel and Pottker's study which found that numerically men constitute 12,972 of the 13,037 superintendents in the United States. Sixty-five are women-- a 0.1 percent representation. Of the women principals, 3 percent are in junior high schools or middle schools and 1 percent are in senior high schools. Their study further revealed that at state administrative level positions only 95 women are members of state boards compared to

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<sup>1</sup>Peer Perspective, In Fact Sheets on Institutional Sexism, Compiled by the Council on Interracial Books for Children, (New York: January, 1979), p. 9.

<sup>2</sup>Resource Center for Sex Roles in Education, In Fact Sheets on Institutional Sexism, p. 9

<sup>3</sup>WEECH Network News and Notes, In Fact Sheets on Institutional Sexism, p. 9

<sup>4</sup>Women's National Education Fund, In Fact Sheets on Institutional Sexism, p. 9

390 men.<sup>1</sup> Thus, women hold only 20 percent of the positions on state boards of education.<sup>2</sup>

Undocumented information indicates that underutilization of women in Oklahoma secondary school administration is characterized first by the omission of women from occupational socialization research, second by the dominance of life patterning according to sex, and third by sex based employment complaints.

However, it comes as no surprise to anyone even cursorily acquainted with the work of courts and legislatures to be told that the law has often accorded markedly different treatment to men and women solely because of sex.<sup>3</sup>

Women educators saw enactment of nondiscriminatory laws and legislation as a panacea to end inequities in employment. Title VII of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, the Equal Pay Act of 1963,<sup>4</sup> Executive Order 11246,<sup>5</sup> and Title IX of the Education Amendment of 1972<sup>6</sup> were legislative acts designed to end discrimination on the basis of sex. However, educational institutions were excluded from coverage until passage of

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<sup>1</sup>Andrew Fishel and Janice Pottker. In Patricia Ann Schmuck, Sex Differentiation in Public School Administration. (Virginia: National Council on Administrative Women in Education, 1975), p. 5.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Leo Kanowitz. Women and the Law. (Albuquerque: University of New Mexico, 1969), p. 1.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 103.

<sup>5</sup>Ibid., p. 107.

<sup>6</sup>U.S. Department of H.E.W. Office of Civil Rights. Final Title IX Regulation Implementing Education Amendments of 1972. Prohibiting Sex Discrimination in Education. (Washington: U.S. Government Printing Press, 1976), p. 1.

Title IX in 1972. The courts concluded with passage of Title IX that sex-based classification was indeed unconstitutional.<sup>1</sup>

In Oklahoma, as in most states, sex-based legislation restricts individual rights to equal opportunity. It was not until sex discrimination complaints were decided in favor of women that male administrators acquiesced, i.e. Hayes vs. Oklahoma City Public Schools, EEOC, New Mexico, 1973. Prior to that time, Oklahoma, like most states, had not seriously considered sex discrimination complaints. Oklahoma legal decisions reflect views held nationwide, perceiving sex discrimination as less onerous than discrimination based on race, color, or national origin.<sup>2</sup> The assumption may be that courts have obviously been more concerned with exemptions of institutional practices and procedures than with the meaning of its sex discriminatory practices.<sup>3</sup>

#### Statement of the Problem

The problem of the study was to investigate differences between and among career patterns of female and male administrators in Oklahoma secondary schools, administrative assistants, and assistant superintendents. More specifically, this study will question the following:

1. The relationship between career counseling of female and male secondary school administrators.

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<sup>1</sup>Barbara K. Kesser and Charles E. Guerrier, "Legal Ramifications and Concepts of Title IX," A Quest for Equality: Title IX the Second Year (Indiana: GAC, January, 1977), p. 10

<sup>2</sup>Alexandra Polyzoides Puek and Jeffrey H. Orleans, "Sex Discrimination--A Bar to a Democratic Education: Overview of Title IX of the Education Amendments of 1972," Connecticut Law Review, Vol. 6, No. 1, (Connecticut: University of Connecticut, 1973), p. 2

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 15



2. The relationship between nondiscriminatory laws and legislation and the effect on employment practices.
3. The relationship between professional preparation of female and male secondary school administrators.
4. The relationship between personal aspirations and career patterns.

### Need for the Study

"Sexism still exists in the executive suites of the educational establishment, and women, in spite of laws against sex bias, are still denied the responsibility of professional decisions which affect not only them but new generations," stated Elizabeth Randloph, assistant superintendent, Zone II of Charlotte-Macklenburg.

The Oklahoma State Department of Education Employee Survey indicated that school districts systematically discriminate against women in the administration of schools. Women in Oklahoma have similar career patterns with men up to a point;<sup>1</sup> however, drastic changes take place beyond the role of teacher. Oklahoma boards of education tend to hire males in decision making roles more frequently than they hire females.<sup>2</sup> Schmuck said decision makers hire administrators whose leadership style and interest are similar to their own.<sup>3</sup>

Absence of women from status positions in Oklahoma may be attributed directly to a dual system of education. Dale said, even though

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<sup>1</sup>Oklahoma State Department of Education, FTE Survey, (Oklahoma: Research Division, 1978-79)

<sup>2</sup>Oklahoma State Department of Education, Oklahoma Educational Directory, Bulletin No. 110A, (Oklahoma: 1978-79).

<sup>3</sup>Patricia Schmuck, Sex Differentiation in Public School Administration, (Virginia: Nat'l Council of Administration Women In Education, 1975), pp. 91-93

men were similarly trained in public schools, different role assignments were made on the basis of sex.<sup>1</sup> A sex desegregation project in Oklahoma found that women had been exposed to traditional and stereotypic curriculum, instructional materials, differential counseling, and extra curricular activities.<sup>2</sup> Female students have been denied the opportunity to observe women serving as role models in significant positions of power.<sup>3</sup>

Shelly said discrimination against women is a consistent pattern in education.<sup>4</sup> Women are often employed in token administrative positions and concentrated in immobile situations. These positions seldom, if ever, lead to the top ranks of the superintendents office.

In 1946, of 4,450 schools, a significant number of women held non-traditional administrative roles. The number of women in secondary school administration declined until 1978. By 1978, Oklahoma had increased the total number of female administrators to 52. However, the exact number of women in secondary school administration was not known until 1978 because the Oklahoma State Department of Education did not maintain Full Time Employment records by sex.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Charlene T. Dale, "Women are Still Missing Persons in Administrative and Supervisory Jobs," Educational Leadership, Vol. 31, No. 2, (Washington: November, 1973), p. 125.

<sup>2</sup>Consultative Center for Equal Educational Opportunity, University of Oklahoma, Title IX Sex Desegregation Institute for Oklahoma (Oklahoma: CCEEO, 1975-76).

<sup>3</sup>Ann Converse Shelly, "Can We Find More Diverse Adult Sex Roles" Educational Leadership, p. 117.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 127.

<sup>5</sup>Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1975-76 Annual Report, (Oklahoma: Research Division), p. 20.

Educational research directs attention to the proliferation of studies devoted to the employment status of women in higher education. An obvious gap exists in occupational studies related to women in secondary schools. It is not only important for us to become aware of social inequities in public schools, but we must also be cognizant of differences in career patterns of female and male administrators.

#### Hypotheses to be Tested

- Ho<sub>1</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the career patterns of women and men in secondary school administration.
- Ho<sub>2</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the career counseling of women and men in secondary school administration.
- Ho<sub>3</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the career options for women and men in secondary administration.
- Ho<sub>4</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the hiring, recruitment, and employment of women and men for administrative positions.
- Ho<sub>5</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the qualification of women and men aspiring for administrative positions.
- Ho<sub>6</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the salary of women and men secondary school administrators.
- Ho<sub>7</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the years of experience of male and female administrators.
- Ho<sub>8</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the promotion and upward mobility of females and males in secondary school administration.

### Limitations of the Study

This study investigated differences between and among career patterns of male and female administrators in Oklahoma secondary public schools as assessed by structured interviews. Participating schools were limited to those districts with female secondary school administrators as identified by the Oklahoma State Department of Education, Research Division.

The total population for study consists of 40 female administrators presently employed in administrative positions, such as non-teaching high school principals and assistants, nonteaching junior high school principals and assistants, nonteaching middle school principals and assistants, including superintendents, assistant superintendents and administrative assistants to the superintendents as reported in 1977-78.

To further limit the study, 40 of the female population were matched with 40 males selected from a population of 923 male secondary administrators. To avoid ability variations in the study's matching of female and male career patterns, homogeneous groups were compared on the basis of similar characteristics, such as, school size, academic background, age group, and occupational status.

### Definition of Terms

Administrator - An individual with a top-level position responsible for school management, implementation of policy, and leadership of the secondary school.

Affirmative Action - A positive program designed to increase opportunities for women, minorities, and other under-represented groups.<sup>1</sup>

Career Patterns - The sequential progression of job selection.

Discrimination - Policies, practices, and procedures which deny individuals equal opportunity on the basis of color, sex or national origin.

Equal Opportunity - This concept affords every individual the right to participate in and have equal access to employment opportunities in secondary public schools regardless of sex.

Secondary School - This is a tax supported institution administered by the State of Oklahoma for the sole purpose of providing free education to students in middle, junior high, and senior high schools.

Sex-based Legislation - These are those laws and legislation which have discriminatory effects on individuals because of sex.

Sex Discrimination - Practices of law, custom, or habit which oppress one sex; prejudice based solely on sex, exclusive of individual characteristics.<sup>2</sup>

Sexism - The belief in the inferiority of one sex to another. Sexism is also the process whereby patriarchal attitudes and behaviors are institutionalized, permeating the whole society via language, history, laws, religion, policies, education, economics, psychology, etc.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>State Department Task Force on Sex Bias, Definitions, (Minneapolis: State Department of Education, 1976), p. 1

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Sex-role Stereotyping - The process by which the sexes are socialized into so called "feminine" and "masculine" behaviors and roles which are accepted as "natural."<sup>1</sup>

#### Method and Procedure

The sample for this study consisted of 40 female secondary school administrators in Oklahoma. They were matched with 40 selected male secondary school administrators with similar job title, age group, educational level, and school population.

All subjects were administered the Career Pattern Questionnaire in personal, structured interviews by a trained interviewer. The interview did not exceed fifteen minutes per interview session. Section I, question 1 through 5 was excluded from the interview; each subject answered these questions outside of the interview session.

The Career Pattern Questionnaire was adapted from the Administrative Career Pattern Questionnaire which was pilot tested on women graduate students and experienced public school teachers in Illinois. The questionnaire was validated on a sample of 242 potential women administrators (79%) in Illinois.<sup>2</sup>

To control procedural biases, the researcher did (1) establish rapport with the subjects prior to the interview; (2) establish specific timetables for the interview; (3) establish a place; and (4) notify all interested individuals. Each subject wrote down the response to each question in addition to tape-recording the interview.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 1

<sup>2</sup>Stefan P. Krchniak, Entry Into School Administration by Women In Illinois: Facts and Dynamics, (Illinois: State Board of Education, 1977), p. 8

In this study, sex was the only independent variable when matching. Matching was used as the research design because there is a substantial correlation between the matching variable and dependent variables. According to Kerlinger, matching reduces the error term and thus increases the precisions of any experiment, a desirable outcome.<sup>1</sup>

For purposes of analyzing and interpreting data, two research designs were possible; chi square or a t-test.

According to Downie, "Chi square is used as a test of significance when we have data that are expressed in frequencies or data that are in terms of percentages or proportions and that can be reduced to frequencies."<sup>2</sup> Data from the study were reduced to categories and tabulated so that chi square could be applied.<sup>3</sup>

To diminish error, Yates correction was "applied to the computation because the distribution of chi square is discrete, whereas the values obtained by the use of the formulas result in a continuous probability model."<sup>4</sup>

The t-test is defended as the test for the difference between two means. The t-test was used to determine the probability of observed difference appearing, if, in fact, the null hypothesis of no difference is true. If the probability is less than the .05 level, we rejected the null hypothesis.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973), p. 311

<sup>2</sup>N.M. Downie and R.W. Heath, Basic Statistical Methods Harper and Row, (New York: 1974), p. 188.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 189.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 196.

<sup>5</sup>William Wiersma, Research Methods in Education, an Introduction. Lippincott, (New York, c 1969), p. 81.

### Organization of the Study

The study consisted of five chapters. Chapter I included the introduction and the statement of the problem as well as its need and treatment of the data. Chapter II reviewed relevant literature with particular focus on formulation of career patterns, career counseling, employment practices, and sex-based legislation. Chapter III contained the design of the study. Analysis of data was presented in Chapter IV with Chapter V giving the findings, conclusions, and interpretations of the study.



## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF LITERATURE

#### Introduction

Attaining a broad social goal such as the achievement of a condition of education equity for women requires concurrent changes at many levels of society. There is no single cause or set of causes whose elimination will increase the number of women in education administration. Despite social changes, the enactment of nondiscriminatory legislation, and an increase in the number of women preparing for administrative positions, women remain underrepresented in the population of public school administrators.<sup>1</sup>

Women occupy fewer positions of power, status, or leadership in spite of academic preparation and years of educational experience.<sup>2</sup> Unfortunately, even women expect men to occupy administrative positions rather than themselves.<sup>3</sup>

The literature is replete with information which suggests that educational research has been one-dimensional<sup>4</sup> and has not dealt with specific career pattern of women in secondary school administration.

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<sup>1</sup>Judith A. Adkinson, Linking Organizations to Promote System Change. In the ICES Structure: Linking Organizations for Educational Equity (Kansas: University of Kansas, 1979), p. 5.

<sup>2</sup>Dean Carlton, "A Survey of the Status of Females in School World," Phi Delta Kappan 59 (June, 1979), p. 718.

<sup>3</sup>Beverly B. Cassara, ed., American Women: The Changing Image (Boston: Beacon Press, 1962), p. 121.

<sup>4</sup>AASA Convention Reported, (New Orleans, February 17, 1979), p. 9

"Most written material on women in administration deals with the lack of women in "Leverage" posts.<sup>1</sup> Research has been in the areas of higher education and elementary education.

For purposes of this study, the review of literature was divided into four specific areas:

1. The relationship between personal aspirations and career patterns.
2. The relationship between nondiscriminatory laws and legislation and the effect on employment practices.
3. The relationship between professional preparation of female and male secondary school administrators.
4. The relationship between career counseling of female and male secondary school administrators.

#### Relationship Between Personal Aspirations and Career Patterns

##### Socialization

"Women aspiring to careers in educational administration are more likely to be surrounded by problems and beset with frustrations"<sup>2</sup> while males are prepared to compete and persevere for success.<sup>3</sup> This is based on the assumption that due to "socialization, women are not as likely as men to pursue training directly for administration. Too often women aspiring for management positions do not succeed, not because of their lack of management skills, but rather because of their inability

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<sup>1</sup>Jacqueline P. Clement, Cecrelia M.D. Bella, Ruth Eckstrom, Sheila Tobias, and Kay Bartol, "No Room at the Top" in Taking Sexism Out of Education (U.S. DHEW: The National Project on Women in Education, 1978), p. 59.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 50.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 58.

to recognize that they have these skills."<sup>1</sup> Therefore, women are not rewarded for leadership skills nor skills which they actually possess. Thus, the lack of training in management skills means women allow themselves to be evaluated on behavior rather than administrative skills.<sup>2</sup>

Women aspiring for top administrative jobs in secondary education seldom achieve their goals. Edward J. Van Meir, as quoted by Clement et al. in the National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors, said that women are not adequately prepared for executive positions, are not achievement motivated, assume responsibility for child care, interrupt their careers for child rearing, and appear to be more transient than men.<sup>3</sup> Clement disagrees, stating that women must overcome the fear of competition for status positions. Jacqueline Clement, Assistant Superintendent of the Brookline School District in Massachusetts, questions Meir's postulation. Clement's rationalization is that women's professional careers peak at a later age than males, they have more teaching experience than men, but men are encouraged to enter school administration at a much greater rate than women.<sup>4</sup>

Jerdee and Rosen found that women who work have higher levels of career aspirations but they do not contribute to career achievement. Higher income was the primary factor determining career aspirations while family life was the main obstacle to career advancement.<sup>5</sup> Women

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 61.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 53.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

<sup>5</sup>Thomas Jerdee and Benson Rosen, "Factors Influencing the Career Commitment of Women," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., 3-7 September 1979.

find it difficult to fit their professional ambitions as a priority into their own value systems.

Patricia A. Schmuck said that "Some supervisors feel that a kind of locker-room camaraderie is essential to the proper functioning of an administrative team. Whether or not this has any basis is irrelevant. If a man thinks socializing is important, he will be reluctant to hire a woman who might not work well with the boys."<sup>1</sup> Schmuck interviewed a woman who described the situation succinctly.

