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SEX-ROLE ATTITUDES: THE ROLE OF SCHOOL

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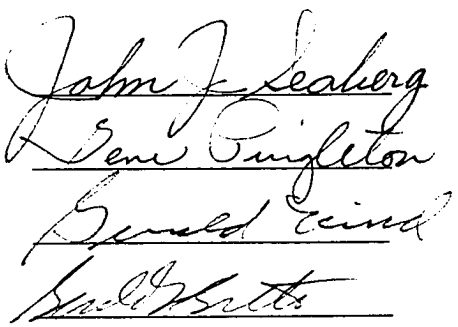

DISSERTATION COMMITTEE

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SEX-ROLE ATTITUDES: THE ROLE OF SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR IN OKLAHOMA

CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING

In order to appreciate the dilemma of the woman in the role of school administrator, the role itself must be examined. The role of school administrator is affected by the individual holding the position, the educational organization and the environment in which it exists. The social forces causing pressure on these components have a definite impact on the role and how it is perceived. Underlying the perceptions of these interactors are their standards, values, beliefs and attitudes which have been produced and reinforced by their socialization and acculturation. Sex-role attitudes are part of this socialization.

Traditionally, the role of school administrator has been seen as male, not only because the position has been over-whelmingly held by males, but also because the functions of the position and the traits of the ideal administrator have been perceived as non-feminine. These existing attitudes in the educational system fostered a

traditional sex-role orientation. Thus, the field of school administration became a male domain.

Inventions, technology and nuclear-living have forced many social changes on the population. Such changes as increased numbers of women in the work force, planned parenthood, the potential of a longer productive life span, and the gradual acceptance of diversified life-styles have caused an examination of sex-roles. However, cultural change is gradual and a society's values and attitudes are perhaps most resistant. Lee and Gropper (1975) report that:

> In order to organize and maintain these disparate functions, human societies invented the institution of sex role., not in one stroke, but gradually over the course of time. Thus, sex role is the "institutionalization" of behaviors, values, attitudes, and expectations which a given society regards as appropriate for one sex or the other. This division of function is presumed to have adaptive payoff in that it assures that basic functions are assigned to, and managed by, people socialized and trained to perform them. (p. 335)

Schools, as one of the socializing agents, present an obvious setting in which to search for change effects. An examination of the literature revealed that few changes in sex-role attitudes toward educational administration were evident. In spite of legislation to combat sexism and a concerted effort to promote an increased awareness of sexism practices, to date few women are encountered in educational administration.

Statement of the Problem

The problem of this research was: Is there a relationship in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among school board members, superintendents and educational administration students in Oklahoma?

This researcher examined representative attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or female among a random sample of superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma in order to assess any relationahip that might exist.

These questions were investigated:

1. Do school board members, superintendents and educational administration students view the role of school administrator with sex-role attitudes?

2. Is there a difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among school board members, superintendents and educational administration students in Oklahoma?

3. Does sex of respondent, experience in working with a female administrator, marital status, age of respondent, size of district, educational level or educational experience of respondent have an effect on attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or female among school board members, superintendents and educational administration students in Oklahoma?

Background of the Problem

Role Theory

The organizational setting is comprised of two components, the institution and the individual, these being of equal importance. Effectiveness is achieved through the cooperative interaction of the two. The organizational unit is the role: the position and its state

that dictates the behavior of the individual assuming this position. Roles are interrelated with and interdependent on each other and are defined by their expectations (Lipham, 1964).

For clarification, it becomes necessary to define certain aspects of role theory. The concept of "role" applies to the behavior of an individual while assuming a certain position and to the behavior imposed on him/r by the environmental forces. These expectations become attached to the position rather than to the individual (Charters, 1963).

A role expectation is an anticipated standard of behavior expected of the person assuming the role. These can be permissive expectations or preferred. They can even be mandatory. Role expectations can include personality traits desired of the person assuming the role as well as the functions s/he is to perform. Role perception is how the role is seen by others rather than the actor. A role stereotype is a perception of the role largely shared by many people. Role enactment is descriptive of how the actor carries out his/r role. Role enactment is influenced by role perception, role expectations, and role stereotypes. When an individual has trouble assuming the role of his/r position, either because of personality traits or unrealistic role expectations, it can lead to role conflict. Role conflict can also stem from differences between role perception and role expectations or from assuming two or more concurrent opposing roles. In order for the organization to achieve its goals and maintain homeostasis, role conflict must be held at a minimum. A balance must be maintained between role functions and individual needs, values and traits. The role functions are the interactions of roles at different levels and the interaction of

the individual with these roles (Lonsdale, 1964).

The Role of School Administrator

Both the institution and the individual in the organizational setting are affected by the cultural values which deal with such areas as religion, race, social class, occupation, economics, politics or sex of the individual. As value positions change within the culture, the organizational setting, the individual, and the institutional roles are affected. The organization must reflect these changes in order to survive in its environment (Campbell, 1964).

In the face of the present social change, there are those who insist that the role of the administrator has not changed. Instead new demands have been imposed on the role by the change in social pressures. However, these proponents feel the functions of school administrators have remained the same; planning, allocating, stimulating, coordinating, and evaluating (Moser, 1974). Others feel that the administrators have been victims of the shifting power structure and as such have been left without authority. The intensified pressures placed on them by school boards, politicians, citizen groups and students have left them helpless without what was assumed to be their innate power. Insufficient funds, minority groups, declining enrollments, federal courts and desgruntled school boards have caused a shift in the perception of the role of school administrator and have placed educational issues into the political and legal realm (Nolte, 1974a, 1974b; Harman, 1976).

In 1976, the American School Board Journal staff conducted a survey of principals' attitudes toward their position as administrator.

Their participation in the decision-making process was questioned. The principals felt that although this participation was limited, they were held accountable for implementing the decisions. They expressed serious concern in areas such as student discipline, personnel relations, community relations, board reactions, management skills, curriculum, and legislative impact ("The Brewing--and," 1976).

In the past, the school administrator was seen as a virtuous judge, administrator and friend who displayed paternalistic qualities and intellectual superiority. This professional one-man powerhead was an all-knowing, all-caring and self-sacrificing male ("Superintendents: They were," 1976).

In 1915 in a discussion on the female school superintendent, the American School Board Journal printed the following sexist statement written by a Midwestern school board member:

> There is much justification for the lower salaries commonly paid to women: That woman does not, and as a result [can] not, and as a rule cannot, stand the amount of hard work that a man can. Even where a woman endures the grind as well as a man, ...she is apt to take things harder. A man becomes seasoned to hard knocks, he realizes that to make enemies, to stir up opposition, to be lied about and occasionally "balled out" is all a part of the day's work. A woman's training seldom prepares her for these things and to her they are apt to mean more than they should. ("Superintendents: They were," 1976, p. 25)

Calmness, confidence, objectivity, and flexibility were delineated as qualities needed by today's school administrator. Leadership skills identified were effective communications, shared decision-making, group dynamics and creative planning (Fowler, 1975; Landers & Silverman, 1974; Thomas, 1974).

Boyd (1974), in addressing himself to the role of the modern

superintendent, agreed with Iannaccone and others that superintendents are insensitive to changing communities and to the necessity of altering role behavior congruent to present management needs.

It is felt that administrators today must have the foresight to sense the shift of focus on social issues, one of these being the changing sex-role standards. "Sex-role standards can be defined as the sum of socially designated behaviors that differentiate between men and women" (Broverman, 1972, p. 60). The self-concepts of both males and females are imbued with this stereotyping. These patterns place stress on a person's behavior and attitudes. Some sex-role studies have concluded that masculine traits elicit behaviors expressing competence, rationality and assertion while feminine traits bring forth behavior patterns signifying warmth and expressiveness. Male traits are defined as independence, objectivity, logic, ambition, decision-making skills and self-confidence. Female traits are viewed as passivity, dependence, subjectivity, submissiveness and the lack of reasoning skills. However, the characteristics attributed to the feminine personality include neatness, tact, sensitivity, understanding and warmth. These characteristics are seen as lacking in the male personality. It is further indicated that the aforementioned male traits are more highly valued by society than the female traits. This can tend to frustrate the talented and capable female. The male, on the other hand, is programmed to protect his position diligently or suffer the threat of ego loss. This places both sexes at a disadvantage (Lee & Gropper, 1975).

Broverman points to a study which Elman and Rosenkrantz

presented to the American Psychological Association in 1970. They spoke to the ideal sex-role concepts of males and females. It was reported that "the ideal woman is perceived as significantly less aggressive, less independent, less dominant, less active, more emotional, having greater difficulty in making decisions, etc., than the ideal man; the ideal man is perceived as significantly less religious, less neat, less gentle, less aware of the feelings of others, less expressive, etc. than the ideal woman" (Broverman, 1972, p. 69).

Stereotypes have a strong influence on role expectations and role behavior. There is evidence that women are judged on different criteria than men are, especially when concerned with leadership positions. It is possible that the effect of stereotyping and sex-roles are underrated. Therefore, it is important that this effect upon the attitudes and resultant behavior of educational decision-makers be investigated.

The Female and the Role of School Administrator

Helson (1972) cites a study by Epstein in 1970 which assessed the integration of women into the world of work. He described the confusion of occupational roles and sex-roles. This confusion led to women's exclusion from or assignment to certain jobs because of sex. A good example of this confusion of roles is in the field of school administration which has been predominantly male. Except at the elementary level, few females have broken through this stronghold. Some feel that social conditioning of most women and traditional sex-role stereotyping have kept females out of educational leadership positions (Bach, 1976; Flowers, 1975).

Other surveys indicate that sex bias attitudes might have some bearing on the exclusion of women from administrative positions. In a nationwide survey of 500 superintendents in regard to school boards, this sex bias was explicitly expressed in comments regarding female board members: "Females tend to get upset over trivial details; males treat board business in a more businesslike way." "Men understand finance and maintenance problems better than women do." "Females are more emotional. Unlike men, they tend to make decisions based on their feelings rather than facts." "I am a male and I understand the reactions and thinking of men better than women" (Mullins, 1974b, p. 29). A third of the responding superintendents would prefer to have no females on their boards, one-third of the superintendents claim sex of board members makes no difference and the remaining third, reluctantly accept female board members. Mullins reports that an Oklahoma superintendent felt that more than one or two female members would constitute female dominance rather than feminine viewpoint. The following comment was cited as typical:

> By and large, women on school boards are nit-picking, emotional, use wiles to get what they want, demand to be teated as equals but have no hesitancy at all to put on the pearls and insist on "respect" when the going gets rough, and they talk too much. (Mullins, 1974a, p. 28)

The number of PhD or EdD degrees granted to women has risen in recent years from one out of eight to one out of six degrees. The imbalance of men versus women in administrative positions is consistently cited in the literature, stressing the misuse of human talent (Centra, 1975; Sadker, 1975).

Since 1950, the number of women in educational administration

has steadily decreased. Females are not perceived as capable leaders especially in the area of control, as this has traditionally been regarded as a masculine characteristic (Bach, 1976).

> Consciously or otherwise, someone has practiced sex discrimination in selecting educational leaders for the country's school districts, because women, who comprise a majority (66.4 percent) of all districts' professional (teaching) staffs, are barely visible in top posts as heads of districts (.1 percent) or of schools (13.3 percent). (Timpano, 1976, p. 19)

It has been observed that it takes women longer to move into higher positions and that their qualifications must be more impressive than their male competitors' in order to be promoted. Women are rarely urged by their superiors to prepare themselves for administration and those who seek to enter this field are regarded with hostility by the educational leaders. Even in the business world women find it difficult to advance. Although females account for almost 40 percent of the total labor force, only 2.3 percent of these are in the $25,000 salary range (Bach, 1976; Collins, 1976; Hennig & Jardim, 1977).

Hennig and Jardim asserted that:

> The reasons . . . are far more complex than simple bias among male executives or "fear of success" among women. While equal employment laws can regulate formal personnel policies, making those laws work requires a knowledge of the informal relationships. . . . For the most part, these organizations were built by men and for men, and are now controlled by men. The forms, rules and styles of behavior and communication among their executives grow out of a distinctly male culture. (p. 76)

The "good old boy" concept permeates the educational organizational environment and the resulting sex discrimination seems evident (Hennig & Hardim). Statistics recently quoted by Cirincione-Coles (1975) show that 78% of the national elementary principalships are

held by males. Ninety-eight and six-tenths percent of the high school principals and 99.9% of the superintendents are males. Ninety-three percent of the deputy, associate or assistant superintendents are also males, as are 90% of the school board members. Only 7% of the boards have more than two women members. No women are found serving on school boards in 39% of those reporting to the National School Board Association (NSBA) while 34% have only one. The NSBA Commission on the Role of Women in Educational Governance found that "those relatively few women who do serve on school boards are as well or better educated than their male counterparts, and that more women (69.7 percent) have served on boards of other organizations" ("It's 'no accident', 1974, p. 53).

Data from the Superintendents' Annual Teacher Personnel Report to the Oklahoma State Department of Education, 1976-77 show that in Oklahoma 100% of the superintendents, deputy, associate and assistant superintendents are males, 97% of the high school administrators are males, and 97% of the junior high school administrators are males. The smallest percentages appear in the ranks of elementary administrators which show 81% males, and in the field of middle school administration where 82% of the positions are held by males. The total number of female administrators has increased in the past four years from 86 to 119½. However, the total number of administrators in Independent school districts in Oklahoma has increased from 1,531 to 1,724½ in the same four years (see Tables 1, 2, 3, and 4). Thirty-six of the Independent school districts in Oklahoma show female administrators at present or in the past three years. According to available figures from the Oklahoma State School Boards Association (OSSBA), in 1976 approximately 91% of Oklahoma's school board members were male.