I am upwardly mobile-----but here come the roadblocks. Men naturally flock together. They golf together and swim together so they get to know one another. Men who are in low positions striving upward, golf and swim with the guys in power positions. Those avenues are closed to me. These are the way roles get filled--even before they are advertised, someone suggests a bright young man. I won't be known in the district. No one will communicate to others that I am interested in a position and by the time announcements are made it may be too late.<sup>2</sup>

Males benefit from mentors, buddy systems, and "the old boy network which is, in a sense, also a mentoring system where men teach each other all of the informal things they need to know on the job."<sup>3</sup>

#### Promotion and Upward Mobility

The literature suggests that personal oppression and obstacles prevent many women from aspiring for administrative positions. When the focus is on sex, discrimination is stated as the reason many women

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<sup>1</sup>Patricia A. Schmuck, "Deterrents to Women's Careers in School Management," unpublished paper. (n.d.).

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>"Preparing for a Career," U.S. News and World Report (January 15, 1979), p. 74.

do not aspire for status positions.<sup>1</sup> McMillan found that as the level of the organization increased, women were not interested in leadership roles.<sup>2</sup> Negative messages are frequently communicated about women aspiring for leadership roles.

Thus, there exists a vicious circle in which discrimination against women and the sometimes valid basis for it reinforce each other. Their competing family roles and expectations that they will be discriminated against reduces women's performance and aspirations. They are then discriminated against partly because they are thought to lack ambition.<sup>3</sup>

Florence Howe believes that aspiration is the most crucial issue in women's education. According to Howe, there is a direct relationship between the lower percentage of women administrators and the low aspirations of women.<sup>4</sup> Low aspirations may be directly related to or attributed to the academic career system, which eliminates women by adhering to rules that meet the needs of the male population rather than by outright malevolence. The rules of the system value an outstanding act while women value doing a good job. Florence Howe feels this curtails the participation of women in nontraditional jobs.

Why is it more important to spread a thick tokenism of women through the nontraditional kingdoms than to attempt a transformation of the traditional ghettos themselves--especially if one of those, the public school system, is responsible for the perpetuation of sex stereotyping and the low aspirations of women?

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<sup>1</sup>Marvin R. McMillan, "Professional Leadership Aspirations of Prospective Women Teachers," SPAT 10 (1972), pp. 63-70.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Richard L. Simpson and Ida H. Simpson, "Women and Bureacracy in the Semi-Professions," ed. A. Etzione, The Semi-Professions and Their Organization (New York: Free Press, 1969), p. 230.

<sup>4</sup>Florence Howe, "Sexism and the Aspirations of Women," Phi Delta Kappan Vol. LV, No. 2, (October, 1973), pp. 99-104.

She supports the premise that leadership should be developed within traditional women occupational areas where significant changes can occur, thus raising aspiration levels.<sup>1</sup>

Howe's thesis is supported by others who suggest that women's fear of success<sup>2</sup> legitimizes their immobility which is perceived as low aspiration. Research by Gilmore shows a significant relationship between the age of women and their need to achieve. Women 35 to 50 had the highest need to achieve while sex role views were not related to need to achieve except for women 20 years of age and younger. Women with higher educational levels expressed fear of success less frequently than women with traditional views of sex roles.<sup>3</sup>

Academic achievement in males is quite consistently predictable from locus of control scores, although this is not true for females. Reasons suggested for this apparent inconsistency include the use of externality as a shield against failure, the instruments used, and a fear of success in women. Results suggested a social desirability factor might be a mediating variable when predicting achievement from locus of control scores.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>"Women and the Power to Change," ed. Florence Howe, Harvard Educational Review 47 (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1977), p. 65-68.

<sup>2</sup>Matina S. Horner, "Why Women Fail," paper presented at the Connecticut Conference of the Status of Women sponsored by the National Education Association, August, 1972.

<sup>3</sup>Beatrice Gilmore, "To Achieve or Not to Achieve: The Question of Women," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Gerontological Society, Louisville, Kentucky, 28 October, 1975, p. 11.

<sup>4</sup>Stephen Nowicke, "Predicting Academic Achievement of Females from a Locus of Control Orientation: Some Problems and Some Solutions," paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Montreal, Canada, 27-31 August, 1973.

"The pattern that emerges is that women who strive to achieve are systematically discouraged from reaching for their highest human potential.<sup>1</sup>

Beatrice Wooding Pope investigated factors which affected attainment of administrative roles. She questioned combining factors such as childhood experiences, future career plans, personality trait differences, and career years which led to their present position. Results from the study revealed that the percentage of women completing high school was the same regardless of their mother's professional status.<sup>2</sup> Mothers were found to be the most significant role models due to their ability to integrate marriage, family, and career styles. The majority of role models were married with children, yet females under 30 did not necessarily aspire to have a family while women over 30 did. Implications of this study are that females generally pattern behavior after females for integrating professional, marital, and family life.<sup>3</sup> Yet, "our most successful women, if one judges by occupational criteria such as income or professional recognition, are women who

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<sup>1</sup>Charlene T. Dale, "Women are Still Missing Persons in Administrative and Supervisory Jobs," Educational Leadership 31 (November, 1973), pp. 123-127.

<sup>2</sup>Beatrice Wooding Pope, "Factors Influencing Career Aspirations and Development of Women Holding Administrative Positions in Public Schools (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Temple University, Philadelphia, 1979).

<sup>3</sup>Janet Lynn Cornfeld, "Role Model Influences on the Life Style Aspirations of Female Graduate Students," (unpublished dissertation, Ph.D., University of Maryland, 1978).

avoid child-bearing altogether." This is perceived as unfortunate because these women are not establishing an enriching environment for children.<sup>1</sup>

Additional studies relating to ability to achieve led to findings consistent with Pope. Gjesme Torgrim noted that girls with high ability also have high achievement motives.<sup>2</sup> Females with high aspirations have higher GPA's than those who do not, are happier with their college majors, and are more decisive about their graduate studies.<sup>3</sup>

Females did not attribute this level of aspiration in college to high school socialization. Instead, women said the need for personal achievement and income were the most influential factors in their need to achieve, while family life styles were the major obstacles to career advancement.

Torgrim's study supports findings of Jerdee and Rosen which suggest that the career development of the women from their study generally fit two models, the sexist model rather than the idealized model.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Dorothy McBride Kipnise, "Intelligence, Occupational Status and Achievement Orientation," Harvard Educational Review Vol. 48 (May, 1978), p. 272.

<sup>2</sup>Gjesme Torgrim, "Achievement and Related Motives and School Performance for Girls," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 26-1 (April, 1973), p. 131-36.

<sup>3</sup>Virginia Ade Wolf, "Factors Related to Postgraduate Educational Aspirations of Women College Graduates," paper presented at the Annual Convention of the American Psychology Association, Washington, D.C., September 3-4, 1976.

<sup>4</sup>Thomas Jerdee and Benson Rosen, "Factors Influencing the Career Commitment of Women," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, Washington, D.C., September 3-7, 1979.



### Career Development and Schools

Helen Astin concludes that schools should develop specific techniques to assure the active participation and preparation of all students in educational practices and policies. She feels, there is a need to identify those factors which affect the career choices of women, collect data, identify factors and legislative efforts which go beyond requirements.

She was particularly concerned with the type and extent of sex discrimination in access to postsecondary education. Her study questioned discriminatory policies in institutions, educational factors which contribute to women's progress, specific behavior which may limit an individual's options, and "the effect of differential socialization and socioeconomic status on women's aspirations, self-concept, motivation, and the participation of women in educational activities."<sup>1</sup>

In response to Astin's concern for factors which affect future career preparation of women, a 1978 study by Greenberger and Marini found that public schools begin developing techniques to assure male participation in school policies early. Social pressures encourage males to be success-oriented in their occupation which produces higher aspirations and expectations for males than for females.

Greenberger and Marini said that variability is greater between females and males, i.e., girls drop out of school less frequently than do boys, their grades are better than boys, but boys attain higher

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<sup>1</sup> Helen Astin, "Sex Discrimination in Education: Access to Postsecondary Education," in the Executive Summary presented to the Higher Education Research Institute, Inc. (Los Angeles, California, 1976). This Institute is sponsored by DHEW under the auspices of the National Center for Education Statistics, Washington, D.C.).

levels of education past high school more often than girls. The study also found a discrepancy between the level of educational aspirations and expectations for boys and girls. Boys, more often than girls, expect to attain their goals for educational achievement. Academic achievement has a stronger effect on educational ambition for boys than girls, and socioeconomic background has a stronger effect on educational ambition for boys than girls.<sup>1</sup>

These studies support the thesis that a significant number of women cannot aspire for top level positions because of their lack of preparation in school and a lack of knowledge about careers.<sup>2</sup>

Frances-Dee Burlin stated that "adolescent girls are influenced by external and/or environmental cues in their real occupational aspirations among adolescent females with respect to locus of control and other social and psychological variables, parental education, and mother's work and occupational status."<sup>3</sup>

Negative messages communicated to females through their school environment clearly define the competent women. The development of competency for women is usually associated with men for comparable access to high-level positions. An obvious barrier on a more subtle level is the fact that competence is not associated with womanliness. Barnell defines competence as the ability to interact effectively with

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<sup>1</sup>Margaret Mooney Marini and Ellen Greenberger, "Sex Differences in Educational Aspirations, and Expectations," American Educational Research Journal Vol. 15, #1 (Winter, 1978), p. 67-79.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Frances-Dee Burlin, "Occupational Aspirations of Adolescent Females," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the Association of Women in Psychology, February, 1976.

the environment. Yet, she argues that power and femininity are not antithetical and elaborates on those factors identified by Trigg, Torgrim, Jerdee, and Rosen which free women to achieve personal goals.<sup>1</sup>

### Developing Career Choices

How the influence of career choice differs for groups can be seen by comparing the functions of career development and career choice, knowledge and perceptions of occupations, and level of aspirations.<sup>2</sup> The difference between career development may be described in terms of role-allocation. According to McGrath, role-allocation was influenced by American society. "History shows that the changing role and characteristics of women are expressed in the educational arena by women's choice of schools, courses, and preprofessional qualifications."<sup>3</sup> Women's performance is affected by societal beliefs, attitudes, prejudices, and lack of role models for women in administrative roles. Educational expectations differ for women and men because marriage is regarded as the ultimate goal for women while employment is prescribed for males.<sup>4</sup>

Thus, it is true that a man's options are also limited by our society's sex-role ideology, but as the "predictability

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<sup>1</sup>Rosalind C. Barnell and Grace Baruch, "The Competent Women," Harvard Review 50 (February, 1980) New York: Halsted Press, 1978, p. 184.

<sup>2</sup>Donald Thompson, "Knowledge of Occupation Level of Aspiration, Career Choice and Level of Vocational Development Among College Women," paper presented at the American Personnel and Guidance Association, San Diego, California, February 9-13, 1973.

<sup>3</sup>Patricia McGrath, "The Unfinished Assignment: Equal Education for Women," Worldwatch Paper (Washington, D.C.: Worldwatch Institute, July, 1976).

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

test" reveals, it is still the women in our society whose identity is rendered irrelevant by America's socialization practices.<sup>1</sup>

"Most mothers in the United States, regardless of their social class, tend to believe their sons should develop independence, a sense of responsibility, and a definite career role." Working class mothers are more achievement-oriented toward their preschool sons than they are toward their daughters.<sup>2</sup> Poor mothers project feelings of inadequacy on their daughters much more than onto their sons.<sup>3</sup>

Like Hess, Ruth Hartley conducted an exploratory study which investigated women's social roles as perceived by five, eight, and eleven year olds. The study questioned how the world actually appeared to children relative to male and female functioning, the work-roles of women, and non-traditional domestic activities for men.

Hartley concluded that children's perception of male and female roles are traditional. "If the forms of sex-role activities have changed somewhat, from the child's point of view their functions have not." Women are seen as helpers and men as earners of money for the family.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>"Sex Equality in Schools," AASA Convention Reporter, New Orleans, Louisiana, February 19, 1979, p. 11.

<sup>2</sup>R. D. Hess et al., "The Cognitive Environments of Urban Pre-school Children," cited by Jerome Kagan, "The Emergence of Sex Differences," School Review (February, 1972), pp. 217-226.

<sup>3</sup>M.K. Rothhart, "Birth Order and Mother-Child Interactions in an Achievement Situation," Journal of Personality and Social Psychology 17 (1971), p. 113-20.

<sup>4</sup>Ruth E. Hartley, "Children's Concepts of Male and Female Roles," Merrill-Palmer Quarterly (Winter, 1960), p. 83-91.

Thomas L. Harris and Jean S. Wallin report a study by Powell and Bloom conducted in 1962.<sup>1</sup> They investigated the development of vocational plans in grades 10 through 12 as a means of discovering the motivational forces that influence choices. In response to the inquiry concerning occupations the students would like to enter, approximately 65 percent of the boys and 70 percent of the girls chose occupations at the professional level.

Providing students with information relating to careers is not enough in itself. Linda Lemel said this will not increase the students' opportunities for existing factors which limit the students' perceptions of what legitimizes a career choice.<sup>2</sup>

Numerous research projects and models have been developed to ascertain the type of barriers which affect high school females in their career choices.<sup>3</sup> Other activities focused on helping students make decisions about their lives. This author said choices begin with going to college, a job, and marriage. Alternatives should be offered the student in making each decision.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Thomas L. Harris and Jean S. Wallin, "Influencing Career Choices of Seventh Grade Students," Vocational Guidance Quarterly (September, 1978), p. 50.

<sup>2</sup>Linda Lamel, "Career Expressions of Women," Career Education Monograph Series 1, No. 50 (New York: Yonkers Career Education Project, 1974).

<sup>3</sup>Walter Scott Smith, "Science Education in the Affective Domain: The Effect of a Self-Awareness Treatment on Career Choice of Talented High School Women," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching, San Francisco, California, May 23-25, 1976.

<sup>4</sup>Feminists Northwest, Whatever Happened to Debbie Kraft: An Awareness Game for Educators, Counselors, Students, and Parents (Seattle, Washington: Feminists Northwest, 1975).

### Career Patterns and Leadership

In the past, women agreed at least attitudinally that women's place was in the home.

Although this situation may indeed be the case, little research has been conducted on career development in women. Occupational aspirations and career selection literature is relatively void of research specifying underlying characteristics of those women who choose interrupted careers over uninterrupted careers, or professional jobs over nonprofessional jobs.<sup>1</sup>

Helen Diamond said we, as a society, have not taken advantage of the leadership abilities of women. She raised the question, "Is there a pattern in individuals' lives that develops leadership ability? If we identify this pattern, will it enable us to increase the number of women leaders?"<sup>2</sup> Henning raised a comparable question in her dissertation at Harvard in 1970. She studied twenty-five top corporate women executives in Eastern seaboard concerns.

Henning's findings show that the majority of the females studied were the eldest children in their families. She developed traits for competition and the desire to achieve through sports. She found that boys participated in sports at early ages while women did not. For those women who did succeed in leadership roles, their fathers encouraged them to pursue leadership roles in school in spite of their mothers treating them like typical girls. This support from parents gave women the security needed to question the 'rules', take risks, aspire to

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<sup>1</sup>John C. Ory and Linda M. Helfrich, "A Study of Individual Characteristics and Career Aspirations," The Vocational Guidance Quarterly (September, 1978), p. 43

<sup>2</sup>Helen Diamond, "Patterns of Leadership," Educational Horizons: The Official Publication of Pi Lambda Theta 57 (Winter, 1978-79), p. 59

achieve, and develop abilities. Henning and Jardim believe that "characteristics traditionally considered masculine, rather than being innate, result from experiences of boys in their activities for competition, the development of competence, and the rewards they receive for mastering these skills."<sup>1</sup>

"Why do so many women accept self-images that limit their alternatives and, therefore, the expression of their potentials as persons?" To answer this question, 139 eleventh graders in a Syracuse, New York high school were surveyed to determine their choice of an ideal and real occupational aspiration.

Conclusions of this study suggest that young women subscribe to traditional sex-role values in their occupational aspirations. Even though these young women knew they had occupational choices and could make innovative choices, they did not due to external social factors.<sup>2</sup>

#### Relationship Between Nondiscriminatory Laws and the Effect on Employment Practices

Sex-based inequality in educational institutions persist despite laws and legislation which established legal barriers against discriminatory practices.

It is an unpleasant fact that the basically decent, liberally-educated people who administer educational institutions in the United States have, on a widespread and systematic basis, practiced discrimination against

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<sup>1</sup>Margaret Henning and Anne Jardim, The Managerial Women (Garden City, New York: Anchor Press, 1977), p. 63.