Table 1

Distribution by Gender of Oklahoma Public School Administrators in Independent School Districts 1973-74

Type of Administrator	Males	Females	Total[a]
Superintendents	451	0	451
Asst. Superintendents	54	0	54
Senior High Principals	202	0	202
Asst. Senior High Principals	102	4	106
Junior High Principals	145	2	147
Asst. Junior High Principals	71	1	72
Middle School Principals	5	0	5
Asst. Middle School Principals	5	2	7
Elementary School Principals	398	69	467
Asst. Elementary School Principals	12	8	20
	1445	86	1531

Note. Figures from the annual Teacher Personnel Report, State Department of Education.

[a]Figures have been changed where mistakes were detected and verified.

Table 2

Distribution by Gender of Oklahoma Public School Administrators in Independent School Districts 1974-75

Type of Administrator	Males	Females	Total[a]
Superintendents	453	0	453
Asst. Superintendents	59	0	59
Senior High Principals	203	2	205
Asst. Senior High Principals	111	2	113
Junior High Principals	129	3	132
Asst. Junior High Principals	79	1	80
Middle School Principals	22	1	23
Asst. Middle School Principals	9	2	11
Elementary School Principals	470	66	536
Asst. Elementary School Principals	13	5	18
	1548	82	1630

Note. Figures from the annual Teacher Personnel Report, State Department of Education.

[a]Figures have been changed where mistakes were detected and verified.

Table 3

Distribution by Gender of Oklahoma Public School Administrators in Independent School Districts 1975-76

Type of Administrator	Males	Females	Total[a]
Superintendents	455	0	455
Asst. Superintendents	68	0	68
Senior High Principals	215	2	217
Asst. Senior High Principals	126	2	128
Junior High Principals	125	3	128
Asst. Junior High Principals	69	3½	72½
Middle School Principals	36	3	39
Asst. Middle School Principals	21	3	24
Elementary School Principals	424	76	500
Asst. Elementary School Principals	14	6	20
	1553	98½	1651½

Note. Figures from the annual Teacher Personnel Report, State Department of Education.

[a]Figures have been changed where mistakes were detected and verified.

Table 4

Distribution by Gender of Oklahoma Public School Administrators in Independent School Districts 1976-77

Type of Administrator	Males	Females	Total[a]
Superintendents	457	0	457
Asst. Superintendents	73	0	73
Senior High Principals	239	3	242
Asst. Senior High Principals	132	7½	139½
Junior High Principals	111	4	115
Asst. Junior High Principals	62	2	64
Middle School Principals	48	3	51
Asst. Middle School Principals	17	9	26
Elementary School Principals	449	85	534
Asst. Elementary School Principals	17	6	23
	1605	119½	1724½

Note. Figures from the annual Teacher Personnel Report, State Department of Education.

[a]Figures have been changed where mistakes were detected and

These statistics show that despite the recent anti-discriminatory laws and regulations, and the efforts of the women's movements, females have made few inroads in the field of educational administration both nationally and in Oklahoma. Federal anti-sexism legislation came to the aid of the woman when Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 became effective in 1972 prohibiting discrimination in employment practices on the basis of sex, race, color, religion or national origin. The Equal Pay Act of 1963 was extended in 1974 to government employees at all levels. In 1975, the regulations for Title IX of the Educational Amendments of 1972 came into effect prohibiting discrimination toward professional or non-professional employees or students on the basis of sex. However, these governmental actions have not caused rapid changes in the administrative ranks of the educational community (Lepper, 1975; "Here are the anti-sexism," 1976).

The support of professional organizations seems to have had little impact. At a 1975 National Association of Secondary School Principals convention, a resolution was passed to prohibit discrimination on the basis of sex (Barnes, 1976). The National School Boards Association unanimously passed a resolution at their 1974 convention urging state school board associations and local school boards to work toward increasing the number of women school board members. They also went on record as supporting school policies which insured equal opportunity for female employees and students. The assembly, however, went on record as opposing the Equal Rights Amendment ("It's no accident," 1974).

Many of the traditional assumptions which attempted to explain the absence of females in the field of school administration are still given credence today. Many have been disproved. Day and Stogdill's study in 1972

concluded that supervisors whether male or female holding the same level position and fulfilling the same functions exhibited comparable leadership skills and effectiveness.

Cirincione-Coles (1975) quotes several studies which have dispelled some of these myths:

1. In 1960, Newell conducted a study which indicated that female elementary school principals were more aware of the instructional process than male elementary school principals.

2. In 1959, Barter's survey showed equal ability and personal qualities in male and female administrators. It also indicated that, generally, males who had taught in schools administered by women were more favorable toward women administrators than men who had not taught under women principals , and that women teachers felt more comfortable with women principals than male teachers did.

3. Hemphill, Griffiths and Frederickson (1962) found in their research that male principals did not outrate females in performance. Women scored higher than men in ability to work with others. They possessed greater instructional knowledge and could obtain positive relations with subordinates and superordinates.

Cirincione-Coles also quoted Department of Labor figures to combat the belief that women do not remain long in the labor force, and that they are merely "hobby teachers." Their figures showed that during a lifetime men have more job changes than women and that married women at age 35 have an average work-life expectancy of 24 years. In its 1976 survey of women workers, the U.S. Department of Labor reported that two out of every five workers are women and that they are found in varied occupations. Still, their figures showed that 78% of all clerical workers are women,

while females represent only one-fifth of those in management or administration. According to this report, more women are employed today. Still their earnings do not equal those of the males. More women are heads of households than in 1950 and more women are by necessity supplementing the household income ("Women in the work force," 1977).

The socialization of women has caused most of them to believe that men and women have different functions and roles in life. Most females believe they have been assigned the role of being submissive, dependent, non-aggressive and emotional. The division of labor placed woman in the home in the role of mother and homemaker. So their achievement desires usually had to be satisfied vicariously. Schlossberg (1974) quotes from a paper delivered by Jean Lipham-Blumen at a meeting of the Eastern Sociological Society, New York, April 13, 1973. Lipman-Blumen's description of the vicarious achievement ethic follows:

> Whereby women are channeled into indirect achievement, low status occupational roles. To experience achievement satisfaction through the accomplishments of another individual is the essence of the vicarious achievement ethic. This ethic directs women into traditionally feminine roles by indicating the appropriateness of indirect achievement through helping, supporting, nurturing. This is reflected in the occupational distribution of women in the labor force. (p. 260)

Schlossberg contends that should an achievement-oriented woman venture out into the work world, she probably would have to deal with the presumption of the superiority of male leadership. It is likely she will experience role conflict.

> Socialization is successful when the individual produces no undue tensions and frictions within the group. From the point of view of the individual, success is a matter of achieving individual goals in relation to the multiplicity of institutionalized attitude patterns. (Remmers, 1954, p. 14)

Cultural standards change slowly. According to Remmers, individuals collectively tend to glorify society's merits and to ignore its shortcomings. Experts in the field of psychology and social sciences portend that peoples' views and feelings about their world (attitudes) have a direct bearing on their behavior. This belief supports the importance of attitude measurement.

Definitions

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

School administrator. One who holds an administrative position in a public school which requires him/r to have a principal's or superintendent's certificate. (Principal, Assistant Principal, Superintendent, Assistant Superintendent, Associate Superintendent, or Deputy Superintendent)

School board member. One who is duly elected to serve on the board of education of any Independent school district in Oklahoma.

Educational administration student. One who is enrolled in a principal's or superintendent's certificate program or one who is enrolled in a doctoral program in educational administration.

Age. Young: under 34; Middle years: 34 to 49 years; Older: 50 or over.

Experience. New: (For School board member) less than two years; (For Superintendent) less than 10 years; Experienced: (For School board member) two to six years; (For Superintendent) 10 to 16 years; Veteran: (For School board member) seven or more years; (For Superintendent) 17 or more years.

Size of district. Small: Up to 59 teachers; Medium-sized: 60 to 99 teachers; Large: 100 or more teachers.

Hypotheses

H_{o1}: There is no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among the total group of school board members, superintendents and educational administration students in Oklahoma.

H_{o2}: There is no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among school board members, superintendents and educational administration students in Oklahoma.

H_{o3}: There is no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among school board members and superintendents who have worked with a female administrator and those who have not worked with a female administrator.

H_{o4}: There is no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among male and female school board members, superintendents and educational administration students in Oklahoma.

H_{o5}: There is no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among young, middle years or older school board members, superintendents, and educational administration students in Oklahoma.

H_{o6}: There is no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female

among school board members and superintendents of small, medium-sized and large school districts in Oklahoma.

H_{o7}: There is no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among school board members, superintendents and educational administration students in Oklahoma having less than a high school diploma, a high school diploma, a Bachelors degree, a Masters degree or a Doctors degree.

H_{o8}: There is no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among new, experienced or veteran school board members, superintendents, and educational administration students in Oklahoma.

Summary

Do the persons in the educational environment who are responsible for the hiring of school administrators and those preparing for these positions view the role of school administrator with sex-role attitudes? Could this be one reason for few women in educational leadership positions? If the role of school administrator is not seen to be sex-role oriented, then attitudes could be discounted as a reason for the lack of many women in higher educational posts. If the attitudes of those influencing the educational climate show a negative reaction to the role when filled by a female, then some effort toward attitude change needs to be made as, indeed, there might be a possible relation between attitudes and the reluctance to hire women for administrative positions in education.

"Certainly this image of women--as individuals with brains,

talents, and capacities for leadership that need development and education for their own sake--ought to be far more obvious in education than it is today" (Alexander, 1975, p. 325). Repeatedly, the educational system is cited as one of the most important arenas in which to equalize this disparity of the sexes. The elimination of job stereotyping is seen as one of the responsibilities and functions of the schools as builders and molders of the American culture. Instead, the educational system is continually chastised for its own subtle bias and indifference to the problem of sex-role stereotyping (Fantini, 1975; Pierce, 1974; Reha & Nappi, 1975).

This study was conducted to appraise the educational attitudinal component in order to ascertain some dimensional qualities of any existing sex-role biases, since the operational administrative behavior in Oklahoma appeared to display some traditional sex-role stereotyping. Using a semantic differential, the representative attitudes among a random sampling of school board members, superintendents, and educational administration students toward the male or female occupying the role of school administrator were surveyed. A review of related studies is presented in the following chapter. Succeeding chapters discuss the theoretical basis for this research, the methodology used for the study, the data collected and its statistical analysis, and summarize the findings and proffer recommendations.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

Literature Related to Sex-Role Stereotyping of Leadership Behavior

In a treatise on leadership behavior of the sexes, Chapman and Luthan (1975) cite several studies on conflicting behavior which produced data indicating that males and females have different leadership behaviors.

1. In Steiner and Rogers (1963) study, females were more tolerant of conflict when considering constraints in decision-making.

2. Vinacke and Gullickson (1964) found that when engaged in competition, women tended to work cooperatively to achieve the group's goal, while men formed groups to gain personal advantage.

3. In a self-evaluation study conducted by Bennett and Cohen (1959), the women described themselves as proper, giving, controlled, democratic, etc. Males, on the other hand, felt they were ambitious, unyielding and gutsy.

4. Exline (1962) surveyed interpersonal patterns of women leaders and assessed that women's communications were significantly more people-oriented than men's communications. In a follow-up study, it was discovered that females interacted significantly more than males.

5. Bass, Krusel, and Alexander (1971) researched work-group acceptance and discovered that males do not provide this support for women co-workers. The study showed that male managers regard women as undesireable and undependable workers because they have different motives, skills and habits. These males felt that different societal rules govern male and female behavior and that women would prefer to work under male supervision.

6. Rosen and Jerdee (1974) found in their investigation that managers expect job-priority from males and family-priority from females. If an employee's job were threatened due to personal conduct, these managers indicated they would give greater support to equally qualified males than to females. Bias in favor of males was shown in selection, promotion and support given.

Studies dealing with sex-role stereotyping were discussed in a presentation by Mednick and Tangri (1972). They cite from a study by Gump (1972) which noted that women who do not adhere to the traditional sex-role are found to be psychologically stronger. Other studies, including one by Tangri, are in agreement with these findings. These researchers conclude that achievement-oriented women do not choose between two roles, career and home, but rather choose a dual role. A study conducted in Finland corroborates this view. Male attitudes revealed acceptance of careers for women as long as the major responsibility for the home and family was maintained.

McMillin (1975) proposed three explanations for few women administrators. First, he pointed to studies by Cohen (1971) and Ollman (1970) which supported that equal advancement opportunities

for both sexes are rare. His second proposal, that of sex-role stereotyping, found its strength in the findings of studies by Holm (1970) and Westerwelt (1970). McMillan's own research affirmed his third contention that women's leadership goals are affected by their career commitment. The findings reflected men's ready acceptance of leadership roles in contrast to women who were more reluctant to accept these roles although the capabilities were not lacking. This was especially true with women who did not have a deep career commitment.

Literature Related to Women in School Administration

As early as 1957, Cibik conducted a study of the backgrounds, duties and responsibilities of women high school principals in the United States. The study showed that the women were ill-prepared for the leadership required by their position. Nevertheless, they manifested maturity and stability, remaining in their administrative posts longer. In 1964, in a study of 20 secondary schools with women principals, Krause reported that women teachers were more favorable than men teachers toward female principals and that this favorableness increased with number of years experience. His study showed positive reaction on dedication and organizational ability. But, general concern was shown on discipline. Burns (1964) conducted research on female educational leadership in California public schools. The findings showed that most women were in staff positions rather than top level administrative posts. Low motivation was also indicated.

Meskin (1974) presented a review of studies dealing with women school administrators which included the following:

1. In 1952, the Florida Leadership Project involving both high

school and elementary principals attempted to identify three types of leadership styles, democratic, authoritarian and laissez-faire. The findings showed that women seemed to be more democratic and more effective in administrative practices.

2. In Michigan, Barter sought out elementary school personnel for her 1959 study on women's administrative abilities. She found that although women administrators were few in numbers, they were rated equally with males in abilities. Most women teachers were favorable toward working with female administrators as were men who had worked with female administrators. She also discovered that men were better prepared to move into administrative positions than women.