<sup>2</sup>Frances Dee Burlin. Sex Role Stereotyping: Occupational Aspirations of Female High School Students. Cited in The School Counselor (November, 1976), p. 102-108.

women in hiring, promotion, and to a lesser extent in settling salaries.<sup>1</sup>

Questions have been raised in reference to how legislation affects and corrects sex-role stereotyping, societal attitudes, sex bias, and employment patterns of men and women at present and in the future.<sup>2</sup> In spite of the answers, women are denied access to equal educational opportunity regardless of legislative acts. The courts remained unsympathetic to the concerns of women until 1971 in Reed v. Reed.<sup>3</sup> In the case of Reed v. Reed, the Supreme Court found a sex-based classification to be unconstitutional. Two years later, the Court held in Frontiero v. Richardson<sup>4</sup> unconstitutional a law making distinctions based on sex because four of the justices concluded that sex discrimination is as invidious as race discrimination.<sup>5</sup> Previously, the Supreme Court had justified classification based upon sex by relying upon women's unique physical characteristics and maternal functions.<sup>6</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>"Discrimination to Faculty Hiring: Paternal Right," Women's Rights Law Reported 2 (New Brunswick, New Jersey: Rutgers State University Press, March, 1975), p. 3.

<sup>2</sup>W. Carolyn Allen, "Correction of Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping in Education," paper presented at the Southern Region Vocational Education Leadership Development Conference, Atlanta, Georgia, 407 April 1976.

<sup>3</sup>Reed v. Reed, 404 U.S. 71, 92 Sup. Ct. 251, 30 L. Ed. 244225 (1971).

<sup>4</sup>Frontiero v. Richardson, 411 U.S. 677, 93 Supt. Ct. 1764, 36 L. Ed. 2d, p. 583, 1973.

<sup>5</sup>Report of the Citizen's Advisory Council on the Status of Women (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, June, 1974), p. 24.

<sup>6</sup>Barbara K. Kesser and Charles E. Guerrier, "Legal Ramifications and Concepts of Title IX," in A Quest for Equality: Title IX the Second Year (Indiana: Title IV General Assistance Center), January 1977, p. 1.



### Impact of Nondiscriminating Laws on Schools

The impact of sex-related nondiscriminatory laws on school employment differs little from race. Women, like minorities, were denied equal educational opportunity and the opportunity to utilize their skills. According to Parkinson, nondiscriminatory legislation was not considered until the late 1960's when Congress began debating the appropriateness of new legislation to eliminate discrimination in education.<sup>1</sup> Briefly, she says that the Equal Pay Act, as an amendment to the Fair Labor Standards Act of 1964, failed to cover educational institutions, therefore, they were exempt from coverage.<sup>2</sup> Enactment of laws such as these legitimizes both equality and opportunity. Discrimination against women permeates every fiber of American life--most notably, public education. Women, as a class, have been confined to a different set of standards which relegated them to an inferior status.

Too little too late might describe efforts over the past fifteen years during which Federal, State, and local governments have adopted a number of laws and regulations to combat employment discrimination supposedly to cover women employed in educational institutions. Unfortunately, each of these laws has a significant weakness.<sup>3</sup> None of these

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<sup>1</sup>Marie Parkinson, "Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972: Selected Topical Analysis of Social Problems Related to Sex Discrimination in American Education and Congressional/Judicial Solutions," Consultative Center, University of Oklahoma, 1976 (Mimeographed).

<sup>2</sup>U.S. Department of Labor Employment Standards Administration, Equal Pay (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, June, 1978).

<sup>3</sup>Roslyn D. Kane, Jill Millie, and Daniel S. Press, Sex Discrimination in Schools: Evaluating Employment Practices Instituted for Women's Concerns. Arlington, Virginia Women's Educational Equity Act Program, U.S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare. (Newton, Massachusetts: Education Development Center, 1978), p. 99.

laws alone adequately meets the needs of individuals filing claims for discriminatory employment practices against elementary and secondary school systems.<sup>1</sup>

### The Equal Employment Opportunity Theory

Major federal laws and orders to combat sexism in employment are contained in the equal employment opportunity theory which is a secondary school national policy. "On the federal level, the thrust for this national policy, insofar as women in education are concerned, comes primarily from Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964," as amended:

42 U.S.C., Section 2000 E, et seg. Title VII, among other things, provides that it shall be an unlawful employment practice to refuse to hire or to discharge any individual with respect to his or her compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment, because of such individual's race, color, religion, sex, or national origin.<sup>2</sup>

Though born under such questionable circumstances, the prohibition against sex discrimination in employment has proved since 1964 to be much more than the toothless tiger one would have expected. As a matter of fact, the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission reported at the end of its first year of operations that over one-third of its processed complaints had involved charges of sex discrimination.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Report by the Education Commission on the States, "Retrenchment in Education: Case Law Affecting Women and Minorities: Equal Rights for Women in Education," Denver, Colorado, (1977), p. 1.

<sup>3</sup>Release of EEOC, July 2, 1966 Employment Practice Guide, Leo Kanowitz, Women and the Law: The Unfinished Revolution (Albuquerque, New Mexico: University of New Mexico Press, 1975), p. 106.

"Attorneys have also been encouraged, as a result of the Act, to take cases involving sex discrimination in employment."<sup>1</sup>

Until 1972, educational institutions were not covered by Title VII. Their "Guidelines on Discrimination Because of Sex" bar hiring based on stereotyped characterization of the sexes, classification or labeling of "men's jobs" and "women's jobs", and advertising under male or female headings. These guidelines specify that State laws which limit or prohibit the employment of women is superseded by Title VII. In addition, State laws may not enforce laws which provide differential treatment or benefits for females or males.<sup>2</sup>

Executive Order No. 11246

Executive Order No. 11246, as amended, states:

3CFR (1974); 42 U.S.C.A. Section 2000e. The Executive Order prohibit federal contractors and subcontractors from discriminating in their employment practices on the basis of sex (or race, color, religion, or national origin) and to take affirmative action to insure that there is no such discrimination.<sup>3</sup>

This order prohibits sex discrimination in advertisement and distinctions between marital status on the basis of sex, behavior, employee, and pregnancy.

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<sup>1</sup>"The Individual Right to Eliminate Employment Discrimination by Litigation," in Leo Kanowitz, Women and the Law: The Unfinished Revolution (Albuquerque, New Mexico: University of New Mexico Press, 1975), p. 106.

<sup>2</sup>Report on Employment Standards Administration, U.S. Dept. of Labor, Women's Bureau. Washington, D.C., 1975.

<sup>3</sup>U.S. Department of Labor, A Survey of Executive Order 11246, as Amended (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1975).

### Sex Discrimination and Title IX

To supplement the area of sex discrimination, following at least two years of Congressional debate, Congress enacted Title IX of the Higher Education Amendments of 1972. Title IX was initially proposed as an amendment to Title VI in 1970, and was finally passed with language amending Sections 401(b), 407(a) (2), 410, and 902 of the Civil Rights Act of 1964.<sup>1</sup> Along with Title IX came amendments to Title VII and Equal Pay Act which removed the exemptions for educational institutions.

During the 1970's, legislative members introduced numerous bills to replace bills which would expire in 1971. Representative Edith Green (D., Ore.), head of the House Special Subcommittee on Education, introduced a bill to increase federal support to colleges and, in addition, to prohibit sex discrimination. Her proposed bill would have removed the exemption of schools from Title IX of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 and the Equal Pay Act. The proposed bill would have amended the Civil Rights Act of 1964 to prohibit discrimination in federally assisted programs on the basis of sex.<sup>2</sup>

Green held public hearings on her sex discrimination proposal. Women groups presented evidence to support the proposal while education institutions did not attend. Green's proposal was never approved, however, it did provide an inroad for future proposals which prohibited

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<sup>1</sup>Title IX Education Amendment Regulation-Public Law 92-318, 92 Congress, S. 659, June 1972.

<sup>2</sup>Janice Pottker and Andrew Fishel, National Politics and Sex Discrimination (Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1977), pp. 95-135.

sex discrimination in federally assisted education programs and activities with some exceptions.<sup>1</sup> Thus, by late 1972, legislation existed which prohibited sex discrimination throughout the education process, including, in some areas, overlapping remedies.

#### Court Cases and Sex Discrimination

More recently, attention has focused on discrimination as an equivocal act because discrimination becomes illegal only when accompanied and inspired by prejudicial attitudes. The recent decision in Gilbert v. General Electric Co. (1976) indicates some significance as to mandate a new definition of employment discrimination.<sup>2</sup>

Gilbert represented the second time that the Court had held that General Electric's disability benefits plan was not discriminatory on the basis of sex because of its failure to cover pregnancy-related disability.<sup>3</sup> However, the Court did conclude that, if it could be shown that distinctions involving pregnancy were mere pretexts, designed to effect an invidious discrimination, it would present a different case. Additionally, certification is no longer required involving a charge of discrimination against women with respect to pregnancy.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Larry L. French, "All Things Being Equal--General Electric Co. v. Gilbert: An Analysis," Journal of Law and Education 7 (January 1978): 21. 429 U.S. 125, 45 L.W. 4031 (1976), pp. 20-31.

<sup>3</sup>"Not Like G.E. v. Gilbert," School Law News (Washington, D.C., February 4, 1977), p. 25.

<sup>4</sup>"Legal Briefs," Education Daily (August 29, 1979), p. 5.

The effect of Gilbert has been widespread. But in spite of this case, the Office of Civil Rights, in a notice dated January, 1977, reaffirmed its position that Section 86.57 of the Title IX, Education Amendment of 1972 regulations, which requires that all disabilities due to pregnancy be treated as temporary disabilities, will continue to be enforced by that Office. Because Title IX regulations were approved by Congress and the President, an assumption was made that these regulations do reflect the intent of Congress.<sup>1</sup> A similar approach has been taken by the courts in New York State where the Gilbert rationale was not controlling interpretation of state law.<sup>2</sup>

Title IX like all civil rights legislation, interpretive case law has been slow to develop. Of major concern under Title IX is the question of whether individuals' employment rights are covered or whether the administrative procedure provided by the Department of Health, Education and Welfare - Title VII of the Civil Rights Act is the only course available to aggrieved individuals.

Boyd, a superintendent said many school administrators' acceptance of Title IX is at two different levels; resignation and implementation with disagreement. This phenomenon is a hallmark to civil rights legislation. Boyd said there is usually a "pendulum effect" with passage

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<sup>1</sup>"Legal Briefs," Education Daily (August 29, 1979), p. 5.

<sup>2</sup>Education Daily, (May, 1977), p. 5

<sup>3</sup>Larry L. French, "All Things Being Equal--General Electric Co. v. Gilbert: An Analysis," Journal of Law and Education 7 (January 1978): 21, 429 U.S. 125, 45 L.W. 4031 (1976), p. 21-30.

of controversial legislation. Advocate groups, both pro and con for the legislation, point out the most extreme implications of the law.<sup>1</sup>

The impact of nondiscriminatory laws on employment can most readily be demonstrated by employment complaints filed under Title IX and/or Title VII. On April 18, 1978, a federal judge ruled in Portland, Maine, that Title IX was never intended to cover employment and HEW had no authority to issue such regulations. This decision was modeled after Romeo Community Schools v. HEW.<sup>2</sup> The case is Brunswick School Board v. California (1978).<sup>3</sup>

In 1979, an Iowa Supreme Court ruling was directly the opposite. The Iowa Supreme Court ruled that pregnancy-related disabilities should be treated as another temporary disability. The case was Davenport Community School District v. Iowa Civil Rights Commission, 277 N.W. 907 (Iowa 1979).<sup>4</sup>

A Texas independent school district appealed to the Third U.S. Court of Appeals challenging the lower courts decision that the district discriminated against 123 women teachers who were paid less than their male colleagues. The Houston Federal court ruled June 27, 1978 that the A&M Consolidated Independent School District in College Station, Texas, violated the 1963 Equal Pay Act by paying male teachers a \$300.00 per

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<sup>1</sup>Richard A. Boyd, "Title IX: Employment Practices, Grievance Procedures, and Other Administrative Concerns," A Quest for Equality-School of Education, Indiana University GAC (January 1977), p. 56.

<sup>2</sup>Education Daily (November 27, 1979), p. 2.

<sup>3</sup>"Another Judge Says Title IX Doesn't Apply to Employment Pregnancy Leave," Title IX News (May 4, 1978), p. 3.

<sup>4</sup>Education Daily (November 27, 1979), p. 6.

year "head of household" bonus for performing extra duties such as selling tickets at extra-curricular activities. The court pointed out that the extra duties were required for male teachers and assigned to males only, while women teachers were denied an opportunity to perform them.

Carl Gerig, Acting Associate Solicitor with the Labor Department, said the Texas decision, based on a suit brought by the U.S. Labor Department, is the first known pay ruling for public school teachers. Other Labor Department cases are pending, and many violations of the 1963 law are litigated by private individuals, he said.

The A&M school district has been ordered to pay \$43,735 in back wages and interest to the 123 teachers who were underpaid during the 1972-73 school year. The school district now has a new superintendent, and pay policies were changed in 1973, a spokesman for the district said.<sup>1</sup>

Another employment discrimination case on the basis of sex dealt with teachers in Texas who won back pay because they were fired for discriminatory reasons in Harkless v. Sweeney Independent School District.<sup>2</sup>

In South Carolina, the court said a district probably discriminated against a woman employee by refusing to renew her contract because she was pregnant. The 4th Circuit Court of Appeals had remanded Board of Trustees of Pickens City School District v. Mitchell to the trial court because the district implemented a policy refusing to hire individuals

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<sup>1</sup>U.S. Department of Labor, Equal Pay (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, June 1978), p. 14.

<sup>2</sup>Harkless v. Sweeney Independent School District, 466 F. Supp. 457, S.D. Tex, 1978-79.



absent from work for prolonged periods of time. The court said evidence indicated the policy affected only pregnant women.<sup>1</sup>

Most employment complaints were maternity related such as in Andrews v. Drew Municipal Separate School District et al. 371 F. Supp. 27 (1973), Cleveland Board of Education v. LaFleur 414 U.S. 632, 94 S. Ct. 791, 39 L. Ed. 2d 52 (1974), and Cohen v. Chesterfield County School Board, 94 S. Ct. 791 (1974).<sup>2</sup> Court rulings said school policies denying employment because of out-of-wedlock children were, in fact, invidious discrimination. Other rulings said board maternity leave rules were unconstitutional, thus in violation of the due process clause.<sup>3</sup>

Finally, a federal court ruled the Department of HEW could move against sexually discriminating school employment practices under Title IX to protect students.<sup>4</sup> In deference to the national trend for filing employment related complaints, the majority of complaints filed in Region VI were salary and lack of promotion concerns.<sup>5</sup>

#### Affirmative Action In Education Programs

The relationship of nondiscriminatory laws and legislation to employment can not be discussed without mentioning affirmative action

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<sup>1</sup>"High Court Declines To Rule on Title IX Employment Cases," Education Daily (November 27, 1979), p. 2.

<sup>2</sup>Citizen's Advisory Council in the Status of Women, Women in 1973 (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office, May 1974), pp. 9-10.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>"First Court Accepts Title IX Infection Theory In Practice," Education Daily (October 4, 1979), p. 3.

<sup>5</sup>Office of Civil Rights, Report-Status of Title IX Complaints, Cases filed 1976-1979, (Mimeographed), n.d.

in education programs which prohibit discrimination. Affirmative action is not a law, instead, it is a commitment to encourage equal opportunity without legal mandate.

School systems are encouraged to guard against violating constitutional rights of employees when implementing a plan. School administrators must look beyond Weber 443 U.S. 193 99 Sup. Ct. 2721, 1 L. Ed. 2d 480, 1979, as a model Affirmative Action Plan nor can they rely on Bakke, 438 U.S. 265, 98 Sup. Ct. 2733, 57 L. Ed. 2d 750, 1978.<sup>1</sup>

Unfortunately, myths surround the effectiveness of affirmative action in attempts to make it synonymous with preferential treatment and reverse discrimination.<sup>2</sup> Too often affirmative action programs are used as quota systems to keep particular people out and goals are used for inclusion of people previously excluded.<sup>3</sup>

Most recently, Title IX, as a law, prohibits sexual harassment of students, staff, and faculty. The Office for Civil Rights (OCR) Department of Education is encouraged to develop specific procedural policies which stipulate the roles and responsibilities of institutions.

"It's now the law: supervisors in government or private business have an 'affirmative duty' to prevent and eliminate sexual harassment of their co-workers, which may be 'either physical or verbal in nature'."<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>"U.S. Supreme Court," NASSP Newsletter (September, 1979), p. 4.

<sup>2</sup>Lillian O. Webb and Martha M. McCarthy, "Debunking the Myths of Affirmative Action," Journal of NAWDAC (Spring, 1978, Washington, D.C.), p. 105-108.

<sup>3</sup>Bernice Sandler, "Sex Discrimination, Education Institutions, and the Law: A New Issue on Campus," Journal of Law and Education (1973), p. 2.

<sup>4</sup>"Sexual Harrassment on the Job Now Illegal: EEOC's Norton," Jet (May 1, 1980, Johnson Publication, Chicago, Ill.), p. 55.