3. A comparative study of male and female elementary school principals conducted by Gross and Trask in 1964, stemmed from the National Principalship Study, Harvard. That study showed that women principals were rated higher in administrative performance than men principals, that women principals created a climate more conducive to professionalism than men principals, and that as a result of this professionalism, the students performed better academically. Other results showed women principals exhibited more interest in each child and his/r psychological and social development than did men principals. Women principals seemed to be more objective in evaluating teachers and were more supervisory than male principals. Two areas showed no difference in administrative performance by sex of principal; community involvement and teacher relations.

A landmark study was the research conducted by Warwick (1967) in which attitudes toward women in administrative posts were examined.

The conclusions claimed: (a) favorable attitudes by females toward women in administrative positions, (b) neutral to favorable attitudes by males toward women in administrative positions, (c) ambiguous administrative appointment policies and prejudiced and discriminatory administrative appointments were indicated, (d) women must possess superior qualifications to be considered for administrative posts, and (e) women have low aspirations for administrative positions. Lemon's (1968) study of school board members, administrators and teachers reinforced the view that females appear willing to work with female administrators. Teachers showed greater willingness to work with female administrators than did male administrators or school board members. A study by Zimmerman (1971) of women in central office administrative positions agreed with Warwick's conclusion that women show little interest in preparing for administrative posts.

Following Warwick's lead and using Warwick's attitude instrument and an opinion questionnaire, Taylor (1971) examined attitudes of superintendents and school board members in Connecticut toward the employment of women as school administrators. The findings showed: (a) that female school board members had more favorable attitudes toward the employment of women as school administrators than did male school board members and superintendents, and (b) that male school board members who had worked for a female administrator were more favorable toward the employment of female school administrators than those who had not worked for a woman administrator. Tipple's (1972) work on sex discrimination in school administration reiterated the lack of professionally trained females to move into leadership positions.

In 1973, six different studies examined the problem of the female and school administration (Crosby; Matheny; Neidig; Peterson; Scriven; Timmons). These studies pointed out that:

1. Discrimination practices in hiring exist.

2. Females are more acceptable at the elementary administrative level than at the superintendency level.

3. Female attitudes toward women administrators are not unfavorable.

4. It is more difficult for women with equal qualifications as men to advance.

5. There is no evidence of encouragement for women to train for administrative positions by superiors or colleges of education.

In Neidig's study, there was a significant difference between male board members and female board members: male members felt that women were not emotionally or physically suited for administrative posts although female members did not agree; female members responded they would hire women for the superintendency but male members responded negatively.

Schreiber's (1977) dissertation research in 1971 investigated the promotion policies of East Coast School districts. Her investigation disclosed that New York City school district was an exception to the sex bias exhibited by other districts within the area of promotions. This was attributed to the practice of promoting on the basis of a competitive examination. In 1974, Schreiber replicated her study. At this time, decentralization had taken place in New York City and competitive examinations were dropped. Statistics exhibited that there

was a 29% reduction in female administrators during the interim. This second inspection of sex discrimination in promotion policies revealed that respondents felt equal promotion practices for the sexes no longer existed. Women felt that their competence was not being considered. The Office for Civil Rights of the Department of Health, Education and Welfare allowed New York City schools three months to correct the discriminatory practices.

Wain's (1975) research on teacher attitudes toward women administrators produced findings that agreed with previous investigators Cibik, Krause and Warwick. Stressed was the feeling that teachers expressed concerning the obstacle of traditional attitudes and practices. The conclusions of the study revealed that teacher respondents felt they had no encouragement or support in preparing themselves for advancement. There appeared to be no difference in aspirations between men and women teachers, although fewer women were certified or in preparation programs for certification.

In 1975, Koelsch concluded from his research on career choice in educational administration that individuals take little interest in this career field because of the emphasis on the tedious chores, the decrease in administrative authority and autonomy, and the irrelevant administration preparation programs.

Summary

Recurring statements emerge from these studies; (a) the prevalence of discrimination in hiring and promotion practices, (b) social attitudes as the biggest obstacle to the promotion of women,

(c) few women prepared for administration and not many willing to prepare themselves, and (d) the laxity of Higher Education in recruiting, encouraging and preparing females for leadership roles.

The studies cited in this chapter were selected to prepare a foundation for this research; the assessment of the attitudes toward school administrator whether male or female.

CHAPTER III

THEORETICAL FOUNDATION

Attitude Theory

In his treatise of attitudes and attitude measurement, Lemon (1973) states that definitions abound in the world of attitude theory. They vary according to the theorist's conceptualization of attitudes. Greenwald (1968) cites Allport's definition which speaks to the readiness to respond as does Smith, Bruner and White's definition:

> An attitude is a mental and neural state of readiness, organized through experience, exerting a directive or dynamic influence upon the individual's response to all objects and situations with which it is related (Allport, 1935).
>
> . . . an attitude is a predisposition to experience, to be motivated by, and to act toward, a class of objects in a predictable manner (Smith, Bruner, & White, 1956). (p. 362)

These definitions place an emphasis on the discriminative function while placing little stress on the conditioned stimulus function, that the response to the stimulus might be emotional. Greenwald compares definitions which refer to the affective function conceiving attitude as focusing on the conditioned stimulus function. Thurstone (1931) and Doob (1947) were given as examples of these theorists:

> Attitude is the affect for or against a psychological object (Thurstone, 1931).

> Attitude is . . . an implicit, drive-producing response considered socially significant in the individual's society (Doob, 1947). (p. 362)

Osgood, Suci, and Tannebaum; Sarnoff; and Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey place equal stress on a readiness to respond and an evaluative predisposition in their definitions as quoted by Greenwald:

> [Attitudes] are predispositions to respond, but are distinguished from other such states of readiness in that they predispose toward an evaluative response (Osgood, Suci & Tannebaum, 1957).
>
> [An attitude is] a disposition to react favorable or unfavorable to a class of objects (Sarnoff, 1960).
>
> . . . attitudes [are] enduring systems of positive or negative evaluations, emotional feelings, and pro or con action tendencies with respect to social objects (Krech, Crutchfield, & Ballachey, 1962). (p. 362)

Krech, Crutchfield and Ballachey; Insko and Schopler (1967); and Rosenberg and Hovland (1960), among others are mentioned by Greenwald (1968) as visualizing the attitudinal model to include three components; (a) affect or emotions, (b) cognition or beliefs and opinions, and (c) behavior or action tendencies. Attitude definitions mainly fall into these three groups; (a) the conditioned stimulus function (emotional response), (b) the discriminative stimulus function (positive or negative evaluation) or (c) the three stimulus function (emotion, cognition and action tendencies). Sherif and Sherif (1967) suggest that a judgment process interacts with attitudes in resultant behavior. Thus, their definition states:

> Operationally, an attitude may be defined as the individual's set of categories for evaluating a stimulus domain, which he has established as he learns about that domain in interaction with other persons and which relate him to various subsets within the domain with varying degrees of positive or negative affect. (p. 115)

At best, authorities seem to agree that attitude theory is complex and that this psychological construct is interrelated with various other constructs such as habits, traits, beliefs, etc. (Greenwald, 1968). Remmers (1954) states that the study of attitudes has become a concern of psychologists for "attitudes are theoretically a component of all behavior, overt or covert" (p. 3). Diab (1967) advises that attitude is a salient component in the explanation and prediction of behavior. He relates this ability to the assumptions that the attitude measurement technique is valid and to the relational proportion of ego-involvement in the issue being measured. Predictability of behavior, according to Diab, depends on the ratio of these two assumptions to the attitudes in question.

> The major ego-attitudes and hence the ego are derived primarily from the values of the group or groups with which we identify ourselves. The very character of identification is built upon the basis of attitudes formed in relation to the person, group or institution. The continuing process of our personal identity consists mainly of the constellation of established attitudes in relation to groups and individuals. (Hartley, 1967, p. 97)

Coupled with other concepts, such as motives, ideals, standards, values, and others, is a system of social attitudes, a composite of individuals' attitude constructs. These social attitudes as seen by the individual have a bearing on his/r own pattern of conduct.

> At any given time, individual differences in attitude can be gauged relative to the regularities and patterns of social organization, the current patterns of acceptability and rejection, and their changes. In fact the individual's attitudes must be gauged relative to the stands taken by others in his own group and in other groups. (Sherif & Sherif, 1967, p. 111)

Characteristics of attitudes include classical conditioning, assumed to occur in reward or punishment situations. That attitudes

are learned is a characteristic identified by Sherif and Sherif (1967). Eysenck (1960) proposed a third characteristic, that of a genetic derivative.

Lemon (1973) reports Cohen's (1965) explanation of the role of attitudes in the social sciences as being one of interaction with social structural factors and behavior. Social structural factors can be identified as the ways of life, the interrelationships of individuals and groups, and the society's value system. In order to view attitudes in this context, it is necessary to accept two assumptions; (a) that attitudes tend to maintain stability even when faced with social change and (b) that attitudes and social structural forces vary independently. The complexity of the interrelationship and the interdependency of these elements affect the model. Social structural factors, which are themselves inferences from behavior affect the formation and the reinforcement of attitudes. Cohen proposes a type of relationship among these three components in which both attitudes and social structural factors influence behavior independently and jointly. If Cohen's explanation of the relationship is accepted, then the problem of the female school administrator could be conceptualized as shown in Figure 1. "It is . . . where attitudes are resistant to change, and where there is some conflict between attitudes and structural factors, that the real importance of attitude in social science becomes most apparent" (Lemon, 1973, p. 8).

In Lemon's summary of attitude theory, the nature of attitudes is described as having components, characteristics and functions. The functions are explained as follows; (a) utilitarian function which identifies with needs fulfillment and relationship of self with individuals

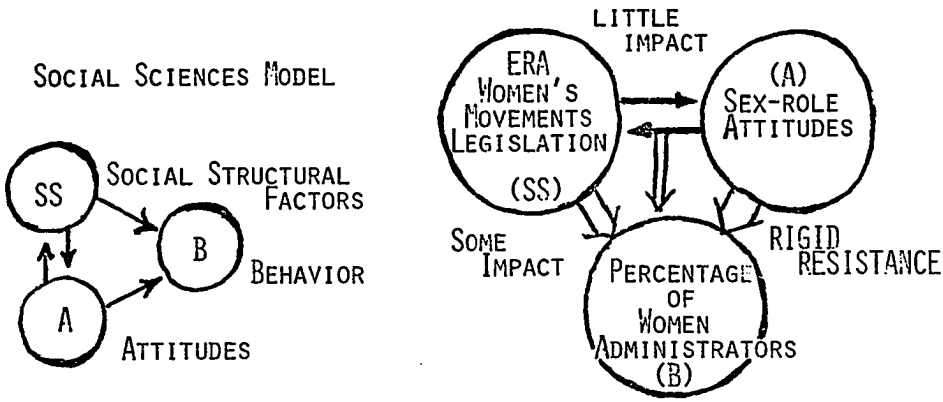

Figure 1. Conceptualization of the problem of the female school administrator in terms of the Social Sciences Model.

or groups, (b) externalization function which deals with an individual's inner conflicts, (c) value function which expresses the assertion of one's identity or ego-involvement, and (d) knowledge function which utilizes the standards or frames of references which stem from one's attitude structure (see Figure 2).

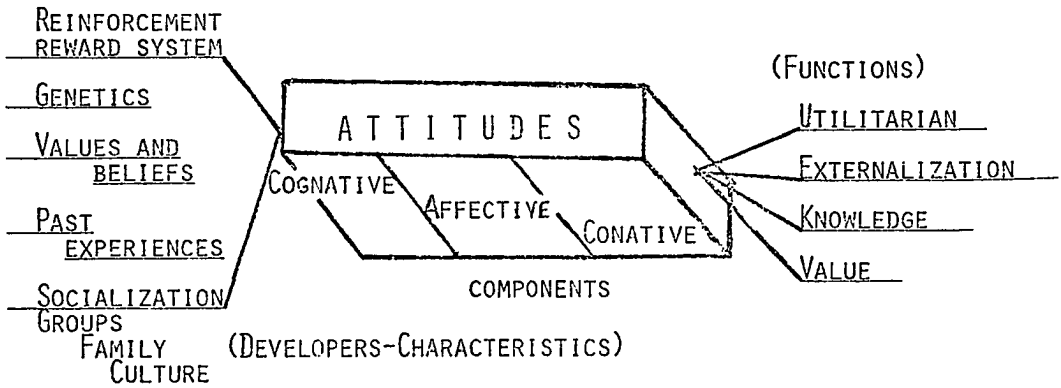

Figure 2. A model of the nature of attitudes.

The model in figure 3 allows for the understanding of the mediational attitude theory. In this theory, attitude is perceived as the mediator between stimulus and response. A proper set of response is generated within this mediating process, which involves both evaluative and intensity dimensions. In a collection of readings on attitude theory edited by Greenwald (1968), mediation theorists are identified as Lott (1955); Osgood, Suci and Tannebaum (1957); Janis and Gilmore (1965); McGuire (1966); and Hovland, Janis and Kelley (1953). Bem (1967) reports that "Osgood, Suci & Tannebaum theorize that a pattern of internal responses elicited by a word or an object comprises connotative or 'emotional' meaning of the stimulus for an individual, including his attitude toward it" (p. 185).

A conceptualized model of the mediational process clarifies the interplay between this attitude theory and the use of the semantic differential technique for measurement of attitudes (see Figure 3).