Attorney Eleanor Holmes Norton, Chair of the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission, issued these landmark regulations which became effective immediately. These regulations apply to unwelcome sexual advances which become illegal if

- the employee's submission is an explicit or implicit condition of employment;
- the employee's response becomes a basis for employment decisions; and/or
- the advance interferes with worker's performance, creating a hostile or "offensive" environment.

For noncompliance, agencies may be required to provide back pay, reinstate the employee, promote the employee, or comply with the 1964 Civil Rights requirement.<sup>1</sup>

### Relationship Between Professional Preparation of Administrators

#### Preparation and Age

A major area of concern for this study is the professional preparation of school administrators. Areas significant to professional preparation are textbooks and academic preparation. Thus, educational research shows that school systems contribute to the "preparation" of individuals by providing them with experiences which formulate limited goals.

No single explanation can account for widespread discrimination, but one important factor is the general acceptance of stereotypes about working women in general and women in school administration in particular.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>David Coursen, "Women and Minorities in Administration," School Leadership Digest (By National Association of Elementary School Principals, by ERIC Clearinghouse), p. 10.

Maccoby and Jacklin were concerned with how sexes differ psychologically and how this changes with age. They were also concerned with how these differences are related to professional preparation and influence on the development of values.<sup>1</sup>

R. Sears, another researcher, believes that as early as four years of age particular aspects of preparation occurs. Boys spend time with blocks, wheel toys, and tools, whereas, girls spend time with clothes, dishes, and doll houses.<sup>2</sup>

#### The School and Parents Role

External attempts to influence the schools role in career preparation for the purpose of assigning tasks has been limited. Jean Marzone challenges schools to involve parents in institutional changes, especially the fathers.<sup>3</sup> Parental impact on "differential sex role status becomes a more salient influence as the child grows older--long after commitment has been made to appropriate careers and well after the process of self-identification is in full swing."<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Adele Simmons, Ann Freedman, Margaret Dunkle, and Francine Black, "Exploitation from 9-5," Report of the Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Women and Employment (Lexington, Massachusetts: Lexington Books, 1975), pp. 145-147.

<sup>2</sup>R. Sears, In Eleanor Maccoby and Carol Jacklin, ed. Sex Typing and the Role of Modeling (Stanford, California: Stanford University Press, 1974), p. 278.

<sup>3</sup>J. Kagan, "Acquisition and Significance of Sex Typing and Sex Role Identify," In M.L. Hoffman and L.W. Hoffman, ed. Review of Child Research, Vol. 1 (New York: Russel Sage Foundation), pp. 137-69.

<sup>4</sup>Lillian Katz, Janet Bowermaster, Elaine Jacobson, and Louise Kessell, WEECN, Network News and Notes (San Francisco: Far West Lab, Fall, 1979), p. 1-2

Schools seem to convey the same standards of career preparation and sex-appropriate behavior as parents do. Schools are responsible for the provision of a variety of different role models. Still the greatest impact on sex typing is seen in the division of labor by sex.<sup>1</sup>

Kagan, Kohlberg,<sup>2</sup> and Sears<sup>3</sup> delineated career preparation through role imitation and identification. Treatments and emphasis differed for each study, but basic themes were the same. They suggest that children learn behavior, attitudes, and mannerisms by the age of three. They tend to emulate the strongest and most powerful nurturant model and individuals most like them. Parents, on the other hand, assume if they are powerful, loving, and nurturant, their children will emulate them.<sup>4</sup>

Suzanne Helfinger found that girls were more likely than boys to employ expressive justification for career choice and to respect occupations on the basis of sex appropriateness factors. Boys were more likely than girls to view specific occupations stereotypically. Surprisingly, social class background, not maternal employment, impacted on each of the

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<sup>1</sup>T. Levitin and J. Chananie, "Responses of Female Primary School Teachers to Sex-Typed Behaviors in Male and Female Children," Child Development Vol. 43, pp. 1309-1316.

<sup>2</sup>L. Kohlberg, "A Cognitive Developmental Analysis of Children's Sex-Role Concepts and Attitudes," In Eleanor Maccoby, ed., The Development of Sex Differences (California: Stanford University Press, 1966), pp. 82-173.

<sup>3</sup>R.R. Sears, "Development of Gender Role," Conference on Sex and Behavior (New York: Wiley, 1966), pp 133-63.

<sup>4</sup>L. Kohlberg, "A Cognitive Developmental Analysis of Children's Sex-Role Concepts and Attitudes," The Development of Sex Differences, pp. 89-173.

future job choices.<sup>1</sup> Thus, children's occupational preparation is preferred by decision-making opportunities in the home which allows for flexibility.

Rosemary Deem said:

Sexual divisions of bringing up children within the family, and more especially in the formal education of children carried out by schools, are of crucial importance both to an understanding of the position of women in a capitalist society, and to a comprehension of how the divisions of labor between the sexes is maintained.<sup>2</sup>

### Occupational Segregation

"Most of the 37 million women who are now working in the U.S. are occupationally segregated." They are affected by socialization and covert and overt discrimination practices that effectively limit their careers.<sup>3</sup>

Despite the gains in the number of women employed, the patterns of job segregation that confine women to the traditionally 'female' occupations have not changed. Whether one examines specific occupations or occupational groups, women are less well distributed in the work force than men. As an example, more than 40 percent of all women in the work force are employed in ten occupations, elementary school teacher being one of them.<sup>4</sup>

Within occupations, women are also segregated. In education, women account for nearly 85 percent of the Nation's elementary teachers

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<sup>1</sup>Suzanne Helfinger, "Sex Role Stereotyping in Occupational Choice: A Comparison of Sixth Grade Teachers' Attitudes of Sex Roles and Students' Perceptions of Occupational Choices," (Ph.D. dissertation, Fisk University, 1977), p. 212.

<sup>2</sup>Rosemary Deem, Women and Schooling (Boston: Routledge Education Books, 1978), pp. 51-84.

<sup>3</sup>Corinne H. Rieder, "Working Women and Vocational Education," In Taking Sexism Out of Education (Washington, D.C.: DHEW, 1978), p. 69.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 70.

but less than 50 percent of secondary teachers. In school administration, the figures are even more striking. Here women account for only one percent of secondary principals and only one-tenth of one percent of school superintendents.<sup>1</sup>

"Sex prejudice, out in the great world, is not simply a palpable barrier. It's a formidable mental block in any women's design for living. Sexual stereotyping cannot be banished by law."<sup>2</sup>

### Media Influences

Research does not reflect the answers to questions regarding the influence of media on the preparation of women. Several authors argue against the portrayal of women in the media. They believe women's roles are stereotypic and do not accurately reflect the roles of women.

The lives of women in this industrial age have been deeply marked by the imprint of the media through which social conventions of sexual exploitation have been dramatized and reinforced. The ideal women, like the ideal home and family have been presented and represented to such an extent that they have profoundly affected women's perception of themselves and of their society.<sup>3</sup>

Mass media contributed significantly to the process of life long planning. Stereotypic images of women "have permeated the mass media since their modern inception have been profoundly entwined with social developments endemic to the rise of industrial capitalist society in general."<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 71

<sup>2</sup>Harriet Van Horne, "Watch Out, Good Old Boys," The Norman Transcript, (October 26, 1979), p. 14

<sup>3</sup>Gayle Tuchman, Arlene Kaplan Daniels, and James Benet, eds., "Images of Women in the Mass Media," Harvard Educational Review 50, February, 1980, p. 108.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 109.

### Sex Discrimination and Education

Carolyn Allen raised questions concerning academic questions and how legislation affects and corrects sex bias, societal attitudes, and employment patterns of males and females. Allen investigated employment practices which promote sex discrimination such as enrollment in particular educational programs, teacher attitudes, counseling bias, textbook and instructional materials, and educational leadership.

Allens findings show that discrimination occurred in all occupational program areas and on all levels from the administration to the student. According to Allen, society reinforces and tolerates societal and attitudinal factors which contribute to sex discrimination in employment, educational practices, and professional preparation.<sup>1</sup>

### Textbooks and the Curriculum

Elizabeth Fisher<sup>2</sup> blames textbooks for the limited number of women in high-status positions. She feels textbooks and printed materials force women to prepare for an inferior professional life. An investigation of children's textbooks showed an incredible conspiracy of conditioning. Images of women are often invisible while male achievement drive is encouraged.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Carolyn Allen, "Correction of Sex Discrimination and Sex Stereotyping in Education," paper presented at Southern Region Vocational Education Leadership Development Conference, Atlanta, Georgia, April 4-7, 1976.

<sup>2</sup>Elizabeth Fisher, "Children's Books: The Second Sex, Junior Division," in And Jill Came Tumbling After: Sexism in American Education, eds., Judith Stacey, Susan Bereaud, and Joan Daniels (New York: Dell Publishing Co., 1974), p. 116.

<sup>3</sup>"Textbook Bias," Education Daily (April 29, 1980, Capitol Publishing Company, Washington, D.C.), p.5.



"An analysis of teacher training materials reveals that the issue of sexism is rarely discussed in the texts--and, in fact, the texts themselves are often sexist."<sup>1</sup>

The Sadkers postulate that sexism in schools cost girls future jobs. As an example, girls start out ahead of boys in school, but boys surpass them in high school, especially in math and science. Girls frequently receive less encouragement in school than boys. This may be contributed to their lack of self-reliance, independence, and docility. Gifted girls are less likely to be encouraged to take advance courses. Opinions of girls are lower as both boys and girls progress through school. Young women's school work declines at the high school level because they aspire for male approval. Tests for mature adults are associated with characteristics traditionally associated with males. Middle school and elementary school boys can identify career choices from a wide range while females pick careers from stereotyped career patterns. These authors cite cost to girls on an academic, psychological, physical, career, family, and economic level. However, they felt most educators are unaware or insensitive to their own biased teaching.<sup>2</sup>

Historical contributions, mental health, and career goals are ways in which the textbooks and curricular materials are damaging to women's self-esteem and aspirations. These areas are discriminatory to women because they have been systematically excluded from history, de-

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<sup>1</sup>Myra Sadker, David Sadker, and Tom Hicks, "Teacher Training Texts: Sexist, Too," Bulletin Vol. 10, No. 7 (1976) (Mimeographed).

<sup>2</sup>Myra Sadker and David Sadker, "Between Teacher and Student: Overcoming Sex Bias in the Classroom," Non-Sexist Teacher Education Project (Washington: DHEW, 1976), (Mimeographed).

picted as childish and neurotic in textbooks compared to the healthy adult. Unfortunately, societal expectations for stereotypic behavior of women will cause them to adjust to the new. "Teachers need to help young women question the authenticity and desirability of present feminine role models in texts."<sup>1</sup>

Lastly, curricular materials provide distorted views of women in the world of work. The majority of women have worked during their life time; they occupy two out of five jobs in the Nation; more women are entering traditional male-dominated occupations; the majority of women work for economic need; and only six percent of women do not work at some time in their lives. Laws and legislation prohibit overt barriers to women's advanced education and employment. Yet, the curriculum does not reflect women's participation in diversified occupations nor the fact that women work 25 to 35 years of their adult lives.<sup>2</sup>

Juershez believes that curriculum committees and teachers should change textbooks to serve the total population by scrutinizing all books before purchase, and by developing internal supplementary teaching materials.

#### Legislative Impact

Title IX for the 1972 Education Amendments excludes discriminatory concerns in textbooks and curricular materials. Department of HEW said these omissions from the federal regulations are due to a possible conflict with the First Amendment, not the lack of importance. These

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<sup>1</sup>Dorothy J. Juershez, "Bringing Women into the Curriculum," The Clearing House L (November, 1976), pp. 111-115.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

omissions must stimulate or initiate change which must take place at the local level. All districts should be involved in the changing of instructional materials to eliminate sex role stereotyping.

Nilsen, Bosmajian, Gershuny, and Stanley found that the language of courts and legislatures over the centuries has defined, labeled, and stereotyped women as mother and wife, infantile and incompetent, seductive and immoral, and nonpersons and nonentities. Analysis has been made of the sexist linguistic practices in our texts, dictionaries, literature, instructional materials, and our vocabulary. These authors show how our culture is affected by sexist language and believe that our language is a reflection of society.<sup>1</sup>

#### Recruitment, Hiring, and Upward Mobility

Differences in recruitment and hiring patterns for females and males in secondary school administration is well documented. Inadequate career preparation of women legitimizes the immobility of women seeking administrative positions.

Career patterns of superintendents support the premise that administrators are selected from the ranks of secondary school principals rather than from elementary people. Superintendents are most likely to be Anglo-Saxon males.<sup>2</sup> The criteria for upward mobility of women requires more than educational credentials. It is the belief that women aspiring for administrative positions can only enhance their profes-

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<sup>1</sup>Allen Pace Nilsen, Haig Bosmajian, H.J. Gershuny, and Julia P. Stanley, Sexism and Language (Urbana, Illinois: National Council of Teachers of English, 1977), p. 203.

<sup>2</sup>Robert Carter, "A Study of Selected Characteristics and Career Patterns of Two Groups of Superintendents Elected vs. Appointed in the State of Alabama," (unpublished dissertation, University of Colorado at Boulder, 1978).

sional careers through social awareness, collaboration with one another, establishing priorities, and appraising allocated resources and energies.<sup>1</sup>

There appears to be a wide disparity between the beliefs regarding female and male leadership behaviors as principals and the empirical evidence regarding their leadership behavior. Fishel and Pottker cite evidence that at the secondary level, one-half of all teachers are women while men constitute 97 percent of junior high school principals and 99 percent of senior high school principals. Assistant principalship positions are occupied by women at a 31 percent level in elementary schools, eight percent in junior high schools, and six percent in senior high schools.

Studies reviewed by these authors attempted to determine whether empirical evidence shows that characteristics of a good principal are sex linked.<sup>2</sup> The results were categorized according to general administration, instructional supervision, and relationships with students and parents. Findings show that women principals encourage teachers to a greater amount of productive behavior and were concerned with the academic achievement of females. The authors concluded that the achievement of female principals is higher than or equal to the achievement of male principals.<sup>3</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Clotean Helm Brayfield, "Social Literacy Education for Women Educators: Will It Facilitate Their Entry into Public School Administration?" (unpublished dissertation, University of Massachusetts, 1978)

<sup>2</sup>Janice Pottker and Andrew Fishel, "Performance of Women Principals," In Sex Bias in Schools: The Research Evidence (Cranbury, New Jersey: Associated University Press, Inc., 1977), p. 289.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

Fishel and Pottker remind us that women teachers do not aspire for administrative positions at the same rate as men do, colleges do not recruit women for administration, nor do women academically prepare themselves for administrative positions as often as men. In 1972, women comprised only 11 percent of doctorates in education administration. Women usually must have superior skills and qualifications to secure an administrative position. In addition, women are discouraged from seeking administrative positions by their colleagues.<sup>1</sup>

Cynthia Epstein supports the belief that women prevent women from advancing into administrative positions. The assumption is that some women may resent others who aspire to top-level professions. "At times these women may deride those who choose careers and even accuse them of neglecting the duties of their station in life."<sup>2</sup>

Psychological obstacles also prevent women from entering nontraditional occupations. These obstacles include the fact that certain leadership qualities are admired in men but are sometimes found overbearing in women; another is tradition and the persistence of stereotypes which do not help females become candidates for top-level school positions.

### Boss Preference

An estimated 50-70 percent of the female labor force in the U.S. may complain of on-the-job sexual harassment but ask the average women, liberated or not, if she prefers to work for a male or a female boss, and

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<sup>1</sup>Pottker and Fishel, "Performance of Women Principals," In Sex Bias in Schools: The Research Evidence, p. 289.

<sup>2</sup>Cynthia Epstein, Woman's Place (Berkeley, California: University of California Press, 1971), p. 26

the preponderant reply is male.<sup>1</sup>

Their preference is based on: 1) the chemistry of attraction which exists between members of the opposite sex, a factor they welcome; 2) men are more interesting and stimulating in general; 3) men are more accustomed to the wielding and delegation of power; and 4) men are less jealous and insecure.

Women told Shearer that women bosses are more demanding, temperamental, and were more likely to be egomaniacs than men. Men, on the other hand, exercise power more judiciously than women because they have traditionally occupied most of the power positions.

Dr. Judith Bardwick, author of Psychology of Women and In Transition concedes that men are more popular as bosses than women, but believes as women acquire more experience in the exercise of power, this will change. Few women hold administrative positions except as tokens. The result is that women's behavior is stereotyped while the same behavior in men is considered as appropriate. Dr. Bardwick compares tokenism as one of the cruelest psychological burdens for a women. She can never be sure whether behavior toward her is based on merit or is tokenism.<sup>2</sup>

Paul Sharp, former President of the University of Oklahoma, once observed that women administrators have "most of the same concerns as their male counterparts except women often have had to battle stereotypes in their rise and they place more emphasis on preserving family

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<sup>1</sup>Lloyd Shearer, "Boss Preference," In Parade's Special Intelligence Report, Sunday Daily Oklahoma April 27, 1980, p. 18

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

life and marriages."<sup>1</sup>

### Status of Women in School Administration

In 1971, less than one percent of superintendents, three percent of high school principals, four percent of middle school and junior high school principals, and 21 percent of elementary school principals were women<sup>2</sup> even though administrators are usually drawn from the ranks of teachers where women are a strong majority. A study of women administrators in New England, conducted in 1977-78, shows little change in the situation indicated by the national figures compiled in 1971.<sup>3</sup>

There are fewer female administrators over 30 years of age because administrators are now management, not teachers. This emphasis has increased salaries, prestige, and more males. "The paucity of female role models in administration promotes a circular socialization: women are not perceived as being competent to hold administrative jobs, therefore do not hold them, and consequently cannot change the perception."<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Donna Murphy, "Women Executives Studies," Norman Transcript, June 8, 1980, p. 13.

<sup>2</sup>National Education Association of the U.S. Research Report, "Estimates of School Statistics, 1971-72," (Washington, D.C.: NEA, 1971), p. 26.

<sup>3</sup>Frances W. Kelsey, "Women in Educational Administration in New England," New England Coalition of Educational Leaders, Lincoln, Massachusetts, 1978.

<sup>4</sup>Kathleen D. Lyman and Jeanne J. Speizer, "Advancing in School Administration: A Pilot Project for Women," Harvard Educational Review Vol. 50, No. 1, February, 1980, p. 25.

### Scarcity of Women in School Administration

Suzanne Estler found in her review of the literature that the scarcity of women in top positions could be attributed to one of three models: a discrimination model, a meritocracy model, or a women's place model.<sup>1</sup>

The discrimination model deals with those institutional patterns which encourage the promotion of men over qualified women. It documents evidence that a disproportionate number of qualified women are passed over in favor of male applicants; the same number of women hold credentials as men, yet the men become administrators in shorter periods of time.<sup>2</sup>

Rosabeth Kanter interviewed male corporate managers. They, like school administrators, "Consciously chose men over women because men were a known quantity, whereas they reported that women seemed to them unpredictable and incomprehensible. Men felt women were inconsistent, making communication and social conformity very important."<sup>3</sup> Kanter said these daily pressures force men to hire individuals most like themselves in an effort to minimize interpersonal conflict.

Kanter said that when there is a token woman in a management position, men change their behavior<sup>4</sup> and emphasize male-female differ-

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<sup>1</sup>Suzanne J. Estler, "Women as Leaders in Public Education," In Signs, Journal of Women in Culture and Society (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1975), p. 363-385.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.

<sup>3</sup>Rosabeth Kanter, Men and Women of the Corporation (New York: Basic Books, 1977), pp. 49-67.

<sup>4</sup>Ibid., p. 207



ences.<sup>1</sup> Women are expected to be exceptional<sup>2</sup> but not excel enough to create jealousy and to play by the rules. Other strategies used by token women to become accepted is to become visible or to withdraw. Neither of these plans work because they support men's stereotypic views of women as incompetent.

Wolman and Frank found, like Kanter, that token women are isolated when trying to become part of the group. "Women's success in integration appears to be limited and often they find themselves unable to exercise their maximum competency."<sup>3</sup>

The meritocracy model supports the premise that the most competent people are chosen for administrative positions. Implications are that men get the jobs, therefore they must be more competent. Neal Gross and Anne Trask in The Sex Factor and the Management of Schools<sup>4</sup> found, in their analysis of elementary school competence to gender, that professional performance was higher and student learning was greater in schools with female administrators.

The third model, women's place model, assumes that women occupy fewer leadership positions. Because of this assumption, careers with hierarchial promotions, such as the progression from teacher to superintendent, requires planning and commitment and is difficult to pursue

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., pp. 221-230.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 219.

<sup>3</sup>Carol Wolman and Hal Frank, "The Solo Woman in a Professional Peer Group," Harvard Educational Review 50, February, 1980, p. 29

<sup>4</sup>Neal Gross and Anne E. Trask, "The Sex Factor and the Management of Schools," Harvard Educational Review 50, February, 1980.

if one's focus should be on the home.<sup>1</sup>

Margaret Hennig and Anne Jardim questioned 3,000 women and 1,000 men about their definition of a job and career. Women associate job and career with making a living and self-fulfillment, while men think in terms of promotion, money, power, series of tasks, and prestige. First born women have greater aspiration levels than other women<sup>2</sup> but frequently lower aspirations than men. The women's place model is further supported by the lack of women graduating with advanced educational administration degrees.<sup>3</sup>

Estler feels women may not be applying for administrative positions because they have a realistic assessment of their chances for advancement. Even though women do not apply, and they do not aspire for advanced degrees as men do, there are still more women with administrative credentials than those hired in school administration.

Estler's women's place model and discrimination model best explains why women do not advance to top level positions while men do. "Few women have been socialized to have a clear sense of a career track or to develop their leadership skills."<sup>4</sup>

While the statistical visibility of women appears to be greater,

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<sup>1</sup>Carol Wolman and Hal Frank, "The Solo Woman in a Professional Peer Group," American Journal of Orthopsychiatry 45 (1975), p. 26, Cited in Harvard Educational Review 50, February, 1980.

<sup>2</sup>Margaret Henning and Anne Jardim, The Managerial Women (Garden City, New York: Anchor Press, 1977), p. 76.

<sup>3</sup>Suzanne J. Estler, "Women as Leaders in Public Education," In Signs, Journal of Women in Culture and Society, 1975 p. 373

<sup>4</sup>Ibid.

Kachel<sup>1</sup> and Strauss<sup>2</sup> found little significant difference in a student's career preparation. Leonard Goodwin found that sex-race groups had differential impact on the preparation of achievement of career preparation. Even though female students' grades are better than males, their level of expectation is lower.<sup>3</sup> This results in males' experiencing a greater readiness to plan for a career than females.<sup>4</sup> Goodwin lends support to Piels' observation made in 1977, that differences exist between males and females in their occupational plans. Occupational choices for both males and females were traditional and fell into sex-typed categories.

Females "Are hindered from competing equally with men in job performance and in achieving personal role satisfaction, due to others' negative attitudes toward their careers, and/or their greater household responsibilities."<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Douglas W. Kachel, "Psychological Study of Sex Role Identity and Personality Correlates in Relation and Academic Achievement," (unpublished dissertation, Iowa State University, 1977).

<sup>2</sup>Elaine R. Strauss, "Analysis of Change in Female Self-Esteem as a Result of Participant in the Crystal and Bottles Method of Career Life Planning," (unpublished dissertation, Northeastern University, 1977).

<sup>3</sup>Leonard Goodwin, "Race, Sex, and Perception of Experiences in School as Determinants of Educational Expectations: A Panel Analysis," (unpublished dissertation, Columbia University, 1977).

<sup>4</sup>Phyllis Perry Margonoff, "Readiness for Career Planning: A Function of Sex and Vocational Self-Esteem," Rutgers University, University of New Jersey (New Brunswick), 1978.

<sup>5</sup>Margaret Lynne Willis, "Role Problems: An Evaluation of Sex Differences for Career Women and Men," (unpublished dissertation, University of Washington, 1976).

## Relationship Between Career Counseling of Administrators

### Counselor Attitude

Among the many perspectives from which career patterns have been studied, career counseling had the greatest impact on counseling programs. Counseling programs, "Systematically discriminated against women--and educators have advised women accordingly."<sup>1</sup> Even though significant changes are occurring in relation to counselor attitudes toward male and female clients, females are still allowed less autonomy by counselors than other groups.<sup>2</sup>

Lesser designed a study to determine if significant changes in counselor attitudes had changed since the women's movement and to compare counselor attitudes towards male and female clients.<sup>3</sup>

Lesser found in her analysis of data that the majority of the counselors were married males with ten years of experience. They verbally, but not actively, supported the women's movement. The counselors' responses on the inventories were egalitarian, however, other responses on the cases were more traditional and favored men. There was a significant change since 1973.

### The Elementary School Curriculum

The elementary school curriculum in general and the counseling program in particular teach children expected behavior on the basis of

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<sup>1</sup>P.Z. Boring, "Sex Stereotyping in Educational Guidance, " In Sex Role Stereotyping in the Schools (Washington, D. C.: National Education Association, 1973), p. 18

<sup>2</sup>Elena K. Lesser, "Are We Still Sexist?" A Recent Study of Counselor Attitudes, The School Counselor (November, 1976), pp. 84-92.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

sex. "Every day that girls and boys attend elementary school, the hidden curriculum functions as a subtle force in which awareness of the male role and female role is shaped."<sup>1</sup>

In elementary schools, it has become increasingly apparent that allowing the feminine stereotype to go unchallenged may have long-range cognitive consequences. Ms. Verheyden-Hilliard contends that the failure to provide young girls with adequate academic information in math-and science-related subjects will greatly limit their occupational aspirations. She feels that a counselor's greatest opportunity for supporting and promoting new occupational choices by girls may be greatest at the elementary level. She further supports the premise that counselors should be facilitators of human growth, and must be able to understand the consequences of sexist counseling.<sup>2</sup>

#### The Secondary School Curriculum

Secondary school counseling programs refute the belief that these programs are nontraditional in nature.<sup>3</sup> The occupations chosen by girls are representative of sexist counseling which began at a very early age.<sup>4</sup> Counseling materials do not adequately represent the current

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<sup>1</sup>Nancy Frazier and Myra Sadker, Sexism in School and Society (New York: Harper and Row, 1973), p. 82.

<sup>2</sup>Mary Ellen Verheyden-Hilliard, "Counseling: Potential Superbomb Against Sexism," in Taking Sexism Out of Education (Washington, D.C.: Department of HEW, National Project on Women in Education, 1978), pp. 29-30.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid., p. 32.

<sup>4</sup>Donald J. Cochran and Penelope M. Warren, "Career Counseling for Women: A Workshop Format," The School Counselor (November, 1976), p. 123.

status of women's careers according to Louise Better in Women in Illustrations: Or Society is Myopic.<sup>1</sup>

Schools need to let children know what their occupational choices are and should encourage them to choose those occupations which suit them best. Schools also have the responsibility to be sure students learn the required skills to follow through with their choices.<sup>2</sup>

According to K. Millett, school systems are "blighted by a sex-split in its curriculum. At present, the whole field of knowledge is divided along tacit but well-understood sex lines. Those subjects given the highest status in American life are 'masculine'; those given the lowest are 'feminine' ... thus math, and sciences...business administration...aremen's subjects...and the humanities are relegated... 'suitably to women'."<sup>3</sup>

The study which substantiated this statement was reported in Sex Bias in the Schools. This study questioned counselors' feelings about women's occupational choices. They found that counselor bias exists against women who choose nontraditional female occupations. The results showed marked differences in biases held by male or female counselors against females entering a masculine occupation. "Out of a total of 79 items classified by content analysis as biased statements, only five were positive and most of these were made by women. Thus,

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<sup>1</sup>Louise Vetter, "Sex Stereotyping in Illustrations in Career Materials," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Psychological Association, Chicago, Illinois, (September 1, 1975), pp. 1-11.

<sup>2</sup>"Conference Keynotes Speak to Changing Roles of Women and Minorities," Choices: The Midwest GAC Newsletter (June, 1979), p. 1

<sup>3</sup>K. Millett, Token Learning: A Study of Women's Higher Education in America (New York: National Organization of Women, 1968), p. 14.

the pressures against women working in a field stereotyped as masculine were prevalent among this group."<sup>1</sup>

Implications for the study are that both male and female counselors counsel females into traditional female occupations. Counselor education programs should provide the counselor with an opportunity to develop an understanding of the psychosocial sex differences in females and males.<sup>2</sup>

### Counselors Impact on Career Development

Traditionally, counselors prescribe appropriate behavior for clients. They defend themselves as being conveyors of reality and not decision-makers for their clients. Yet, client self-reports contain many references about the negative impact counselors have had on career development.<sup>3</sup> For a significant number of clients, counselors provide discouragement rather than encouragement for choosing careers.

The authors quote Rosenthal and Jacobson (1968) who illustrated how attitudes about children's competency can affect performance. Thus, one's "expectations of another's behavior can be a self-fulfilling prophecy."<sup>4</sup> These attitudes can be reflected throughout the counselor's interview. Rosenthal discusses in some detail the percentages of women

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<sup>1</sup> John K. Pietrofesa and Nancy K. Schlosseberg, "Counselor Bias and the Female Occupational Role," in Sex Bias in the Schools: The Research Evidence, eds., Janice Pottker and Andrew Fishel (Cranbury, New Jersey: Associated University Presses, Inc., 1977), pp. 221-228.

<sup>2</sup> Ibid.

<sup>3</sup> Ibid., p. 44.

<sup>4</sup> Ibid., p. 45.

in the work force while emphasizing the need for counselors to contribute to the examination of unbalanced occupational distribution by sex. In this paper, the authors proposed to bring perspective to counseling bias. They gave background research, a training model, implications for training about counselor bias and sex role ascription.

### Counselors and Sex Biases

Sex biases have perpetuated the secondary status of women.

Ginzberg said:

The increasing acceptance of women as workers represents a clear challenge to guidance. The field has paid inadequate attention to women at every stage of the career process: in curriculum and course selections, in career planning, and in assisting those who seek to return to the labor force after a period of homemaking and childbearing.<sup>1</sup>

The assumption is made that counselors, like many people, have definite beliefs about sex-appropriate behavior. Because of this assumption, counselors must be aware of their own sex biases.

### Impact of Teaching Training in Counseling

Educators agree that teachers and counselors have the greatest impact on the career decision-making of women in life long planning. The impact of teacher training programs on the pursuing of nonacademic occupations for female students is being questioned. Results from the study show that teacher education is a common choice for women and that the majority of teacher education graduates have taught or are teaching. Sex--role differences are evident in the reasons why teacher education graduates accept nonacademic employment.<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>E. Ginzberg, Career Guidance: Who Needs It, Who Provides It, Who Can Improve It? (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1971), p. 318.

<sup>2</sup>Lamel, "Career Expressions of Women," Career Education, 1974.



In the past, women agreed at least attitudinally that women's place was in the home. However, recent studies have shown some changes in this trend. Women are now working, yet they occupy traditional female jobs and express uncertainty over the compatibility of a double role. To alleviate this problem, Gardner said:

Right now, in our excessively sexist society, it is unlikely that anyone without special training in feminism can create conditions which would encourage females to 'exercise their right to select goals of the counselor'. The goals of counselor trained in traditional programs can hardly be expected to do better than reflect the sexist values.<sup>1</sup>

These authors critiqued the works of Broverman, Thomas and Stewart, Hawley, and Naffziger who researched the notion that counselors practice stereotypic career counseling patterns. Their research shows that characteristic traits of a healthy adult are attributed to males but not to females.<sup>2</sup> Meanwhile, Thomas and Stewart<sup>3</sup> found that girls aspiring for traditional masculine career goals were recommended for counseling while other girls were not.

In another study, Friedersdorf examined counselor attitudes toward secondary females' career plans. They found all counselors characterized females by traditional occupations. Implications of the study are that some counselors' attitudes may impact negatively on students' career planning.

The authors' study supports the hypothesis above that counselors have biases against females in nontraditional female occupations. The

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<sup>1</sup>G. Gardner, "Sexist Counselors Must Stay," Personnel and Guidance Journal 49, 1971, pp. 705-714.

<sup>2</sup>Broverman, cited in G. Gardner.

<sup>3</sup>Thomas and Stewart, cited in G. Gardner.

results of their study "indicated that counselor bias exists against women entering a masculine occupation."<sup>1</sup> Female counselors showed as much bias against females as their male counterparts did.

"From the studies cited, it appears that counselors do ascribe roles to men and to women and that counselors' interview behavior reflects their biases."<sup>2</sup> Biased attitudes of counselors cannot be discussed without examining counseling materials.

Cole said, "The use of traditional women's occupational scales may have a severely limiting effect on the careers women consider."<sup>3</sup> Harmon's paper discussed interest inventories which contained "characteristics which may contribute to sexual bias."<sup>4</sup>

JoAnn Feldstein's study concurs with the findings above. She found in her study, "The Effects of Client Sex and Counselor Sex and Sex-Role on Clients' Perceptions and Self-Disclosure in a Counseling Analogue Study," that the counselor sex and sex-role influenced the behavior of the subjects. However, subjects' self-disclosure did not agree with these findings. Male subjects talked to feminine counselors. Both male and female subjects talked more about themselves to feminine female and male counselors than they did to either masculine female or male counselors.<sup>5</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Pietrofesa and Schlosseberg, p. 48.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., 49.

<sup>3</sup>N.S. Cole, "On Measuring the Vocational Interest of Women," The American College Testing Program No. 49, Iowa City, Iowa, March, 1973, p. 8

<sup>4</sup>L.W. Harmon, "Sexual Bias in Interest Testing," Measurement and Evaluation in Guidance, No. 5, 1973, pp. 496-501.