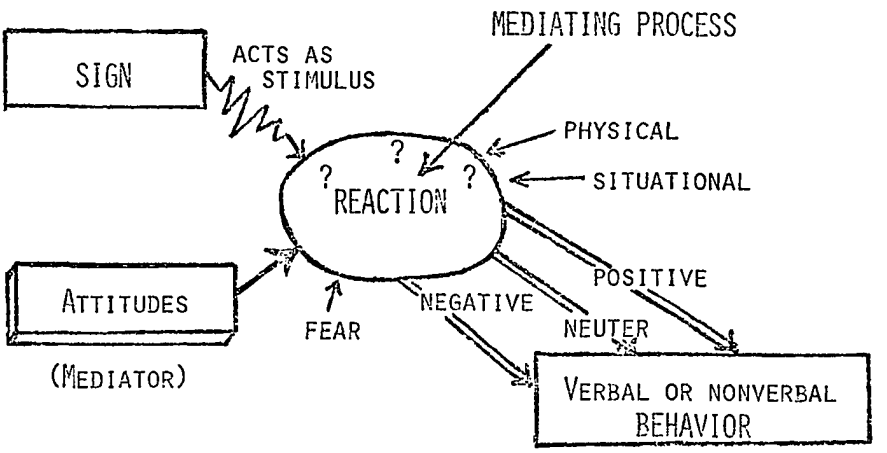

Figure 3. A conceptualized model of the mediation theory.

Because attitudes comprise one component exerting influence on an individual's behavior, the study and measurement of attitudes purports to have merit. Dawes (1972) suggests that agreement of definitions among theorists is not necessary for the measurement of attitudes.

> All that can be measured are specific properties. If, then, one person wishes to argue that something that has been measured is a property of an attitude, and another person wishes to argue that it is not, they may do so without in any way affecting the measurement process -- or the validity of the resulting measurement scale. (p. 16)

Assumptions

In the measurement of attitudes certain assumptions must be made:

1. That attitudes can be measured.
2. That these attitudes are common to the group.
3. That attitudes vary along a linear continuum.

Limitations

The limitations of this study were:

1. That the attitudes being measured could be changeable.
2. That the social desireability variable (Ford & Meisels, 1965) could have affected the responses.
3. That the sex of the researcher could have biased the responses or the conclusions drawn from the results of the study.

The Semantic Differential Technique

The semantic differential technique is an indirect method of measuring attitudes developed by Osgood, Suci and Tannebaum (1957). It requires that the subject indicate his/r feelings toward a concept

by marking a position on a linear continuum the extremes of which are defined in terms of bipolar adjectives. This process is followed for each of a number of concepts using the same bipolar adjectives. These are selected according to their Evaluative, Potency or Activity dimensions. In factor analysis studies done by Osgood, et al., these dimensions were identified as the three main variables occupying a word's semantic space.

> Despite deliberate and independent variations in the sampling of scales, of concepts, and of subjects, three dominant and independent (orthogonal) factors have kept reappearing: an Evaluative Factor (represented by scales such as good-bad, pleasant-unpleasant, and positive-negative), a Potency Factor (represented by scales such as strong-weak, heavy-light, and hard-soft), and an Activity Factor (represented by scales such as fast-slow, active-passive, and excitable-calm). (p. 173)

The Evaluative (goodness; favorableness) factor was found to account for the largest amount of variance. It accounts for almost double the amount of variance accounted for by the Potency (toughness) factor and the Activity (movement) factor. It was first thought that attitude was best represented by the Evaluative factor, but cumulative studies showed that including the Potency and Activity factors resulted in a more definitive picture. For, one respondent might indicate a particular concept to be "good, positive and active" and another respondent might view the same concept as "good, negative and passive." Therefore the addition of other factors, other than the Evaluative factor, seem to add to the dimension of the attitude measurement (Diab, 1967).

The polar scales allow for the measurement of direction of attitude, favorableness or unfavorableness. The linear continuum indicates the intensity of feeling, the zero point being the point of least intensity. Osgood, et al. (1972) used the seven-point scale in

their testing, using the quantifiers, "extremely," "quite," and "slightly" in both directions from the neutral point. These researchers felt that equal units of psychological judgment were represented by these seven steps.

Although the semantic differential technique has been cited by some as a better attitude measurement than other attitude scales, it suffers from the same weakness. This problem stems from the possibility that any two persons responding to the instrument in the same way may not necessarily possess identical meanings of the stimulus words. This especially pertains to the neutral point, since this could represent varied positions to different respondents: (a) indifference toward the concept, neither "good" nor "bad," (b) equality of feeling, both "good" and "bad," and (c) noncommittal, either feels too strongly for commitment or adopts the social desireability ethic (tries to give the "appropriate" answer) (Diab, 1967).

Sherif and Hovland (1961) brought out that ego-involvement may enter into the choice of the neutral point as a respondent may feel so strongly favorable or unfavorable that the center point becomes a more acceptable choice. This preference for neutrality also holds true for individuals with extreme viewpoints. Since they find it difficult to accept opposite views, the results are a neutral response. This phenomenon is identified as the latitude of rejection and has emerged as a more expansive latitude than the latitude of acceptance on highly ego-involved issues.

Most researchers using the semantic differential technique have used an uneven number of scales, thus giving respondents an option of assuming a neutral stand. Even scales are supported as forcing individuals

to make a choice in direction. This is believed to strengthen the discriminatory aspects of the technique. Although the seven-point scale is the most popular, the instrument continuum line has varied from five to nine intervals, and sometimes even eleven. Studies have found that the labeling of the interval units has no bearing on the results of the study (Lemon, 1973).

Ten scales seems to be a standard number used in the differential, however a researcher can vary this to suit the need of the study. Osgood's et al. (1957) original list of fifty adjective pairs giving factor loadings have been supplemented by other researchers as well as by the originator of the differential technique. It is important that care be taken that the scales apply to the different concepts being used in the instrument as some adjectives can assume different meanings when applied to different stimulus words. This has been one criticism of the semantic differential. Still, critics concede that the differential format is discriminating in attitude measurement (Lemon, 1973). Studies conducted by Stagner and Osgood (1972) found that the semantic differential technique was especially viable in testing the changing nature of social stereotypes and measuring social judgments.

Doob (1947) supports the view that attitude is the salient ingredient in the internalized mediation process between stimulus (verbal or non-verbal) and response (overt or covert behavior). If this is so, then the measurement of an individual's semantic structure regarding a conceptual entity is valid and Osgood's et al. technique is a reliable instrument. While each person has an attitudinal code toward every concept in his/r realm, this attitude may vary according to the

context in which the concept is placed. Therefore, as Osgood, et al. postulated, the polarized adjectives must be suited to the concepts being tested and must be within the parameters of the respondent's attitude structure.

The bipolar adjectives or scales may be selected from the available lists which have been compiled from various studies. The factor loadings on these words have already been established through factor analysis. If other adjectives are selected then these should be tested and subjected to factor analysis to determine their loadings before use. The scales are usually randomized as to factors and direction of the favorable and unfavorable poles to improve the discretion of the instrument. Scoring can either be done by assigning numerical values from 1 to n from one pole to the other or by assigning the neutral point a "zero" value, positive numerical values toward the favorable pole, and negative numerical values toward the unfavorable pole. These values are usually not placed on the instrument to be administered (Osgood, et al., 1957; Lemon, 1973).

Attitude Measurement

How can a researcher discern a person's attitude? Edwards (1957) asserts that various practices are available: (a) interviews, (b) observations of behavior (verbal or non-verbal), (c) attitude statements or tests, and (d) attitude scales.

Thurstone and Likert's methods of attitude measurement are classics in the field. They are still widely used. Remmers (1954) gives a review of these and other methods such as Guttman's Scales and Remmers Master Scale. Diab (1967) lists two elements shared by

the attitude scales methods of Thurstone, Likert and Guttman. They are: (a) that a person's attitude toward an object is indicated by the selection of a point on a continuum with points ranging from highly favorable to highly unfavorable, and (b) that the subjects are fully aware that their attitudes are being measured. Diab also summarizes Sherif and Sherif's measurement of attitudes through latitudes of acceptance, rejection and non-commitment in which the subject uses attitude to place the concept within these three realms.

The semantic differential technique is a simple and economical method of assessing people's attitudes. Its reliability has been established as follows: (a) meaning in general: test-retest $\underline{r}$ = .85 and (b) attitudes: test-retest $\underline{r}$ = .91 (Osgood, et al., 1957). The reliability of these measurement scales are high and comparable. Osgood (1972), through extensive testing, has amassed data which specifies that in individual response ratings a deviation of two intervals on the continuum could represent a significant difference in meaning ($\underline{p} < .05$). This decreases to as little as one-half of a scale unit when using group data.

Smith (1963) reported its validity as follows: (a) Thurstone scale: $\underline{r}$ = .74 to .82, (b) Guttman scale: $\underline{r}$ = .78, and (c) Bogardus Social Distance Scale (three factors): $\underline{r}$ = .72 to .80.

The semantic differential technique is applicable to any subject area and can be tailored to fit a unique situation. It is a discerning measurement and veritable data can be accrued through this method. It has been used effectively in many attitude studies of different types (Eastman, 1974).

The use of the semantic differential has been lauded by researchers because of its sensitivity, simplicity of administration, time-cost efficiency and its applicability to different disciplines, different groups of individuals and different social concepts (Deutschman, 1959).

Kaufman (1959), in a critique on the semantic differential, states:

> Major assets of the semantic differential include the fact that it requires no verbalization on the part of respondents and that it measures emotional reactions rather than rational or well-reasoned ones. . . .
> The semantic differential furthermore taps emotional and non-conscious responses. It helps to get around people's tendency to give well-reasoned, logical, socially acceptable replies. It encourages intuitive, impulsive, emotional expression of reactions. Essentially, it may be regarded as a projective measure of somewhat the same order as sentence completions or free associations. (p. 437)

Summary

Authorities agree that the attitude measurement method should relate to the attitude theory proposed. The semantic differential technique corresponds well with mediation theory. Using a concept word as a sign stimulus, a mediation process is activated in which attitude will lead the respondent to make a selection of a position on the continuum line corresponding to the direction and intensity of feeling elicited by the word. The subject's responses in terms of bipolar adjectives with different dimensional loadings (Evaluative, Potency and Activity) results in a concept profile which indicates the attitude toward the concept being tested (Osgood, 1972).

In using the semantic differential technique the following assumptions must be accepted:

1. That the bipolar adjectives used are true opposites.

2. That the units on the continuum represent equal distances.

3. That instructions given on the cover sheet will persist throughout the test (Osgood, et al., 1957).

This chapter established the theoretical basis for this study and explained and justified the use of the semantic differential technique as an attitude measurement instrument. Assumptions and limitations essential to this research were postulated. The following chapter describes the methodology followed and the statistical design used to analyze the data.

CHAPTER IV

METHODOLOGY

Sources of Data

Population

The populations for this study were the current public school superintendents and school board members of Oklahoma and the educational administration students currently enrolled at the University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma State University, and Tulsa University. The school Board members and superintendents were selected as part of the population because they are involved in the hiring of school administrators. It was felt that the educational administration students should be included since they are in school administrator preparation programs and are potential school administrators.

Sampling

Due to the large size of the population being considered, a random sample representative of the population was selected for study. Randomization assures each member of the population an equal opportunity to be part of the sample, thus insuring that the sample possesses the characteristics of the population. It also eliminates the bias inherent in selection and promotes objectivity (Kerlinger, 1973).

There are times when simple random sampling does not fulfill all the objectives of the design. Several more complex procedures of randomization are available. One of these methods is stratified sampling. In simple stratified sampling the population is divided into two or more components based on preset criteria. From these strata, random samples are chosen. In this type of sampling it must be assumed that each stratum will be internally homogeneous (Selltiz, et al., 1976).

One of the variables under consideration in this study was whether the district presently had a female administrator or had had one in the past three school years (hereafter referred to as FMA districts). The number of districts possessing this characteristic were few, 36 out of 457. This limited the number of FMA districts likely to appear in the sample. Stratified sampling was used to allow for this factor.

In simple stratified sampling, it is not necessary to keep the size of the sample in each stratum proportionate to the population, nor do the sample sizes from each stratum have to be equal.

> There may be several reasons for sampling the various strata in different proportions. Sometimes it is necessary to increase the proportion sampled from classes having small number of cases in order to guarantee that these classes are sampled at all. (Selltiz, st al., p. 528)

For this study all 36 FMA districts were selected for use in the duo-stratum sample. This allowed these districts 100% probability to appear in the sample. The other stratum was made up of a randomly selected representative sample of non-FMA districts. These districts had a .08 probability of appearing in the sample. A matching number of districts was chosen through the lottery method. All the 421 non-FMA districts were coded and placed on cards. These cards were placed in

a closed container. After thorough mixing, cards were picked one at a time using the replacement method. The district sample size was 72; 36 FMA districts and 36 non-FMA districts. Stratifying for control of the FMA variable affected the "size of district" variable. Because the largest portion of FMA districts were in the "large district" category, these had a higher probability of being included in the sample. Table 5. shows the geographic distribution of the districts in the sample. It indicates the number of districts by size and FMA.

Table 5

Geographic Distribution of District Sampling Showing Relationship of Size of District and FMA[a]

		Districts		
Region	n[b]	Small	Medium	Large
Northwest				
FMA	1	0	0	1
Non-FMA	5	4	0	1
Southwest				
FMA	2	0	1	1
Non-FMA	10	10	0	0
Central				
FMA	18	3	4	11
Non-FMA	7	4	2	1
Southeast				
FMA	1	0	0	1
Non-FMA	4	2	2	0
Northeast				
FMA	14	1	3	10
Non-FMA	10	8	2	0

Note. Number of districts = 72.

[a]FMA districts are those which have had female administrators during the school years, 1973-77.

[b]Number of sample districts in each region by FMA.

The decision was made to use the superintendent and two school board members from the sample districts. This resulted in a superintendent sample size of 72 and school board member sample size of 144. The president of the board and the most recently elected member were selected whenever possible. Incomplete records and turn-over of board members at the time of selection limited this possibility. School board election results obtained from the Oklahoma State School Boards Association (OSSBA) office were used. Where no results were available for a chosen district, the OSSBA's membership records were used. In this case, the first and the last members listed on the record were picked. The superintendent's names were acquired from the Oklahoma State Department of Education's 1976-77 Oklahoma Educational Directory. A list of the names and addresses of the superintendents and the two chosen board members was made for mailings and recordkeeping.

The sampling of educational administration students was randomized by using the students enrolled in the Spring 1977 term in several selected educational administration classes at the University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma State University and University of Tulsa. Seven classes of required courses in the educational administration program at the University of Oklahoma were used. Seven classes were used from Oklahoma State University. Although Tulsa University had the smallest classes, only four classes were used since their total educational administration program has a smaller enrollment. Sampling of educational administration students was controlled by eliminating duplication of students in the various classes and foreign students. Any students who by virtue of being one of the superintendents or one of the selected

school board members from the sample districts and would appear in the other sampling were also eliminated. This method of representative sampling yielded a case size of 95 educational administration students from Oklahoma University, 53 educational administration students from Oklahoma State University and 27 educational administration students from Tulsa University for a total sample size of 175 educational administration students.

Data Collection Tools

Instrument

The semantic differential has been used repeatedly as an attitude measurement technique and has been lauded in various studies as being both flexible and sensitive. The format is simple and easy to construct. A semantic differential uses a set of scales made up of bipolar adjectives which are used to judge a number of concepts. These are judged on a linear continuum between the scales indicating direction and intensity.

The most important phase of semantic differential construction is the selection of the concepts to be judged. The concepts constitute the "stimulus" which induces the mediation process involving attitudes and results in the "response," in this case the checks on the differential. Hence, they must be relevant to the problem in question in order to produce pertinent results (Kerlinger, 1973). "Concepts are essential parts of the learning of attitudes. The relatively rigid and standardized perceptions of minority group members, called stereotypes are important parts of prejudiced attitudes." (p. 580)

Osgood's, et al. (1957) and Heise's (1967) recommendations were followed in the construction of this instrument. The concepts were selected to relate to the problem being investigated. Limitations of time and space prohibited the testing of numerous concepts. Therefore, selectivity was neccessary in choosing the appropriate concepts. Recommendations suggested that either or both "good judgment" and a sampling process be employed in selecting the concepts (Osgood, et al.) Criteria for selection included: (a) relevance to the problem, (b) clarity of meaning, and (c) familiarity to the subject.

Both "good judgment" and a sampling process were employed in the development of the concept list. An initial list of 42 concepts was compiled from a review of the literature on the role of school administrator (see Appendix A). This concept list was given to a group of 20 ex-superintendents, ex-school board members, and education graduate students. This group was asked to select the 15 concepts most pertinent to the role of school administrator. These 15 concepts were compared with a tabulation of the 15 most frequently mentioned in the literature of educational administration. After some deliberation and modification, 16 concepts were selected for use.

The next step in the construction of the instrument was the selection of appropriate scales. Two criteria were considered in selecting the bipolar adjectives: (a) the dimensional properties of the scale words, and (b) relevance to the selected concepts. Although some scales may seem irrelevant to certain concepts, they tend to add subtlety to the instrument. This was considered in choosing the adjectives.

The factor loadings of the adjective pairs were examined so that five Evaluative adjective pairs; good-bad, positive-negative, optimistic-pessimistic, successful-unsuccessful, and progressive-traditional; three Potency adjective pairs; severe-lenient, dominant-submissive, and tenacious-yielding; and two Activity adjective pairs; active-passive and stable-changeable were selected to test the concept profile as per Heise's (1969) recommendation. The conventional seven-point continuum with a center zero point was used in order to provide the respondent with a neutral zone.

In order to assess if sex-role attitudes toward the role of school administrator existed or differed, two forms of the instrument were used; a male form and a female form. The format of the instrument (see Appendix B) showed a heading on the right-hand corner of the page indicating the role being considered; either male school administrator or female school administrator. Centered on the page appeared the concept to be rated. The scales and continuums were then listed beneath the concept. Each concept appeared on a separate page, with role being considered repeated on each page. The scales remained the same. The male form and female form of the instrument were identical except for the listing of the role being considered at the top of the page. A detailed male or female form instruction sheet and an introductory letter completed the instrument packet (see Appendix B). A token of appreciation for the respondent's cooperation (25¢) was attached to the letter.

The administration of a male form and a female form necessitated further randomization of the sample respondents. An alphabetical list

of the FMA districts and one of the non-FMA districts was composed. By the toss of a coin, it was decided to send a male form to the subjects in the first district, alternating down the list with the female form. The instrument packets for the educational administration students sample were randomized by stacking them in an alternating manner, male and female forms.

Data Sheet

A Data Questionnaire sheet was devised to ascertain the characteristics of the samples essential to the testing of the various hypotheses; experience, gender, age, education, and size of district. Three questions were included to add breadth to the description of the respondents. These were: (a) marital status, (b) who encouraged you to go into the field of school administration (for superintendents and student respondents), and (c) type of administration preparation program (in which the student respondents were enrolled). A separate data sheet was tailored to suit the needs for each of the three types of respondents (see Appendix B). It was designed for ease of coding for computer analysis. An identification code appeared in the top right-hand corner signifying: (a) male or female form, (b) type of respondent; superintendent, school board member or educational administration student, and (c) code number for identifying non-respondents.

Pilot Study

A small pilot study was conducted to disclose any problems due to poor construction of the instrument or ambiguous instructions. The instrument was administered to a class of educational administration

students not in the sample. Instrument packets were assembled and stacked, alternating male and female forms. The respondents took a packet from the desk and returned it to the desk upon completion. No verbal instructions were given to insure equal treatment of respondents. Response time was estimated from this administration. The minimum completion time was eight minutes; the maximum completion time was 20 minutes. It was estimated that 15 or 20 minutes were needed to carefully complete the data sheet and the differential. One addition to the data sheet was made as a result of this pilot study. Education Specialist/ Professional Certificate was added as a category under Level of Education. Since only two respondents were nondiscriminating between polar scales (having marked all responses in the neutral zone), it was decided to keep the seven-point scale. Instrument packets were also completed by several ex-superintendents and ex-school board members. As a result of that administration, a box was added around the term male or female in the role indication at the top of each page of the instrument. This was done so that the indicator would not be overlooked and the concepts would be related to the proper role.

Data Collection Procedure

The packets were assembled according to the form, male or female. The packet included an introductory letter giving procedural instructions, a detailed instruction sheet on how to complete the semantic differential, the semantic differential instrument, a self-addressed return envelope, and a self-addressed postcard to be initialed as a notice of the returned packet. It also allowed for the respondent to request results of the study if desired (see Appendix B).

On March 29, a preliminary letter (see Appendix B) was sent by mail to the selected superintendents and school board members informing them of the study being conducted, assuring them of confidentiality, and urging their support. The packets were sent on March 31, following the initial letter. Two hundred sixteen packets, half male forms, half female forms were mailed to the selected representative sample.

Arrangements were made to administer the instruments to the various educational administration classes at the three universities, Oklahoma University, Oklahoma State University, and Tulsa University. Since these packets were hand-carried, no return envelope or card was provided. A shortened version of the preliminary letter and of the introductory letter was included in the packet (see Appendix B). By April 20, administration of these instruments was completed.

Records were kept of responses returned from the mailed packets. The returned packets were checked for completion of data sheet and instrument. At the end of one week, 80 responses had been received from the mail-outs. On April 7, a card was sent to the 216 mail respondents thanking them for their prompt reply and urging them to return the packet if they had not done so (see Appendix B). This prompted 55 more responses. A week later, on April 15, a letter was sent to non-respondents only (see Appendix B), asking for their cooperation in completing this study. Four respondents called for new packets. These were sent out. By April 30, the pre-set completion date, 20 more packets had been returned. This resulted in a total response of 160 or 74% of the mail-outs. There was at least one

respondent per district, except for one FMA district and one non-FMA district. Sixty of the 72 superintendents in the sample responded; 34 male forms and 26 female forms. One hundred of the 144 school board members returned their packets; 52 male forms, 46 female forms and 2 mutilations. Both mutilations were on female responses. Four packets were returned without a data sheet. These were identified through the returned postcards and new data sheets were mailed to these persons asking their cooperation. All four data sheets were completed and returned. One respondent, a school board member, returned the entire female form packet without completing it. The preliminary letter was also returned. This and the two mutilations were not included in the data count. Several respondents wrote comments on their instrument or on an enclosed separate sheet.

As packets were received and checked, the coding procedure was begun. The Data Questionnaire sheet was coded for keypunching of computer cards. A value was given each interval of the continuum from 1 to 7, using 7 as the positive pole. The respondents' checks were coded with the respective value so that a mean score could be obtained for each respondent by concept by scale. An overall complete profile score was also used. The numerical data codes from the Data Questionnaire and the numerical values assigned to the respondents' checks on the differential were keypunched onto computer cards. Each card was double checked for accuracy and the card file was edited for errors.

Statistical Design and Treatment of the Data

The type of measurement to be used on the data collected is usually determined by: (a) the type of scale base for those data; nominal,

ordinal, interval or ratio and (b) whether the data are continuous or discrete. The data collected in this study were based on an interval scale, meaning equal units of measurement with numerical values were used. However, in order to examine the data from all aspects, they were converted into the nominal scale which provides for categorical classification. In this study, the data consisted of continuous data, resulting from a measurement process, they were counted as discrete data when using the nominal scale.

The functions of statistics are two: (a) to describe the data and (b) to make inferences from the sample back to the population based on the data. In describing the data collected, a nominal scale was used. The central tendency, the mean, was determined for each type of respondent by form using a $3_r \times 16_c \times 10_s$ (r=respondent; c=concept; s=scale) matrix. This resulted in mean scores for male forms and female forms by type of respondent; superintendent, school board member and educational administration student, for each concept by each scale. These figures were used to compare the difference in how male and female administrators are viewed on each concept by each scale.

> Although the determination of the mean is generally thought of as lying in the domain of descriptive statistics, the testing of an assumption with respect to the population mean as postulated from the sample is conceded to be a problem in the area of statistical inference. (Leedy, 1974, p. 116)

Arkin and Colton (1970) state that one important value of the chi-square test is its utility in testing hypotheses by comparison of observed frequencies in the data to theoretical frequencies. Chi-square (X^2) is a test about proportions, the observed proportions of individuals in the sample concerning some variable as compared to the hypothetical

proportions in the population on the same variable. In conducting this test, frequencies are categorized in the form of cross-tabulations in columns and rows. The test of independence identifies the relation between the columns and the rows. Based on the null hypothesis, one would accept that there is no relationship in the observed frequencies and the expected frequencies. If true, the value of X^2 is smaller. If a relationship does indeed exist, one not attributed to chance, the value of X^2 is larger. To determine the statistical significance of X^2, the degrees of freedom (df) are calculated. This tells to what degree the discrepancies are allowed to vary. Using a table, the significance of the value of X^2 is determined at the statistical level set ($p < .05$ or $p < .01$). This would indicate the probability level of the relationship being due to chance. The .05 level of significance indicates that the result would have five chances out of 100 to be due to pure chance. The chi-square test does not show the magnitude of the relationship when one exists, but it does show its existence (Kerlinger, 1973).

Using the $3_r \times 16_c \times 10_s$ matrix for each form, cross-tabulations were calculated and the chi-square test was applied. This procedure was repeated using all respondents by form on each concept by scale. Although X^2 is a non-parametric statistical test and not as powerful as a parametric test, it was used as a prelimary examination for significance.

An overall profile mean score was calculated for each respondent. This was used in the testing of the hypotheses using the one-way analysis of variance and analysis of variance (ANOVA).

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The analysis of variance technique is used to detect differences in fluctuations between sample means in order to determine if these fluctuations are statistically significant or due to chance. The one-way analysis of variance tests the difference between two means; ANOVA tests differences among two or more means. The test is based on the variance within a sample and between samples. An F test, the ratio of the variances, is then applied. The value of F is determined by a table which reveals the statistical significance of the F value at the .05 or .01 level (Minium, 1970)

> If the null hypothesis is true, these two estimates of the population variance should differ only by an amount equal to that which might arise from sampling fluctuations. If the variance estimated from the means of the groups (among variance) is significantly greater than that estimated from the variations within the group (within variance), it may be said that the differences among the group means must be greater than that ascribable to sampling fluctuations and the groups are not from the same population. (Arkin & Colton, 1970, p. 165)

Summary

This chapter has described the populations and their representative samples. The style and procedures for procuring these samples were noted and a report of the data collection tools and the data collection method was given. The preparation of the data for testing was explained and the statistical design used was described and justified. The following chapter presents the data and the statistical analysis results.

CHAPTER V

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS OF DATA

Analysis is used to examine the data in various ways for the purpose of establishing relationships pertinent to the problem being studied. In order for generalizations to be made about the population, the data extracted from the representative sample must be described, scrutinized and evaluated. There are numerous statistical tests that perform these functions. The tests in this study were run on the computer at the University of Oklahoma using the system of programs from the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences.

The data can be described by categorizing, tabulating and ranking. For the data in this research, a measure of central tendency, the mean, was used in describing the responses from the random sampling. Cross-tabulations were employed to categorize these responses by scale against concept by type of respondent. The chi-square test of significance was applied to the data. This non-parametric test was executed as a preliminary to establish any significance that might exist. If statistical significance showed at the .05 level with X^2, this significance would be evident when

the more powerful parametric tests were used. The chi-square test showed a significant difference ($p < .05$) in concepts by scale and form for each type of respondent.

To test the null hypotheses proposed, the one-way analysis of variance and ANOVA were used. Where a significant difference in interaction was statistically determined by the ANOVA, the Tukey Individual Comparisons test was used to determine the significant differences within the variables.

Characteristics of Respondents

The sampling was made up of three groups, educational administration students, superintendents and school board members. Tables 6, 7, 8 and 9 describe the characteristics of the respondents in the sampling.

There were 175 students who responded to the survey; 93 responded to the male form and 82 responded to the female form. In the superintendents group, there were 60 respondents, 34 to the male form and 26 to the female form. Respondents from the school board members numbered 98, 52 respondents to the male form and 46 respondents to the female form. There were 25 more respondents to the male form than to the female form in the total sampling. There were a total number of 333 cases in the sample.