<sup>5</sup>JoAnn Feldstein, "The Effects of Client Sex and Counselor Sex and Sex-Role of Client's Perceptions and Self-Disclosure in a Counseling Analogue Study," (dissertation, University of Rochester, 1979, p. 175.

Thomas conducted a study to determine whether secondary school counselors respond more positively to female clients with traditionally feminine conforming goals than those with traditionally masculine goals.

The review of literature has emphasized the problem. Eyde looked at career counselors' biases when working with female students.<sup>1</sup> In 1969, Lytowski related women's career choices to existing career development theory.<sup>2</sup> Havinghurst studied the influence of cultural traditions on careers of women.<sup>3</sup> These traditional concepts supported the premise that women's work is easier, safer, and that advanced training for women is a waste of time.<sup>4</sup>

Blood<sup>5</sup>, Degler<sup>6</sup>, and Peterson<sup>7</sup> investigated societal changes which affected the life patterns of women through earlier marriages, shorter work weeks, and increased life span.

Blocker called the counselor "an agent of change who can promote human development by intervening in the social milieu in which the dev-

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<sup>1</sup>L.D. Eyde, "Elimination Barriers to Career Development of Women," Personnel and Guidance Journal 49, 1970, pp. 24-28.

<sup>2</sup>D.C. Zytowski, "Toward a Theory of Career Development for Women," Personnel and Guidance Journal 49, 1969, pp. 660-664.

<sup>3</sup>R.J. Havinghurst, Growing Up in River City (New York: Wiley and Sons, 1962).

<sup>4</sup>A. Roe, "Women in Science," Personnel and Guidance Journal 49, 1969, pp. 660-664.

<sup>5</sup>R.O. Blood, Jr., "Long-range Courses and Consequences of the Employment of Married Women," Marriage and Family Living 27, 1965, pp. 43-47.

<sup>6</sup>C.N. Degler, "Revolution Without Ideology: The Changing Place of Women in America," Daedalus 93, 1964, pp. 653-670.

<sup>7</sup>E. Peterson, "Working Women," Daedalus 93, 1964, pp. 671-699.

lopment occurs."<sup>1</sup> Blocker reasons counselors should establish an atmosphere for change, but he questions if counselors can be change agents since they work for the district and are agents of conformity.

Results from the study show evidence that female counselors give higher acceptance scores to both deviate and conforming clients than did male counselors; all counselors recommended female clients with deviate career goals for counseling; and all counselors rated clients with conforming goals as appropriate.

Jeanne Driscoll examined the effectiveness of programs designed to enhance sex fairness in counselors. Findings indicated that counselor trainees were more sex-fair in reference to women in nontraditional jobs while practicing counselors were not.<sup>2</sup>

Many authors contend the greatest deterrent to career planning for females is sex-role conditioning. Women's fear of success<sup>3</sup> and tracking into narrow role definitions<sup>4</sup> prohibit effective career planning by females. As previously indicated in the review of literature, these perceptions began at an early age as it relates to occupation and careers.

Patricia Davis of Houston Community believes, "counselors must throw out their Rogerian listening techniques," because counselors dis-

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<sup>1</sup>D.H. Blocker, Developmental Counseling (New York: Ronald Press, 1966), p. 184.

<sup>2</sup>Jeanne Baker Driscoll, "Enhancing Sex Fair Attitudes and Behavior in Counselor Trainees," (unpublished dissertation, Pennsylvania State University, 1978), p. 97.

<sup>3</sup>Horner, Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>S.L. Bem and D.J. Bem, Training Woman to Know Her Place: The Social Antecedents of Women in the World of Work (Harrisburg, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania Department of Education, 1973), p. 9.

courage girls when they don't exert a positive influence. She told the Association of Personnel Guidance in Atlanta that secondary students have maintained conservative views about careers for women. Cal Denbow, a San Jose California high school counselor, expressed the need for economics to persuade females entry into nontraditional careers.<sup>1</sup>

Studies such as these indicate that sex bias impacts negatively on career counseling. Sex bias is defined as any factor that might influence a person to limit, or might cause others to limit, his or her consideration of career solely on the basis of gender.<sup>2</sup> This definition supports the primary concern that career alternatives not be limited by bias or stereotyped sex roles in the world of work.<sup>3</sup> This definition provides strong implications for school career counseling.

#### Assessment of Career Education

John Sutton believes assessing public perceptions of the career education concept and developing an awareness of divergent opinions is critical for members of the counseling profession.<sup>4</sup> Career education has generated a response from particular groups throughout the community. Career education, a synthesis of historical and contemporary education

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<sup>1</sup>"And with New Careers for Girls," The Independent Weekly Education Newspaper 22 (Washington, D. C.: National School Public Relations Association, April 7, 1980)

<sup>2</sup>"Definitions adapted from Scott, Foresman, and Co., 1972, National Institute of Education: Career Education (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing, 1974).

<sup>3</sup>"Issues of Sex Bias and Sex Fairness in Career Interest Measurement," National Institute of Education: Career Education (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Printing, 1975)

<sup>4</sup>Charles W. Ryan and John M. Sutton, Jr., "Perceptions of Career Education: Implications for School Counselors," The School Counselor March, 1978, p. 265.

concepts," must be examined by special interest groups.

These authors conducted seminars to inform the public at large about the philosophy, concepts, and applications of career education. A needs assessment survey was administered to four separate groups. Responses from this survey have implications for counselors. Each of the groups felt there was an urgent need to implement career education in local schools; that students are not adequately prepared by schools for work; and 33 percent of the participants felt students' school programs do not assist students in making career education decisions.<sup>1</sup>

Frank Mott investigated the consequences and determinants of occupational knowledge. The study questioned the significance of a young woman's occupational knowledge score and the effect of this score on subsequent earning and occupational status are investigated.<sup>2</sup>

Findings show that counseling was irrelevant to knowledge about occupations. Instead, it was found that pre-career education information effectively restricted career options of women to traditional stereotypical women occupations. Mott also found that this restriction was true for only young women, not young men. It appears as if young men and women have empirical evidence of society's role perceptions which influence occupational decisions.

A historical overview of educational opportunity for women showed that the changing role of women gained them greater access to

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Frank L. Mott, "The Determinants and Consequences of Occupational Information for Young Women," Ohio State University, Columbus Center for Human Resource Research, April 1976. Reprinted by the Employment and Training Administration, Washington, D. C.

equality. "Women's literacy is affected by prejudice, cultural imperatives, and the absence of relevant role models for women at higher stages of academic life which discourage women from making full use of their intellectual talents."<sup>1</sup> According to McGrath, educational expectations differ for women and men because of prescribed roles. Women should be homemakers, and men should earn the living.

A study by Mary Khosh supports Patricia McGrath. "Historically, women have attitudinally agreed that women's place is in the home."<sup>2</sup> Even though women's attitudes towards work are changing, more women are employed in traditional occupations. Baldwin-Wallace College developed a career counseling program for women designed to alter their attitudes towards career development.<sup>3</sup>

#### Women and School Boards

The female board member is described as an affluent housewife and mother who does not work outside of the home. She is an intelligent, aware, and productive individual seeking valuable use of her time.

In 1975, the National School Boards Association conducted a study which showed women as 12 percent of school board members in the United States, "a figure roughly unchanged since 1927." However, the number increased in 1976 to 18-22 percent.<sup>4</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Patricia McGrath, "The Unfinished Assignment: Equal Education for Women," Worldwatch Institute (July, 1976), p. 50.

<sup>2</sup>Mary Khosh and John Grimm, "Adult Women's Career Planning in a Liberal Arts College Utilizing Male and Female Counselors," paper presented at the Annual Meeting of the American Personnel and Guidance Association, Chicago, Illinois, April 13, 1976.

<sup>3</sup>Ibid.

<sup>4</sup>Bernadette Doran, "The Feminist Surge Hits School Boards," The American School Board Journal CLXIV (April, 1977), pp. 25-27.

Shirley McCune, past director of the Title IX Equity Workshops Project, said:

In the first place, there's the general influence of the women's movement. Feminist organizations have set up strategies to enable women to run for school board membership. At the same time, the movement has enabled women to develop the confidence it takes to want to try. Women are becoming more active politically as well and they recognize that the school board is a good place to start up the ladder.<sup>1</sup>

Women have developed previous leadership skills through P.T.A., other professional experiences, and role models which prepare them for school board membership. McCune's rationalization for placing women on school boards is the amount of time they can spend and they have more governance experience than men. Thus, these women are more likely to bring concerns, such as the student, which differs from the male.

Darld Long, executive director of the Utah School Boards Association differs with this statement. The 18-22 percent representation of women on school boards is a national average, yet some states have few or no female representation. In the West, men judging power by the size of their gun is still the mind set. The Northeast is more acceptable to change, still there might be a bit of lag in attitude.

Attitudes are the last to go, and they can still be a minor hurdle for the female school board member obviously not among the constituency who elected her, but among those male colleagues who still can't figure out why she was elected.<sup>2</sup>

McCune said school board members could more readily accept female administrators than male administrators could.

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid.



## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

#### Design of the Study

This study was designed to determine differences between and among career patterns of female and male secondary school administrators. A major consideration in the study was the method for acquiring data about female administrators in the State of Oklahoma.

Female subjects were matched with selected male administrators throughout the state. The groups were matched on subjects' school population, job title, educational level, age group, and non-teaching status. Both groups were contacted by letter with a follow-up phone call to establish rapport with the subjects, determine a time for the interview, and discuss the purpose of the study.

To limit biases in the study, several precautions were taken. First, each interview was conducted by the same trained interviewer. The interview was conducted in a work environment with limited interruptions. Furthermore, the instructions for the interviews were both written and read to the subjects. Finally, the interviewer tape recorded each interview for the purpose of verification of the answers.

Delimitation of the intended population was necessary because of major differences in job responsibilities, organizational differences, and discrepancies in job description and actual duties. Twenty-one of

the intended subjects were eliminated from the study because fourteen of the administrative assistants to the superintendents performed secretarial duties and the remaining were teaching administrators. This left a sample of forty.

To assure homogeneity, the population for the study was limited to include only nonteaching high school principals and assistants, nonteaching junior high school principals and assistants, nonteaching middle school principals and assistants, assistant superintendents, and administrative assistants to the superintendents.

#### Procedure of the Study

The State Department of Education of Oklahoma, Research Division, provided names of secondary school administrators. The Professional Education Staff Summary based on teacher personnel provided a breakdown by race, by sex, and by position to identify all school administrators. Individual districts were then contacted for approval following the State Departments identification of female secondary administrators. Approval to conduct the study within their district was required by two districts from Directors of Research and Development. In other districts, administrators were contacted on an individual basis for their personal consent.

Subjects were invited to participate in the study by mail. To diminish variations in the study, the same procedure was followed with each interview. The subjects were assured of confidentiality and professional disposition of their interviews. The instructions were reviewed with each of the subjects with special emphasis being placed on the need to answer each item.

### Subjects

Subjects for this study were 40 secondary school nonteaching administrators. Due to the limited number of secondary school female administrators, middle school level administrators were included. Additionally, the population includes assistant superintendents and administrative assistants to the superintendents as well as other secondary school administrators. All subjects were employed full-time for an Oklahoma secondary school and eligible for an administrative certificate. Each female secondary school administrator was matched with a male secondary school administrator on the basis of size of school administered, academic background, age, and occupational title.

### Interviewer

The interviews were conducted by a trained interviewer with specific skills in interview techniques. The interviewer participated in training sessions prior to administering the instrument. Training focused on strategies for communicating to the subjects factual information about the study, developing interview skills, becoming familiar with the questionnaire, and developing a procedure for conducting the interview.

A theoretical and practical approach was taken to interviewing. The theory was researched and the interviewer participated in role playing and practice interview sessions. Special attention was given to the need to devise an interview strategy which produced an optimal fit for both the researcher and the exigencies of data collection.<sup>1</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>Charles A. Lininger and Donald P. Warwick. The Sample Survey: Theory and Practice. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company (1975), p. 183.

Practical suggestions were provided for conducting the interview as workable guidelines. They were as follows: preparing the respondent, the interviewer's appearance, time of the interview, entry remarks, explaining the study, and handling difficult interview problems.

"The interviewer has two major responsibilities in asking questions: developing and maintaining 'rapport' with the respondent, and following standard procedures in using the research instrument."<sup>1</sup> Guidelines for achieving both rapport and standardization were the following:

1. Always ask the questions exactly as they are written.
2. Always use the questionnaire carefully but informally.
3. Always ask each question.
4. Always avoid suggesting answers.
5. Provide transitions when needed.
6. Always know the purpose of each question.
7. Always follow the order indicated in the questionnaire.<sup>2</sup>

#### Instrumentation

The research instrument, the Survey of Administrative Career Patterns in Oklahoma Secondary Schools was adapted from the Administrative Career Pattern Questionnaire (ACPQ). The administrative Career Pattern Questionnaire was developed following approval by a panel of researchers at Southern Illinois University at Edwardsville. The instrument was pilot tested with a group of graduate students and experienced public school teachers. The final version was validated on a group of administratively certified unemployed women.

The Survey of Administrative Career Patterns in Oklahoma Secondary Schools was tested for timeliness on individuals similar to the

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<sup>1</sup>Ibid., p. 210

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 211

subjects in the study. Test items were tested and retested over a six week period of time. There were no statistical significant difference

The Survey of Administrative Career Patterns in Oklahoma Secondary Schools was developed after several revisions. Field testing was conducted in a school district comparable to the districts participating in the study in regard to school population, organization, job titles, and respondents' years of experience. Questions were scrutinized for clarity and the time needed to complete the questionnaire.

The Administrators Career Pattern Questionnaire is a structured interview individually administered. According to Wallen, "The structured interview technique requires that the interviewers follow the precise wording of the questions."<sup>1</sup> Isaac states, "Interviewer follows a well-defined structure resembling the format of an objective questionnaire, allowing clarification and elaboration within narrow limits. The interview tends to be factually oriented, aimed at specific information, and relatively brief. Structured interviews are suitable when accurate and complete information from all respondents is important and when the type of information sought fits readily into a structured inquiry."<sup>2</sup> Although the interviews were structured, some latitude was allowed for flexibility in the subjects' responses. The researcher believed this degree of flexibility was a desirable characteristic and enhanced the study.

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<sup>1</sup>Norman E. Wallen, Educational Research a Guide to the Process. Belmont, Calif: Wadsworth Co. (1974), p. 53.

<sup>2</sup>Stephen Isaac and William B. Michael. Handbook in Research and Evaluation, San Diego, California: Knapp (1971), p. 97.

### Procedure

The subjects were mailed a letter requesting their participation in the study and then contacted personally to establish rapport. At that time they were informed of the purpose of the study, and an appointment was made for the interview. The interview process began with the gathering of factual data as suggested by Wiersman in Research Methods In Education an Introduction. Controversial and personal questions were asked at the end of the interview.<sup>1</sup>

The interview was tape recorded, and in addition, the subjects marked each answer as they responded. The interviews were recorded so that they could be cross-referenced. The biographical data were excluded from taping. The subjects were asked to complete this information before the structured interview took place.

### Treatment of Data

A chi-square analysis was made of the questionnaire and interview data. The most important independent variable for purposes of this study was the sex of the respondent. Therefore, almost all of the chi square analysis were analyzed by the sex of the respondent. Since the matched group design renders the data nonindependent, the chi square formula for correlated variables were used. Since the N's were small, Yates' correction for continuity was computed for all 2 x 2 contingency tables since all expected frequencies of less than 5 can inflate chi square values. These results are presented in Tables 1-10 and discussed in the Analysis of Data section.

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<sup>1</sup>William Wiersman. Research Methods in Education an Introduction. NY: Lippincott Co. (1969), p. 275

For purposes of data analysis, two research design were possible. Chi square or a t-test between independent samples. Chi square is a distribution free statistic appropriate for nominal level data (count data usually in the form of frequencies) which fits this data. The sample in this study was small, therefore some loss of power occurred when the categories became three or more. The t-test was more appropriately applied to interval level data and some researchers argue whether Likert scaling is at the ordinal or interval level. Many researchers are taking the position that statistical procedures crunch data and are not sensitive to whether they are "the right kind of numbers."<sup>1</sup> If the distribution of scores across the 5-point scale is not too unusual, t is usually more sensitive to differences than chi square for the same data. In each instance where significance occurs, an attempt is made to resolve why chi square or t is best for that instance.

Yates' correction for lack of continuity was used with chi square analysis because the distribution of chi square was discrete, "whereas the values obtained by the use of some formulas result in a continuous probability mode. When Yates' correction was used the formula for analysis of data in this study became:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O - E - .5)^2}{E}$$

which, with df equal to 1, is significant at the 5 percent level."<sup>2</sup>

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<sup>1</sup>N. M. Downie and R. W. Heath. Basic Statistical Methods. New York: (1974), p. 172.