Table 6 shows that this total number of cases was divided proportionately among the three categories under experience. Of the total respondents, 126 fell into the new category, while 101 fell into the experienced category. The veteran category held 105 respondents. Only the experienced category showed that the

Table 6

Characteristics of All Respondents

by Form of Questionnaire

Variable	n[a]	Male Form	Female Form
Classification			
Educational Admin. Students	(175)	93	82
Superintendents	(60)	34	26
School Board Members	(98)	52	46
Experience			
New	(126)	61	65
Experienced	(101)	63	38
Veteran	(105) 1[b]	51 1	51
Size of District			
Small	(63)	36	27
Medium	(21)	10	11
Large	(70) 1	39 1	31
DNA[c] 175			
Sex			
Male Respondents	(259)	140	119
Female Respondents	(73) 1	38 1	35
Age			
Young	(101)	55	46
Middle Years	(192)	104	88
Older	(39) 1	19 1	20
Marital Status			
Single	(18)	8	10
Married	(298)	160	136
Widowed, Divorced or Separated	(17)	10	7
Education			
Less than High School Diploma	(5)	3	2
High School Diploma	(49)	26	23
Bachelors Degree	(52)	26	26
Masters Degree	(146)	78	68
Education Specialist/ Professional Certificate	(48)	28	20
Doctors Degree	(33)	18	15
Encouragement into Field			
Family	(8)	4	4
Peers	(12)	6	6
Superiors	(39)	20	19
Self	(154)	85	69
Other	(22)	12	10
DNA 98			
Type of Administrator Preparation Program			
Elementary	(22)	13	9
Secondary	(43)	24	19
Superintendency or General Administration	(96)	52	44
All	(14)	4	10
DNA 175			
FWA[d] District			
Yes	(80)	43	37
No	(77)	42	35
DNA 175			

Note. Number of cases: Male Form = 179; Female Form = 154.

[a]n = Total number of respondents by variable.

[b]Number who did not respond to that variable.

[c]DNA = Variable does not apply to a segment of the respondents.

[d]FWA District = A district which has had a female administrator during the 1973-77 school years.

number of respondents to the male form and female form were not close in number. There were 63 respondents to the male form as opposed to only 38 respondents to the female form. One respondent did not answer this category.

Only the superintendents and school board members specified the size of district. The largest portion of respondents (70), fell into the large district category. The small districts were represented by 63 respondents. The fewest number of respondents came from the medium size districts (24). One respondent to the male form did not specify size of district. The three categories showed proportionate numbers in the male form respondents and female form respondents.

Of the 333 respondents, over three-fourths of them were men. Only 73 women were in the sample. It was not surprising since all the public school superintendents in Oklahoma are male and only about 10% of the school board members are women. The male form was answered by 140 males and the female form was answered by 119 males. From the female respondents, 38 replied to the male form and 35 to the female form.

Over one-half of the cases fell into the middle years category under age showing 192 respondents. The fewest number (39) appeared in the older category. The young category held 101 cases. One respondent to the male form did not check the age category. The number of respondents answering the male form were closely proportionate to those answering the female form except in the middle years category. In this age range, 104 respondents replied to the male form while only

88 replied to the female form.

Of the total number of respondents, an overwhemingly majority were married (296). Only 18 respondents checked the single category, while 17 checked the widowed, divorced or separated category. Two respondents, one to the male form and one to the female form refused to mark the marital status categories. Of the married respondents, 160 answered the male form while 136 answered the female form. The other two categories showed proportionate numbers under the male form and the female form.

A large portion of the respondents marked having a Masters degree (146). Almost the same number of respondents had the Education Specialist professional certificate (48), the Bachelors degree (52), and the High School Diploma (49). Five respondents had less than a High School Diploma. The Doctors degree was held by 33 respondents. The respondents to the male and female forms showed a proportionate division at each level of education.

An overwhelming number of superintendents and students (154) showed that they were self-motivated to enter the field of educational administration. The next most frequently marked category under who encouraged you to enter the field of educational administration was superiors with 39 responses. The category marked least by the respondents was family with only 8 respondents choosing this category. Each category was proportionately divided into male form and female form respondents.

The 175 educational administration students in the sample indicated the type of adminstrator preparation program in which they

were enrolled. Over half of the students (96) showed they were enrolled in a superintendency certification program or a general administration doctoral program. The secondary administration preparation program showed 43 respondents enrolled and the elementary administration preparation program showed 22 students. Fourteen of the students indicated they were preparing for all three levels of administration.

There were almost as many respondents (77) from districts who have not had a female administrator in the last four years as respondents (80) from districts who have had a female administrator during 1973-77. In both of these groupings, a few more male forms were answered than female forms.

The characteristics of the educational administration students only are shown in Table 7. Of the 175 student respondents, the majority of them (100) showed they had been in education less than 10 years. Those who indicated they had been in education 10 to 16 years numbered 51. Only 24 respondents showed 17 or more years of experience. At this level of experience, almost twice as many respondents replied to the male form as to the female form.

Close to one-third of the student respondents were females. These numbered 54, half answering the male form, half the female form. There were 121 male respondents, 11 more who answered the male form than the female form. Slightly more than half of the student respondents (94) were under 34 years of age. The remainder (81) were between 34 and 49 years. None of the student respondents were 50 or over.

Table 7

Characteristics of Educational Administration Student Respondents by Form of Questionnaire

Variable	n[a]	Male Form	Female Form
Experience			
Less than 10 years	(100)	48	52
10-16 years	(51)	30	21
17 or more	(24)	15	9
Sex			
Male Respondent	(121)	66	55
Female Respondent	(54)	27	27
Age			
Under 34	(94)	49	45
34 to 49	(81)	44	37
50 or over	(0)	0	0
Marital Status			
Single	(17)	7	10
Married	(143)	78	65
Widowed, Divorced or Separated	(15)	8	7
Level of Education			
Bachelors Degree	(22)	11	11
Masters Degree	(118)	63	55
Education Specialist/ Professional Certificate	(31)	16	15
Doctors Degree	(4)	3	1
Encouragement into Field			
Family	(6)	2	4
Peers	(9)	4	5
Superiors	(27)	14	13
Self	(121)	67	54
Other	(12)	6	6
Type of Administration Preparation Program			
Elementary	(22)	13	9
Secondary	(43)	24	19
Superintendency or General Administration	(96)	52	44
All	(14)	4	10

Note. Number of cases: Male Form = 93; Female Form = 82.

[a] n = Total number of Educational Administration Student respondents by variable.

Most of the students who responded were married; 143 of them. Only 17 indicated they were single while 15 checked that they were widowed, divorced or separated. Both under age and marital status the respondents replying to the male form and the female form showed proportionate numbers.

Most of the student respondents (118) indicated they held the Masters degree. There were 22 respondents who held a Bachelors degree and 31 respondents with an Education Specialist professional certificate. Four student respondents marked that they held a Doctors degree. The numbers of respondents at the different levels showed proportionate distribution between male and female forms.

The majority of student respondents (121) claimed to be self-motivated in entering educational administration. However, 27 of them claimed their superiors encouraged them to enter the field. Only 9 respondents indicated their peers were responsible for encouragement while 4 respondents attributed their interest to their family. Most of those marking the Other category indicated their encouragement came from a combination of sources. Here, too, there was a proportionate distribution of respondents between the male and female forms.

In Table 8, the characteristics of the 60 superintendent respondents are shown. Eighty percent of these superintendents (48) indicated they had 17 or more years of experience. Only 9 respondents showed 10 to 16 years in education and 3 disclosed less than 10 years in education.

The small school district showed almost as many superintendent respondents (24) as the large district (25). The medium size

Table 8

Characteristics of Superintendent Respondents by Form of Questionnaire

Variable	n[a]	Male Form	Female Form
Experience			
Less than 10 years	(3)	2	1
10-16 years	(9)	5	4
17 or more	(48)	27	21
Size of District			
Up to 59 teachers	(24)	14	10
60-99 teachers	(11)	5	6
100 or more teachers	(25)	15	10
Sex			
Male Respondent	(60)	34	26
Female Respondent	(0)	0	0
Age			
Under 34	(2)	1	1
34 to 49	(35)	21	14
50 or over	(23)	12	11
Marital Status			
Single	(0)	0	0
Married	(60)	34	26
Widowed, Divorced, or Separated	(0)	0	0
Level of Education			
Masters Degree	(24)	13	11
Education Specialist/ Professional Certificate	(17)	12	5
Doctors Degree	(19)	9	10
Encouragement into Field			
Family	(2)	2	0
Peers	(3)	2	1
Superiors	(12)	6	6
Self	(33)	18	15
Other	(10)	6	4
FMA[b] District			
Yes	(30)	17	13
No	(30)	17	13

Note. Number of cases: Male Form = 34; Female Form = 26.

[a] n = Total number of superintendent respondents by variable

[b] FMA District = A district which has had a female administrator during the 1972-77 school years.

districts only produced 11 superintendent respondents. This was probably a result of there being fewer medium size districts in the sample than small or large districts.

Since all the public school superintendents in Oklahoma are male, the superintendent respondents were necessarily all male. slightly more than half of them (35) disclosed they were between 34 and 49 years of age. Those in the 50 or over age range numbered 23. Only 2 superintendent respondents were under 34. All 60 respondents specified that they were married. About one-third of these superintendents held the Masters degree. Close to one-third (17) held the Education Specialist professional certificate and the other third (19) claimed a Doctors degree.

Over one-half of the superintendent respondents (33) attributed their interest in educational administration to themselves. Superiors were responsible for encouraging 12 of the respondents while peers influenced only 3 of them and family only 2 respondents. Ten indicated other reasons for entering the field of educational administration.

There was an equal number of superintendent respondents (30) who have had a female administrator in their district, 1973-77, as those who have not. There was no disproportionate distribution of respondents between the male and female forms in any of the categories.

The characteristics of the school board member respondents are shown in Table 9. Of these 98 respondents, 23 are new members showing less than 2 years on the board. The largest number of board member respondents indicate 2 to 6 years of school board service. At this level of experience twice as many board member respondents

Table 9

Characteristics of School Board Member Respondents by Form of Questionnaire

Variable	n[a]	Male Form	Female Form
Experience			
Less than 2 years	(23)	11	12
2-6 years	(41)	28	13
7 or more	(33)	12	21
	1[b]	1	
Size of District			
Up to 59 teachers	(39)	22	17
60-99 teachers	(13)	5	8
100 or more teachers	(45)	24	21
	1	1	
Sex			
Male Respondent	(78)	40	38
Female Respondent	(19)	11	8
Age			
Under 34	(5)	5	0
34 to 49	(76)	39	37
50 or over	(16)	7	9
	1	1	
Marital Status			
Single	(1)	1	0
Married	(93)	48	45
Widowed, Divorced or Separated	2	2	0
	2	1	1
Level of Education			
Less than High School Diploma	(5)	3	2
High School Diploma	(49)	26	23
Bachelors Degree	(30)	15	15
Masters Degree	(4)	2	2
Doctors Degree	(10)	6	4
FMA[c] District			
Yes	(51)	27	24
No	(47)	25	22

Note. Number of cases: Male Form = 52; Female Form = 46.

[a] n = Total number of school board member respondents by variable.

[b] Number who did not respond to that variable.

[c] FMA District = A district which has had a female administrator during the 1973-77 school years.

answered the male form than the female form. Those who have served on the board 7 years or more numbered 33. Of these twice as many respondents replied to the female form as to the male form. One board member respondent did not indicate level of experience on the school board.

Only 13 board member respondents were from medium size districts. Those from small districts numbered 39 and those from large districts numbered 45. Again, there were fewer medium size districts in the sample. One respondent did not indicate size of district.

Eighty percent (78) of the board member respondents were male. The females numbered 19. One respondent refused to indicate male or female. Most of the respondents (76) fell into the 34 to 49 years age range. Those specifying the 50 or over range were 16 respondents. Only 5 school board member respondents disclosed being under 34 years of age. Almost all of these respondents were married (93). One of the respondents marked the single category while 2 marked the category of widowed, divorced or separated. Two respondents did not specify marital status.

Under level of education, 5 showed less than a High School Diploma, 4 indicated holding Masters degrees, and 10 expressed having a Doctors degree. Most of the school board member respondents fell into the remaining two levels, 49 indicating a High School Diploma and 30 a Bachelors degree.

A few more of the board member respondents (51) served on a board in a district having a female administrator, 1973-77, than those who did not (47). The distribution was proportionate within male and

female forms in all categories except in level of educational experience.

Profiles of Respondent Mean Scores

The distribution of scores was examined by plotting the respondent's mean scores on each concept by scales. The respondents were grouped by their classification in the sampling; educational administration students, superintendents and school board members, and according to whether they responded to the male or female form. Taking all the respondents in the sampling as a total group, their means were plotted. These mean distributions were examined and compared for similarities or differences among the groups. Figures 4 through 35 show these mean profiles for each group of respondents. The line comparisons on the graphs (solid = male administrator; dotted line = female administrator) demonstrate the differences in responses to the male form of the questionnaire and the female form of the questionnaire. As previously mentioned, Osgood, et al. (1957) established through their testing that when using group data from the semantic differential, as little as one-half of an interval unit could represent a significant difference ($p < .05$).

Figures 4, 5, 6, and 7 present the mean scores on Management Skills. As shown in Figure 4, all three groups of respondents saw the male administrator as more dominant, active, successful, tenacious and good than a female administrator. The female administrator was seen as more progressive by all three types of respondents. They were seen as equally optimistic as male administrators. However, the female administrator was seen as slightly too lenient and changeable on this concept. The student respondents also indicated this (see Figure 5).

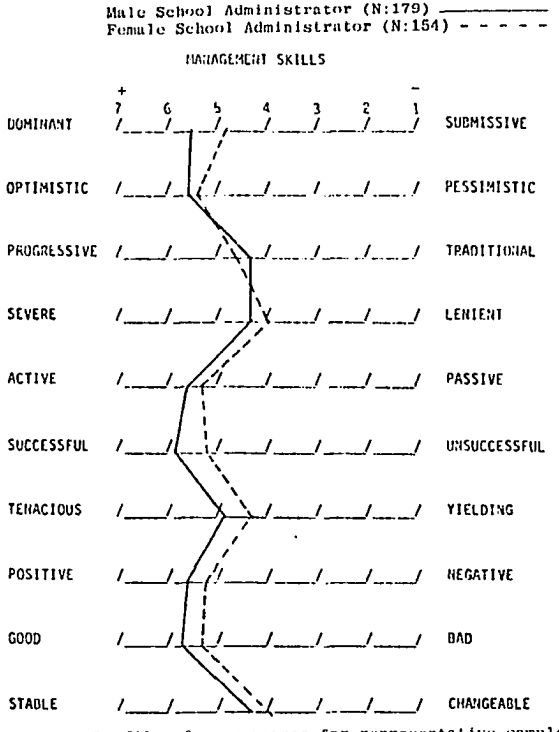


Figure 4. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

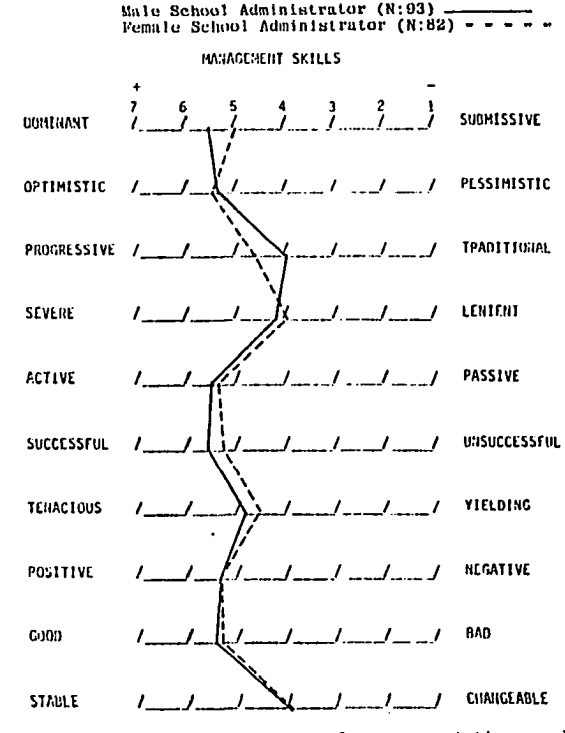


Figure 5. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

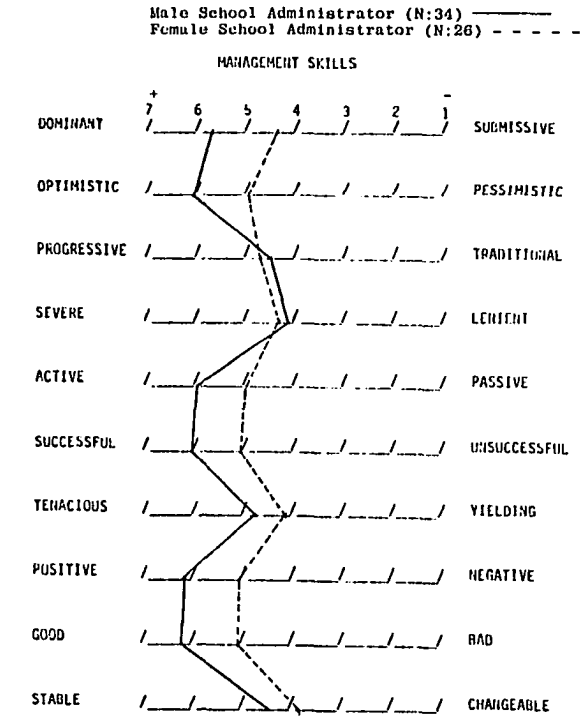


Figure 6. *Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.*

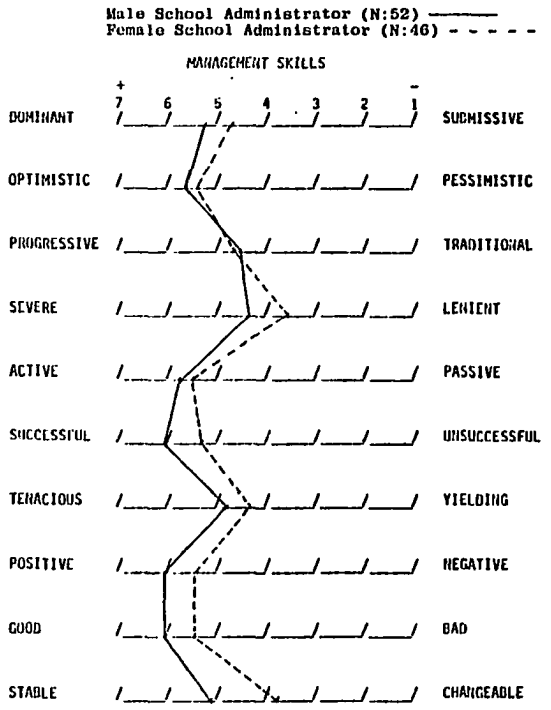


Figure 7. **Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.**

Moreover, the student respondents felt the female administrators were more optimistic than the male administrators. They also felt the male administrator and the female administrator were equally positive and stable in management skills. The student respondents had more similar perceptions of the male and female administrator than the other respondents. As shown in Figure 6, the superintendent sample saw the female administrator as more severe, but too changeable. The superintendent respondents indicated the largest differences in mean scores, showing the male administrator as extremely more dominant, optimistic, active, successful, positive and good than the female administrator. The school board sample saw the female administrator as too lenient and too changeable on management skills (see Figure 7). However, they did see the female administrator as slightly more progressive than the male administrator.

In examining the concept, Ethics (see Figures 8, 9, 10, and 11), it was noticed that there was not a wide discrepancy in the way a male and female administrator were viewed. The male administrator was seen as more traditional by all the groups (see Figure 8). The student respondents (see Figure 9) also saw the male administrator as extremely traditional and slightly more changeable than the female administrator. They also saw the male and female administrator as equally optimistic, active, tenacious, and positive. The superintendent respondents (see Figure 10) indicated the female administrators were slightly more progressive than the male administrators. Still, they viewed the male administrator more favorably than the female administrator on all other scales. The school board member respondents indicated the males were much more successful in Ethics than females in administration (see Figure 11). However, they did view the female administrator as slightly more optimistic and slightly