<sup>2</sup>Ibid., p. 197.

The nineteen Likert-type items in Tables 2, 3, and 10 on the survey were computed using a t-test.

$$t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{S_D \bar{X}}$$

Subjects were matched on such variables as school population, job description, and educational level. Sex of the subject was the only factor used to determine their participation in the study. A matched group design was used as the research design since correlation between variables permits matching.



## CHAPTER IV

### ANALYSIS AND PRESENTATION OF DATA

The data for this study were collected from secondary school administrators. A comparison was made of the interview results for the two groups studied. The data were arranged so statistical analysis could take place. The eight hypotheses were tested either by t-test or chi-square.

Data in the study consisted of frequency counts for various categories within specific classifications and or questions. Categorization is the first step necessary in the analysis of data collected.<sup>1</sup> For organization purposes, data generated by the interview survey existed in three separate categories: 1) Section I. Data relative to background characteristics of the two administrator's samples, 2) Section II. Data relative to the administrator's attitudes, and, 3) the final nineteen Likert-type judgement items on the survey. Each of these three areas will be discussed separately.

Chi-square was used to analyze Section I and parts of Section II while the t-test was used to analyze the Likert-type items. Data in Table I represent ten background characteristics of which the male and

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<sup>1</sup>Fred N. Kerlinger, Foundations of Behavioral Research, (New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, Inc., 1973), p. 137.

female subjects were compared. One item in the study, "Types of Positions Held," is subdivided into eight separate comparisons, such as teacher and coach. The statistical question asked, "Is the frequency distribution for the levels of a background characteristic for males and females essentially the same within acceptable limits of random fluctuation?" A comparison of background characteristics of female and male administrators was presented in Table I in an effort to answer the above question. For hypothesis testing purposes, we reject the null hypothesis if the probability for the obtained differences in frequency distribution pattern is reproducible by a random sampling model 5 percent or less of the time or at the 0.5 significance level. This means that if the exact probability value for the completed chi-square is .05 or less, we reject the null hypothesis. Chi-square values were adjusted using Yates' correction.

#### Test of Differences in Career Patterns

Hypothesis I: There is no statistically significant difference in the career patterns of women and men in secondary school administration.

Table 1 presents the items relevant to this hypothesis and the chi-square for each. The only significant difference was that 23 male respondents had been coaches before becoming school administrators as compared to three females. Since very few women have held coaching positions, this was an expected finding. However, each subject was previously employed as a teacher, therefore, there were no significant differences in this or other positions.

TABLE 1

CHI-SQUARE TEST OF POSITIONS HELD BY  
SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Types of Positions Held				
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Total</u>	
<u>Teacher</u>				
Female	40	0	40	
Male	40	0	40	
<u>Coach</u>				
Female	3	37	40	
Male	23	17	40	
<u>Counselor</u>				
Female	17	23	40	
Male	12	28	40	
<u>Principal</u>				
Female	12	28	40	
Male	16	24	40	
<u>Assistant Principal</u>				
Female	27	13	40	
Male	32	8	40	
<u>Superintendent</u>				
Female	0	40	40	
Male	1	39	40	
<u>Assistant Superintendent</u>				
Female	2	38	40	
Male	5	35	40	
<u>Administrative Assistant</u>				
Female	2	38	40	
Male	4	36	40	

$$\chi^2 = 20.57 \text{ } p > .05, \text{ } df = 1$$

TABLE 2

t-test of Career Counseling Reported by  
Secondary School Administrators

	Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Undecided	Moderately Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Female	6	16	1	11	6
Male	7	22	2	9	0

$$\chi^2 = 7.56, p < .05, df = 4$$

Test of Differences in Career Counseling

Hypothesis II: There is no statistically significant difference in the career counseling of women and men in secondary school administration.

Data indicated that female and male responses to the item in Table 2 were not statistically significantly different. Both groups moderately agree that career counseling programs provide information to all students in a variety of occupations. However, more females than males moderately disagree that career counseling programs provide information for both male and females in a variety of occupations. One female and two males were undecided.

Table 3 show. no statistically significant differences in the test of career counseling. Subjects strongly agreed that their career counseling had no influence on present occupational choices. They moderately agree that counselors do not recommend courses to students on the basis of sex. According to subjects, vocational tests definitely have discernable sex biases against both males and females.

TABLE 3

t-TEST OF CAREER COUNSELING REPORTED BY  
SECONDARY SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

Item		Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Undecided	Moderately Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Career Counseling influenced my occupational choice	Female	3	2	0	5	30
	Male	0	3	0	11	26
Currently a high percent of counselors in this school are women	Female	21	8	0	5	6
	Male	20	11	0	7	2
Counselors do not recommend courses to students on the basis of sex	Female	6	10	0	19	5
	Male	6	10	3	14	7
Vocational tests have discernable sex biases against male and female	Female	5	24	6	3	2
	Male	7	16	7	8	2

The majority of female and male subjects strongly agree that females represent a higher percentage of counselors in schools.

Male administrators tended as a group to show more agreement with the proposition that career counseling programs provide information for both males and females in a variety of occupations more than female administrators. The non-significant chi-square simply indicated that when no unusual distributional characteristics are present in the data, chi-square is less sensitive to differences for the same data.

In summary, there was no statistically significant difference in the test of the influence on present occupational choices. As a group, regardless of sex, subjects stated that counselors recommend courses to students on the basis of sex, that vocational tests have discernable sex biases against males and females and that the majority of counselors in schools are women.

#### Test of Difference in Career Options

Hypothesis III: There is no statistically significant difference in the career options for women and men in secondary administration.

Subjects showed no difference in the test to determine whether they were seeking other administrative positions. Table 4 exhibits how more males than females were moderately seeking employment. Test of Hypothesis 3 suggest that females more than males tended to indicate an interest in a specific administrative position by written application.

TABLE 4

RESPONSES FROM FEMALE (N=40) AND MALE (N=40)  
SAMPLES OF PUBLIC SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS ON ATTITUDES

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I am currently seeking other administrative positions.

	<u>Actively</u>	<u>Moderately</u>	<u>Not at All</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	5	10	25	40
Male	4	16	20	40

I would characterize my current attempts at seeking other administrative positions as

	<u>No Effort at Present</u>	<u>Hardly Any Effort</u>	<u>Moderately Active Effort</u>	<u>All Out Effort Very Active</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	24	4	10	2	40
Male	21	4	13	2	40

I have indicated my interest in a specific administrative position by

No Interest

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	21	19	40
Male	22	18	40

Written Application

Female	13	27	40
Male	5	35	40

Telephone

Female	3	37	40
Male	3	37	40

Informal Conversation

Female	12	28	40
Male	10	30	40

---

Significant differences were not found in the reporting of individuals seeking administrative positions nor in efforts put forth in attempts to secure other administrative positions. An examination of this data indicated that more males than females moderately seek employment while slightly fewer males than females are actively seeking employment. These data also indicate that more females than males were involved in informal conversations for the purpose of seeking employment.

Test of Differences in Hiring, Recruitment,  
and Employment

Hypotheses IV: There is no statistically significant difference in the hiring, recruitment, and employment of women and men for administration.

Table 5 summarizes relevant data which indicate the attitudes of subjects in the study. Data summarized in this table have been reduced to frequency distributions in non-ordered or independent categories which calls for chi-square analyses. The .05 significance level was established for hypotheses testing; rejecting or not rejecting the null hypothesis, which states that there is no statistically significant difference in the frequency distribution within categories on the various items between the female and male administrator subjects.

Though not statistically significantly different, the test for job interviews is worth mentioning. Data relevant to the test indicate that those who were interviewed for positions within the past five years identified at least one of the interview questions as unfair.



TABLE 5

CHI-SQUARE TEST OF THE HIRING, RECRUITMENT, AND  
EMPLOYMENT OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

---

Have you interviewed for other administrative positions within the past five years?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	18	22	40
Male	19	21	40

I have interviewed for \_\_\_\_\_ job(s). (Note: this item pertains to those responding "yes" to question 12).

	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3 or more</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	10	4	6	20
Male	10	4	6	20

The interview was for a vacancy located (this item pertains to those responding "yes" to item 12).

	<u>With Own School System</u>	<u>Outside of State</u>	<u>Within the State</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	14	2	6	22
Male	12	2	10	24

Chi-square = 1.0689

Probability = .5860

Would you identify any questions as unfair? (Note: this item pertains to those responding "yes" to item 12).

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	5	13	18
Male	0	19	19

---

$\chi^2 = 3.95, p < .05, df = 1$

There were no statistically significant differences in the number of men or women who interviewed for other positions. However, the research show that more women interviewed for positions

within their own district while the males interviewed inside and outside of their own district.

#### Test of Differences in Qualifications

Hypotheses V: There is no statistically significant difference in the qualification of women and men aspiring for administrative positions.

The test of differences in qualifications, as shown in Table 6, found no statistically significant differences in subjects qualifications. The same number of women as men held advance degrees and certifications. However, data showed a trend toward differences when questioning most recent administrative certificate coursework. The majority of females acquired their administrative certificates between 1978 and the present. Only 3 of the total population held certifications prior to 1974, yet 10 of the males held certifications. Even though there was a trend toward differences, the differences were not significant.

#### Test of Difference in Salary

Hypotheses VI: There is no statistically significant difference in the salary of women and men in secondary school administration.

The test of salaries found no statistically significant differences even though some differences were apparent. Data indicates that women salaries are concentrated at the lower and middle level while males tend to demand the higher salaries at the middle and higher end of the continuum. Table 7 shows the discrepancy in salaries of female and male administrators.

TABLE 6

CHI-SQUARE TEST OF SECONDARY SCHOOL  
ADMINISTRATORS QUALIFICATIONS

<u>Highest Degree</u>				
	<u>Bachelors</u>	<u>Masters</u>	<u>Doctorate</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	1	35	4	40
Male	0	36	4	40
<u>Level of Certification</u>				
	<u>Provisional</u>	<u>Standard</u>	<u>Total</u>	
Female	6	34	40	
Male	6	34	40	
<u>Other Administrative Positions in Last Five Years</u>				
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Total</u>	
Female	18	22	40	
Male	14	26	40	
<u>Most Recent Administrative Certificate Coursework</u>				
	<u>Prior to 1974</u>	<u>1974-77</u>	<u>1978-80</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	3	18	19	40
Male	10	12	18	40

TABLE 7

CHI-SQUARE TEST OF RESPONDENTS SALARY

<u>Salary Range</u>				
	<u>\$13,076-18,776</u>	<u>\$18,777-25,000</u>	<u>\$25,000 or more</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	16	19	5	40
Male	10	19	11	40

Test of Difference in Years of Experience

Hypotheses VII: There is no statistically significant difference in the years of experience of male and female administrators.

Table 8 shows there were significant differences between and among individuals years in administration, years of professional experience, and number of districts previously employed in.

TABLE 8

COMPARISON OF BACKGROUND CHARACTERISTICS OF  
FEMALE AND MALE ADMINISTRATOR SAMPLES

<u>Years of Administration</u> <sup>1</sup>				
	<u>0-5</u>	<u>6 &amp; up</u>	<u>Total</u>	
Female	34	6	40	
Male	16	24	40	
<u>Years of Professional Experience</u> <sup>2</sup>				
	<u>0-6</u>	<u>6-21</u>	<u>22 or more</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	5	32	3	40
Male	19	14	7	40
<u>Number of Districts Previously Employed</u> <sup>3</sup>				
	<u>0-3</u>	<u>4-5</u>	<u>6 or more</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	34	4	2	40
Male	14	13	13	40

$$^1\chi^2 = 15.41^a, p > .05, df 1$$

$$^2\chi^2 = 16.81^b, p > .05, df 2$$

$$^3\chi^2 = 21.16^c, p > .05, df 2$$

The data indicate that more females have 0-5 years in administration while males have 6 or more years in administration. However, females have more years of professional experience than males. Females have from 7-21 years of experience whereas more males have only 0-6 years of professional experience; males have more years of administrative experience.

#### Test of Differences in Promotion and Upward Mobility

Hypothesis VIII: There is no statistically significant difference in the promotion and upward mobility of females and males in secondary school administration.

The data in Table 9 indicated that fewer females than males administrators had been recruited for other administrative positions. More males than females said they refused some of the offers when recruited for other administrative positions.

Male and female respondents show a highly significant difference in individuals willing to relocate. The data suggest that fewer females are willing to definitely relocate than males, while more females would "maybe" relocate than males. All of the arguments for interpreting a chi-square with a probability value between .10 and .05 that were applied to the item, "I have indicated my interest in a specific administrative position by written application," are applied to this variable. As shown in Table 9, the differences were significant.

In Table 10, a significant difference exist in the pattern of subjects' responses. The Likert-type items were statistically significantly different. These items will be discussed separately.

TABLE 9

CHI-SQUARE TEST OF RESPONDENTS PROMOTION  
AND UPWARD MOBILITY

Most Influential Element in Career Choice

	<u>Self</u>	<u>Family</u>	<u>Professional Peers</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	25	7	17	39*
Male	17	11	11	39*

\* one person in group stated other

Have you been recruited for other administrative positions?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	13	27	40
Male	24	16	40

For those who responded yes:

How Many?

	<u>1</u>	<u>2</u>	<u>3 or more</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	7	4	2	13
Male	9	7	8	24

Did you refuse any offers?

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	6	7	13
Male	20	4	24

I am willing to relocate for professional advancement.

	<u>Yes</u>	<u>No</u>	<u>Maybe</u>	<u>Total</u>
Female	12	9	19	40
Male	22	6	12	40

$$\chi^2 = 4.64, p > .05, df = 4$$

$$t = 4.14, p > .05, df = 78$$

TABLE 10

RESPONSES OF FEMALE (N=40) AND MALE (N=40) ADMINISTRATOR SAMPLES TO NINETEEN LIKERT-TYPE OPINION ITEMS FROM THE SURVEY OF ADMINISTRATIVE CAREER PATTERNS IN OKLAHOMA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Item		Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Undecided	Moderately Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Female teachers prefer working for male administrators	Female	4	18	2	13	3
	Male	10	20	4	5	1
Secondary administration opportunities are clearly available to women <sup>1</sup>	Female	2	7	1	16	14
	Male	9	15	2	10	4
Male teachers prefer working for female administrators	Female	0	2	2	30	6
	Male	0	2	8	13	17
My school board welcomes applications from women for administrative positions <sup>2</sup>	Female	18	13	3	4	2
	Male	28	10	0	2	0

<sup>1</sup> $\underline{t} = 4.14, p > .05, df = 78$

<sup>2</sup> $\underline{t} = 2.60, p > .05, df = 78$

TABLE 10--Continued

Item		Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Undecided	Moderately Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Professional female peers provide support systems for women seeking employ- ment	Female	10	22	0	7	1
	Male	12	17	4	5	2
Discriminatory practices prevent women from seeking administrative positions	Female	15	15	0	6	4
	Male	8	15	1	8	8
It is difficult to hear about available admin- istrative positions <sup>1</sup>	Female	9	14	1	10	6
	Male	5	3	0	8	24
The attrition rate of women in school admin- istration is high	Female	1	3	2	14	20
	Male	1	5	3	19	12
This district complies with all nondiscrimin- ating laws and legis- lation	Female	14	20	1	2	3
	Male	19	16	1	4	0

<sup>1</sup><sub>t</sub> = 4.11, p > .05, df 78



TABLE 10--Continued

		Strongly Agree	Moderately Agree	Undecided	Moderately Disagree	Strongly Disagree
Both males and females are encouraged to seek administrative posi- tions	Female	6	5	5	15	9
	Male	7	13	0	16	4
The district conducted a Title IX Institutional Self-Evaluation	Female	20	13	6	1	0
	Male	22	13	5	0	0
Administrators under- stand the legal context of Title VII - 1972 Education Amendemnt and Executive Order 11246	Female	9	19	1	7	4
	Male	7	17	2	9	5
The district has prac- tices and guidelines which are sex specific and discriminatory in nature	Female	3	4	1	14	18
	Male	4	2	2	11	21
Equalization of benefits which contribute to breaking down sex role stereotyping are not implemented in this district	Female	0	2	1	13	24
	Male	1	1	3	6	29

Females had significantly higher mean responses than males to the statement: "Female teachers prefer working for male administrators." Major differences in responses appear in the strongly agree category representing 10 male administrators and the moderately disagree category represent only 5 males but 13 females.

There were statistically significant differences in the test of secondary administrative opportunities available to females. Females, more than males, disagreed with this proposition stating that opportunities are not clearly available to females.

The pattern of significance for this variable gives an example of how chi-square is more sensitive to unusual characteristics in the distributions. In this instance the mean judgment for females and males are quite similar. However, the frequencies for the undecided, moderately disagree and strongly disagree are like an interaction in the analysis variance. In this instance the frequency pattern for these three categories shows more males than females undecided, more females than males moderately disagree, and more males than females who strongly disagree. Therefore, it would appear as if female administrators as a group tend to moderately agree that male teachers prefer working for female administrators, whereas, male administrators were less certain about this variable.

The data indicate that female administrators agreed less strongly than males that their school board welcomes applications from women for administrative positions. Notice that the chi-square statistic did produce a significance at the .05 level. This result indicates that the trends in the data had no unusual differences and

due to the modest number for each sample, the statistic is simply not as power as  $t$ .

Female administrators agree to a much greater extent than male administrators with the proposition that it is difficult to hear about available administrative positions. Additionally, there are significant differences in the pattern of responding by female administrators from male administrators to the statement that both males and females are encouraged to seek administrative positions. More females than males moderately agree with the proposition, no female administrators were undecided, whereas five male administrators were. Also, more male administrators strongly disagreed with the proposition than female administrators.

There is no statistically significant difference but there is a trend toward differences in the proposition that discriminatory practices prevent more women than men administrators from seeking administrative positions. The  $t$  ratio has a probability between .10 and .05. This cannot be considered as statistically significant at the .05 level for a two tail test but its probability would be cut in half if a one-tail test was applied. One tail tests are justified if the direction of the difference is hypothesized before data is gathered. Specifically, if it had been hypothesized that women administrators would be more in agreement with the proposition that discriminatory practices prevent women from seeking administrative positions than male administrators, then a one-tail test would be proper.

## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Introduction and Summary

Administration of public education has been traditionally governed by male administrators, particularly in Oklahoma. Even though women comprise a significant number of College of Education graduates and classroom teachers, their presence is not felt in top-level administrative positions in secondary schools. However, in 1975, with implementation of Title IX Education Amendment of 1972, and other nondiscriminatory laws, school boards felt an obligation to employ more women in administrative positions.

Discriminatory practices in educational institutions have encouraged researchers to systematically examine socialization factors affecting employment but disregard differences in career patterns at the secondary level. Their findings have led to widespread acceptance of differential treatment of women on the basis of sex. For this reason, subtle discriminatory practices in school employment contributes to limited options for women in secondary administration. These limitations have had a restrictive influence on the career choices of women.

The purpose of the study was to examine differences between and among career patterns of female and male administrators in Oklahoma secondary schools, administrative assistants, and assistant superintendents.

Oklahoma secondary school administrators, administrative assistants, and assistant superintendents were selected as the population for the study. Forty female administrators were matched with forty males in comparable occupations, age, school size, and academic background. The purpose of the study suggested the sample used for testing be homogeneous, therefore, it was important to involve the entire female population as identified by the State Department of Education in Oklahoma.

A structured interview questionnaire was developed and refined in a pilot test prior to the study. The thirty-eight item survey, Administrative Career Patterns in Oklahoma Secondary Schools, consisted of two sections. Section I requested information about the participants background while Section II requested information relative to their attitudes. The questionnaire was administered to individuals in a structured interview. The interview was tape recorded to varify individual responses. This method of data collection was selected to eliminate memory deficits by the researcher. Adaptation for this instrument was made from the Administrative Career Pattern Questionnaire, which was developed following approval by a panel of researchers at Southern Illinois University at Edwardsville.

### Findings

Two statistical tests were used to analyze the data, the chi square and the t-test. Chi square was used to analyze Section I, parts of Section II, while the t-test was used to analyze the Likert-type items. These tests were used to determine if differences existed between and among career patterns of female and male secondary school administrators.

The study was designed to test for possible relationships between:

1. Career counseling of female and male secondary school administrators.
2. Nondiscriminatory laws and legislation and the effect on employment practices.
3. Professional preparation of female and male secondary school administrators.
4. Personal aspirations and career patterns.

The design of the study required the testing of eight hypotheses at the .05 level of significance:

Ho<sub>1</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the career patterns of women and men in secondary school administrators.

Hypotheses 1 was rejected.

Ho<sub>2</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the career counseling of women and men in secondary school administration.

Hypotheses 2 was rejected.

Ho<sub>3</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the career options for women and men in secondary administration.

Hypotheses 3 was rejected.

Ho<sub>4</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the hiring, recruitment, and employment of women and men for administrative positions. Hypotheses 4 was rejected.

Ho<sub>5</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the qualification of women and men aspiring for administrative positions.

Hypotheses 5 was rejected.

Ho<sub>6</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the salaries of women and men secondary school administrators. Hypotheses 6

was rejected.

Ho<sub>7</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the years of experience of male and female secondary school administrators.

Hypotheses 7 was accepted.

Ho<sub>8</sub> There is no statistically significant difference in the promotion and upward mobility of females and males in secondary school administration. Hypotheses 8 was accepted.

### Conclusions

While the mean responses did not show significant differences, there were noted differences reflected in the data collected. The following conclusions can be supported by the findings of the study:

1. It was concluded that the majority of male administrators held positions as coaches prior to becoming administrators.
2. Most of the counselors in all school systems in Oklahoma are female.
3. A large majority of subjects in this study indicated that most individuals, regardless of sex, would prefer a man as an administrator rather than a woman.
4. Women seeking administrative positions were interviewed more often than their male counterparts and they were asked at least one unfair question while men were not.
5. It was further concluded that women spend more years as a teacher and counselor than men do before moving into administrative positions.
6. Women, as a group, said employment opportunities are not clearly available to them.
7. Women said it is difficult to hear about available administrative positions in and outside of Oklahoma.
8. Women accept job offers for administrative positions more readily than males.

### Recommendations

The findings of this study support the following recommendations:

1. That additional studies be conducted testing the relationship between career patterns of female and male administrators with a special focus on the office of the superintendent.
2. Individuals employed in rural and urban schools responses differed markedly on the instrument, therefore a recommendation is made to compare career patterns of administrators on the basis of location.
3. Minorities were obviously absent from administrative positions in Oklahoma, thus a comparison study should investigate differences on the basis of both race and sex.
4. That a longitudinal study be conducted to determine if individuals who participated in the administrators internship program are hired more frequently than those who did not.
5. That teacher-training institutions design programs which will assist in the elimination of discriminatory practices in employment of women.
6. That human relations training for school administrators focus on personal attitudes and prejudice behavior.
7. That women in Oklahoma formulate networks to enhance career aspirations in school administration.
8. That school personnel participate in staff development training programs designed to change stereotypic attitudes about women and employment in administration.



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## APPENDIXES

**APPENDIX A**

**SURVEY**  
**OF**  
**ADMINISTRATIVE CAREER PATTERNS**  
**IN OKLAHOMA SECONDARY SCHOOLS**



Survey  
of  
Administrative Career Patterns  
In Oklahoma Secondary Schools

Directions: This questionnaire is divided into two sections.  
Section I request biographical information while  
Section II request information about attitudes  
related to recruitment, hiring dynamics, counseling,  
and nondiscriminatory laws in secondary school administration.

Instruction: Please check the appropriate space which provides  
correct information about you.

Section I

Sex: Male\_\_\_\_\_, Female\_\_\_\_\_

Age Group: 20-27\_\_\_\_\_, 28-35\_\_\_\_\_, 36-43\_\_\_\_\_, 44-55\_\_\_\_\_, 56-65\_\_\_\_\_ 66-over\_\_\_\_\_

Years of Experience: 0-6\_\_\_\_\_, 7-13\_\_\_\_\_, 14-21\_\_\_\_\_, 22-over\_\_\_\_\_.

Total Student Population: \_\_\_\_\_. Total Staff Population: \_\_\_\_\_.

Salary Range:

\$7,000-\$13,075 \_\_\_\_\_  
\$13,076-\$15,175 \_\_\_\_\_  
\$15,176-\$18,776 \_\_\_\_\_  
\$18,777-\$22,000 \_\_\_\_\_  
\$22,001-\$25,500 \_\_\_\_\_  
\$22,501-\$27,250 \_\_\_\_\_  
\$27,251-above \_\_\_\_\_

Total number of districts  
previously employed in\_\_\_\_\_.

Background Information

1. Indicate highest degree held:

\_\_\_\_\_ Bachelor's Degree  
\_\_\_\_\_ Master's Degree  
\_\_\_\_\_ Certificate  
\_\_\_\_\_ Doctorate

2. Current employment status:

\_\_\_\_\_ High School Principal  
\_\_\_\_\_ High School Assistant Principal  
\_\_\_\_\_ Middle School Principal  
\_\_\_\_\_ Middle School Assistant Principal  
\_\_\_\_\_ Superintendent  
\_\_\_\_\_ Assistant Superintendent  
\_\_\_\_\_ Other (Specify)

Survey of Administrative Career Patterns  
In Oklahoma Secondary Schools cont.

3. The most influential element in my career choice was: ☐ Self  
☐ Family  
☐ Professional Peers  
☐ Counseling Program  
☐ Other (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_
4. Have you held other administrative positions within the past five years? ☐ Yes  
☐ No
5. Type of positions held: ☐ Principal  
☐ Superintendent  
☐ Other(s) (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_
6. Type(s) of positions held:  
 (Indicate the order in which positions occurred, 1-7.) ☐ Teacher  
☐ Coach  
☐ Counselor  
☐ Principal  
☐ Assistant Principal  
☐ Superintendent  
☐ Assistant Superintendent
7. My most recent administrative certificate course work was completed in 19\_\_\_\_ at \_\_\_\_\_.

Section II

ATTITUDES

8. I am currently seeking other administrative positions. ☐ Actively  
☐ Moderately  
☐ Not at all
9. I would characterize my current attempts at seeking other administrative positions as: ☐ No effort at present  
☐ Hardly any effort  
☐ Moderately active effort  
☐ All out effort, very active
10. I have personally been made aware of administrative vacancies by:  
 (Check as many as apply) ☐ Word of mouth, informally  
☐ Written notices  
☐ Placement Office  
☐ Professional peers  
☐ Social peers  
☐ School administrator(s)  
☐ Other (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_
11. I have indicated my interest in a specific administrative position by: (Check as many as apply) ☐ I have not indicated interest  
☐ Written application  
☐ Telephone  
☐ Informal conversation  
☐ Other (Specify) \_\_\_\_\_

(NEXT PAGE, PLEASE)

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Survey of Administrative Career Patterns  
In Oklahoma Secondary Schools cont.

12. Have you interviewed for other administrative positions within the past five years? ☐ Yes  
☐ No

\*\*\*\*If you answered "no" to Question 12, proceed to Question 18.

13. I have interviewed for \_\_\_\_\_ job(s). ☐ One  
☐ Two  
☐ More than two  
(Specify number) \_\_\_\_\_
- (Check one)
14. The interview(s) was for a vacancy located: ☐ Within own school system  
☐ Outside of the state  
☐ Within the state
15. What were the official titles of the interviewers?  
(For example, superintendent) \_\_\_\_\_
- Titles-- \_\_\_\_\_
16. Total number of males and female interviewers. \_\_\_\_\_
17. Would you identify any questions as unfair? ☐ Yes  
☐ No
18. Have you been recruited for other administrative positions? ☐ Yes  
☐ No
- a. If yes, How many? ☐ One  
☐ Two  
☐ More than two  
(Specify number) \_\_\_\_\_
- b. Did you refuse any offers? ☐ Yes  
☐ No
- c. If yes to the previous question, how many did you refuse and briefly, why did you refuse?
- Number Refused: \_\_\_\_\_; Reasons: \_\_\_\_\_
- \_\_\_\_\_
19. I am willing to relocate for professional advancement ☐ Yes  
☐ No  
☐ Maybe

(NEXT PAGE, PLEASE)

Survey of Administrative Career Patterns  
In Oklahoma Secondary Schools cont.

For the remaining items, circle the number which indicates your opinion. Please give the answer that best represents what you think the situation to be. The response categories are:

1. Strongly Agree (SA)
2. Moderately Agree (MA)
3. Undecided; not sure (U)
4. Moderately Disagree (MD)
5. Strongly Disagree (SD)

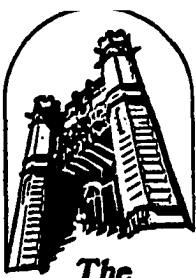
	SA	MA	U	MD	SD
20. Female teachers prefer working for male administrators.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Secondary administrative opportunities are clearly available to women.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Male teachers prefer working for female administrators.	1	2	3	4	5
23. My school board welcomes applications from women for administrative positions.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Professional female peers provide support systems for women seeking employment.	1	2	3	4	5
25. Discriminatory practices prevent women from seeking administrative positions.	1	2	3	4	5
26. It is difficult to hear about available administrative positions.	1	2	3	4	5
27. Both males and females are encouraged to seek administrative positions.	1	2	3	4	5
28. Career counseling influenced my present occupational choice.	1	2	3	4	5
29. Currently a high percent of counselors in this school are women.	1	2	3	4	5

(NEXT PAGE, PLEASE)

Survey of Administrative Career Patterns  
In Oklahoma Secondary Schools cont.

	SA	MA	U	MD	SD
30. Career counseling programs provide information for both males and females in a variety of occupations.	1	2	3	4	5
31. Counselors do not recommend courses to students on the basis of sex.	1	2	3	4	5
32. Vocational tests have discernable sex biases against males and females.	1	2	3	4	5
33. This district complies with all non-discriminating laws and legislation.	1	2	3	4	5
34. The district conducted a Title IX Institutional Self Evaluation.	1	2	3	4	5
35. Administrators understand the legal context of Title VII - 1964 Civil Right Act, Title IX - 1972 Education Amendment and Executive Order 11246.	1	2	3	4	5
36. The district has practices and guidelines which are sex specific and discriminatory in nature.	1	2	3	4	5
37. Equalization of benefits which contribute to breaking down sex role stereotyping are not implemented in this district.	1	2	3	4	5
38. The attrition rate of women in school administration is high.	1	2	3	4	5

**APPENDIX B**  
**CORRESPONDENCE RELATING TO STUDY**



**The  
University of Oklahoma**

555 Constitution Avenue Norman, Oklahoma 73037 (405) 325-1841

Consultative Center for  
Equal Educational Opportunity

July 5, 1979

Stefan P. Krchniak  
School of Education  
Southern Illinois University  
Edwardsville, Illinois

Dear Mr. Krchniak:

The research report titled, "Entry Into School Administration By Women In Illinois: Facts and Dynamics" was an interesting research report. I am currently involved in a similar research study titled, "Career Patterns of Women Administrators in Oklahoma Secondary Schools" through the College of Education, Education Administration Division, University of Oklahoma.

I am requesting permission to use selected questions from your questionnaire. In particular, questions one through three of section I and questions ten through eighteen of section II.

I look forward to hearing from you.

Sincerely,

MAE F. NOLAN  
Field Consultant

MFN:se



July 10, 1979

Ms. Mae F. Nolan  
Field Consultant  
Consultative Center for Equal Educ. Opportunity  
University of Oklahoma  
555 Constitution Avenue  
Norman, Oklahoma 73037

Dear Ms. Nolan:

Thanks for your letter of July 5, 1979 in which you request permission to use selected questions from an instrument developed for the research report "Entry into School Administration by Women in Illinois: Facts and Dynamics."

Please feel free to use the items indicated in your letter. Good luck with your research. I'd appreciate a copy of your report (or an abstract) upon its conclusion.

Yours truly,

Stefan P. Krchniak  
Professor

SPK:eh



Dear Administrator:

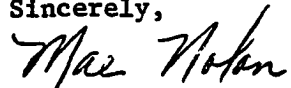
Under the direction of Dr. Jack Parker, Professor, College of Education, University of Oklahoma, I am investigating differences in the career patterns of female and male secondary school administrators. More specifically, this research study will question the relationship between career counseling of female and male administrators; the relationship between nondiscriminatory laws and legislation and effect on employment practices; the relationship between academic preparation of female and male administrators; and the relationship between personal aspirations and career patterns.

We realize your time is valuable, but it is through efforts such as this that we gain knowledge and information about existing educational concerns. It is for this reason that we request your participation in a ten minute structured interview for purposes of this study.

Results from this study will be handled in a professional and discreet manner. All participants will remain anonymous and individual responses will remain confidential.

Thank you for devoting your time, effort and support to making this study possible.

Sincerely,



Mae F. Leach-Nolan

OKLAHOMA CITY PUBLIC SCHOOLS

January 7, 1980

Ms. Mae Frances Nolan  
1301 Whippoorwill  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73120

Dear Ms. Nolan,

I am happy to inform you that your request to conduct a study in the Oklahoma City Public Schools has been approved. Members of your screening committee were:

Vern Moore, Director of Middle Schools  
Betty Mason, Director of High Schools  
Barbara Mitchell, Coordinator of Accountability and Planning

Please contact the individual building administrators to make further arrangements for your interviews. Feel free to contact this office, if I can be of further assistance with your study.

Sincerely,

*Maxie Wood*

Maxie Wood  
Senior Research Associate  
Department of Planning, Research, and Evaluation