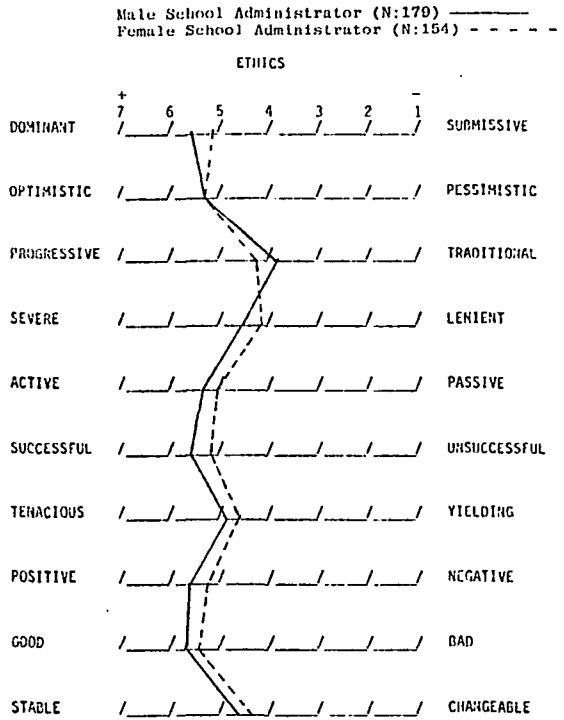


Figure 8. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

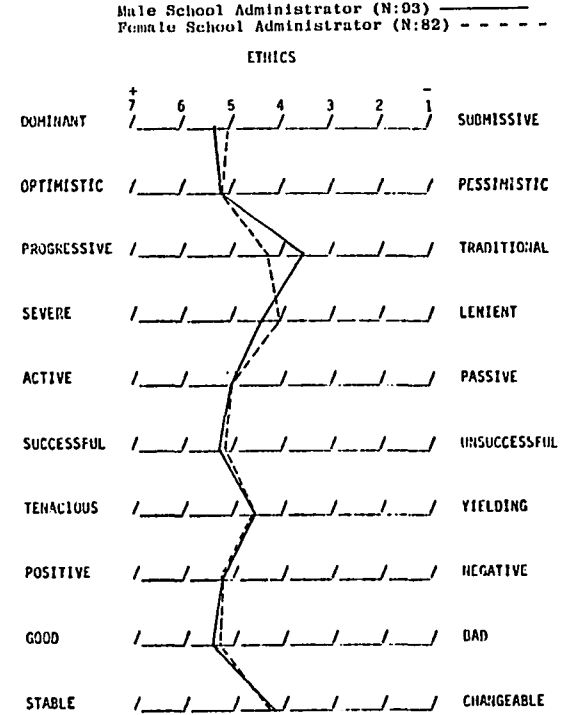


Figure 9. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

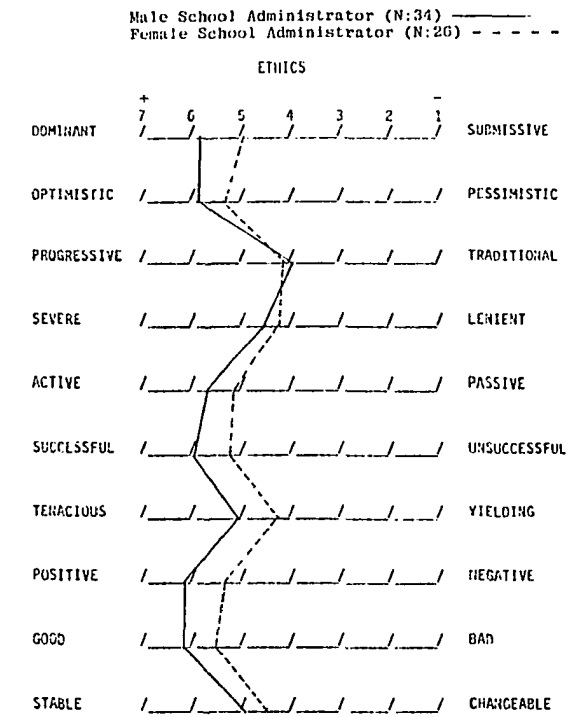


Figure 10. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

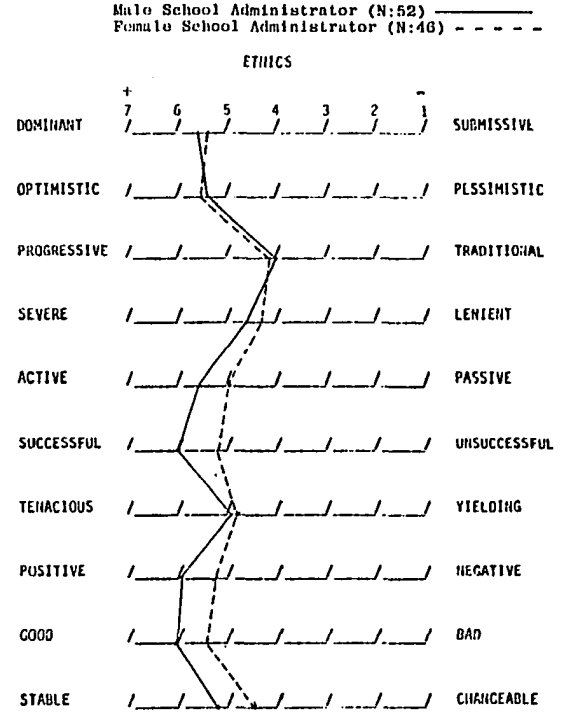


Figure 11. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

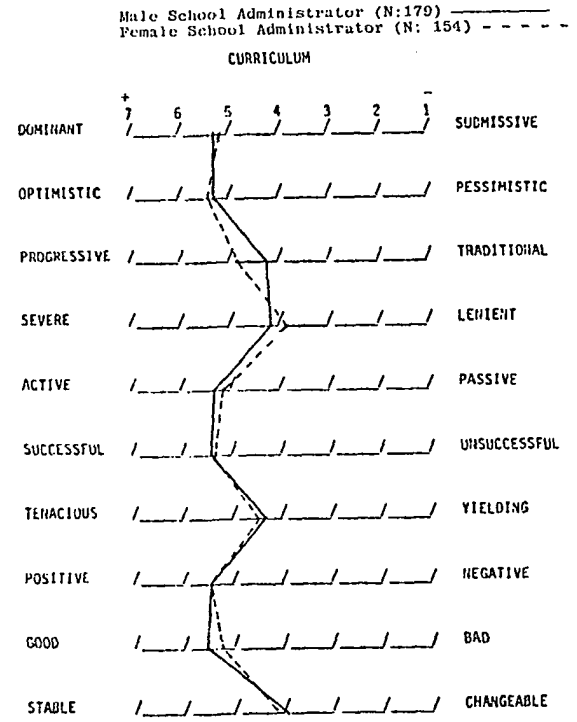


Figure 12. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

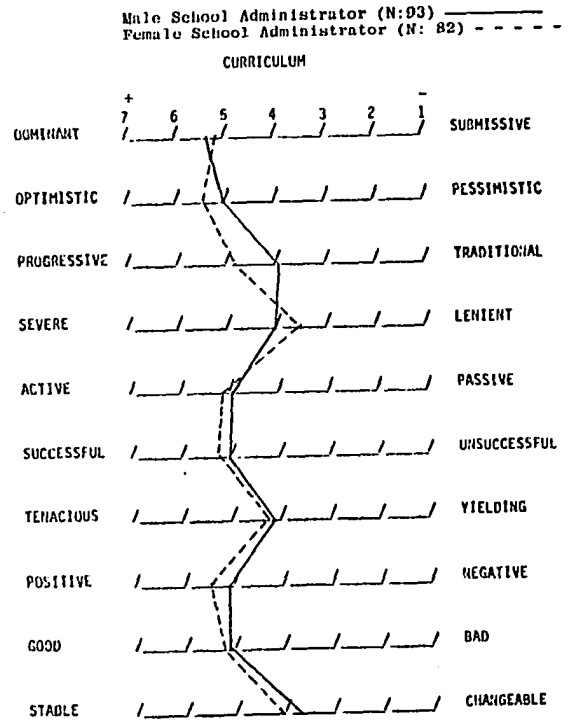


Figure 13. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

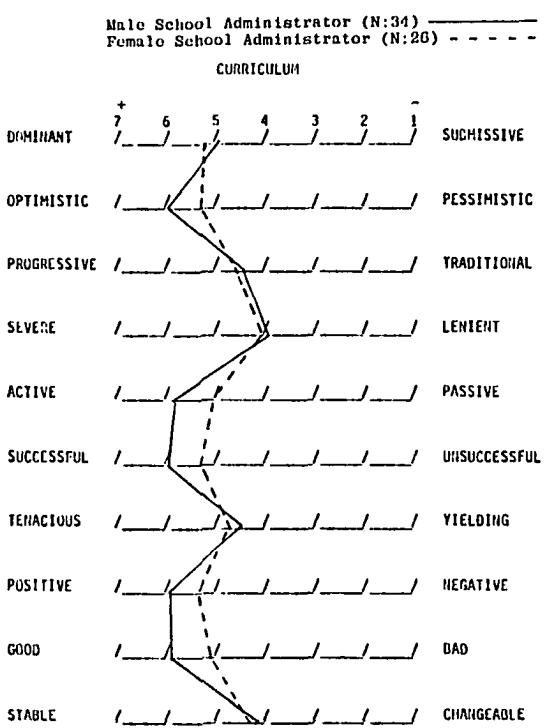


Figure 14. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

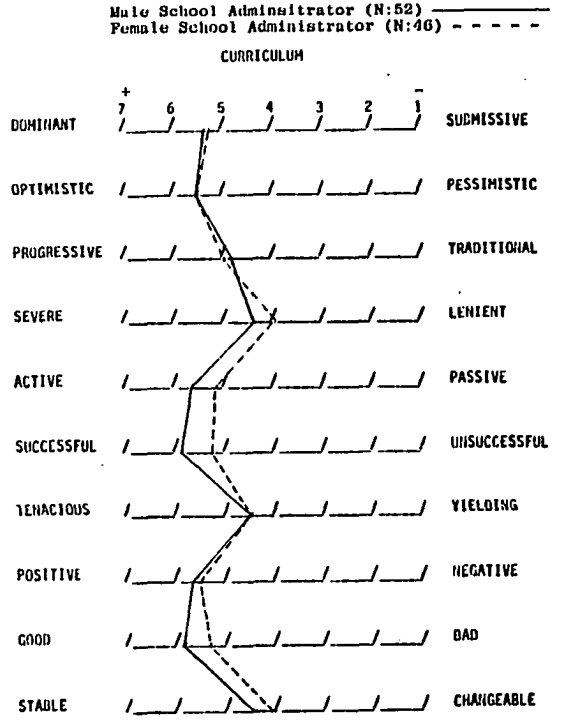


Figure 15. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

more progressive and almost as tenacious as the male administrator.

In Figures 12, 13, 14, and 15, the opinions of the respondents on the concept Curriculum are shown. It is shown in Figure 12 that the total group regards the male and female administrator similarily except that the males were seen as more traditional. Female administrators were seen as slightly more optimistic than male administrators. However, the females were seen as too lenient in this area. On Curriculum (see Figure 13), the educational administration student respondents indicated the female administrator was more optimistic, much more progressive, more active, successful, tenacious, positive, good and stable than the male administrator, but the female was too lenient. They saw the male administrator as too changeable. The superintendent sample (see Figure 14) perceived the female administrator as being slightly more dominant, progressive, severe, tenacious, and stable than the male administrator. The male administrator was seen as more optimistic, active, successful, positive and good, but slightly too lenient. The school board member respondents described the male administrator as slightly more dominant and positive and more severe, active, successful, good and stable than the female administrator (see Figure 15). The board member sample expressed the female administrator was more progressive than the male administrator but slightly too lenient. They felt the male and female administrators would be equally optimistic and tenacious.

The concept, Discipline (see Figures 16, 17, 18, and 19), indicated wide differences in the way the total group viewed the male and female administrator. Figure 16 showed that the respondents felt that the male administrator would be extremely more dominant, much more tenacious, active,

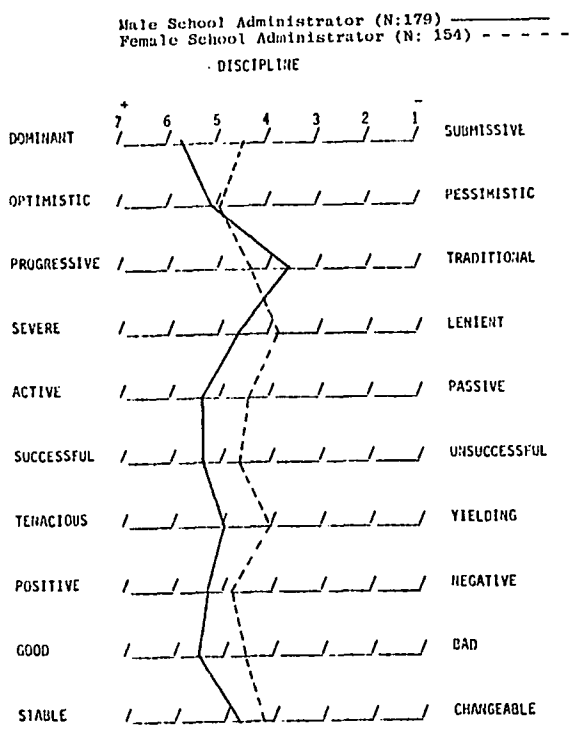


Figure 16. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

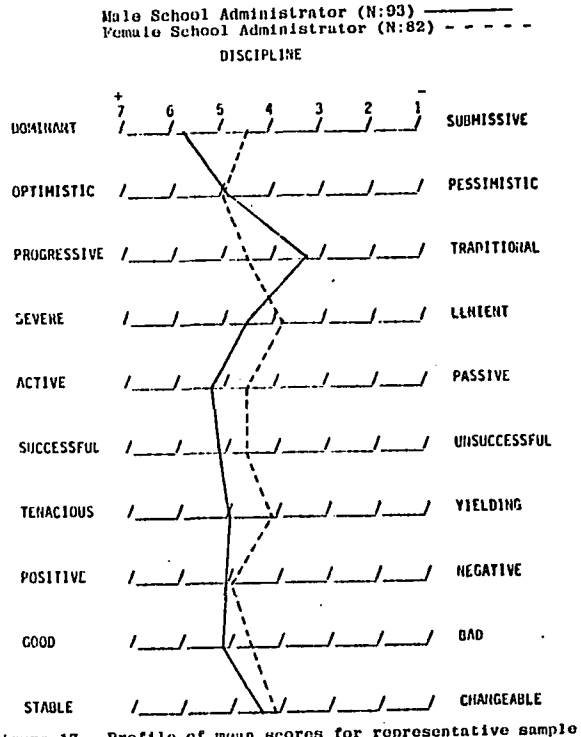


Figure 17. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

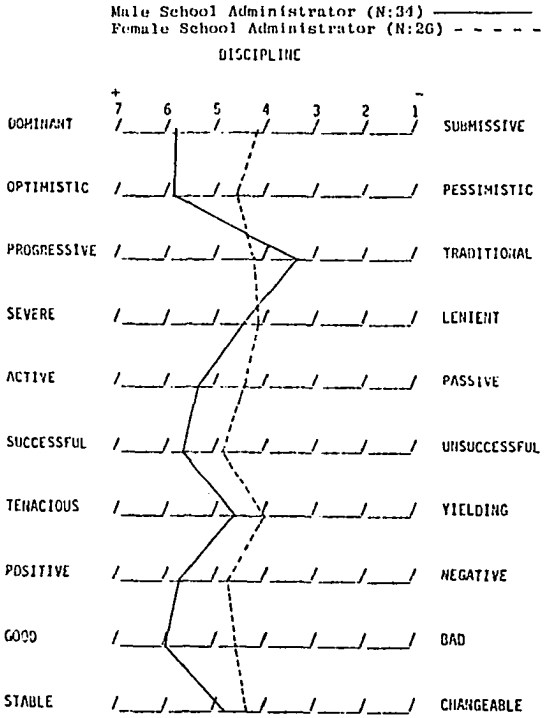


Figure 18. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

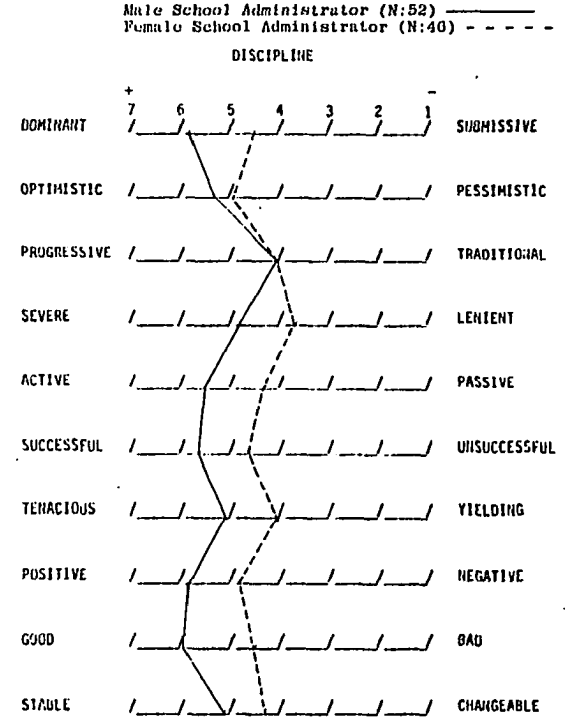


Figure 19. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

and good; and more optimistic, severe, successful, positive and stable than the female administrator. The male administrator was seen as too traditional. As shown in Figure 17, the student respondents saw him as much too traditional and they felt the female administrators were just slightly more optimistic, but too lenient. It was exhibited that the student respondents felt the male administrator was extremely more dominant and much more tenacious than the female. There was a very strong indication that the superintendent respondents saw the male administrators as extremely more dominant, optimistic, positive and good than the female administrators (see Figure 18). The male administrator was also shown as being more severe, active, successful, tenacious and stable than a female administrator. Nevertheless, the superintendent sample viewed the male administrator as much too traditional. In Figure 19, it is shown that the school board member respondents also felt the male administrator was extremely more dominant, severe, active, successful, tenacious, positive and good than a female administrator. Male administrators were also seen as more optimistic and stable than female administrators. Male and female administrators were seen as equally progressive by the school board member sample in the area of discipline.

Figure 20 demonstrates that on the concept Personnel, the total group viewed the male administrator as more dominant, optimistic, active, successful, tenacious, positive, good, and stable than the female administrator. Both the male and female administrator were seen equally as severe as lenient. The female administrator was seen as more progressive than the male administrator. In Figure 21, it is shown that the male and female administrators were seen as equally tenacious by the educational

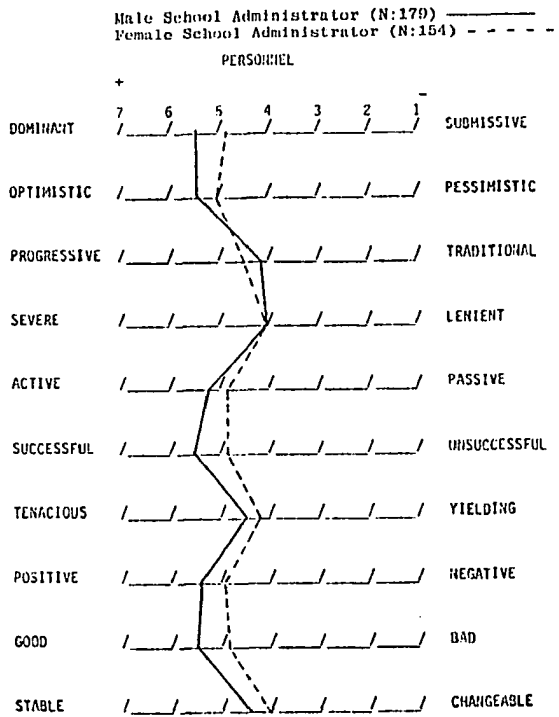


Figure 20. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

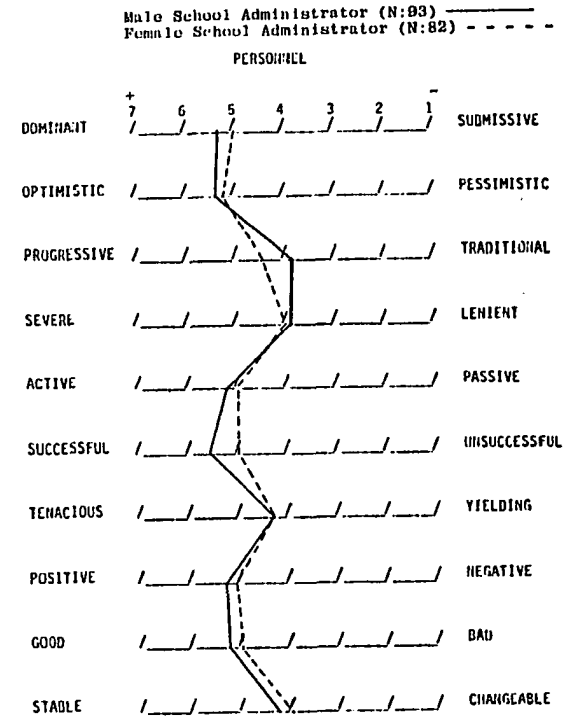


Figure 21. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

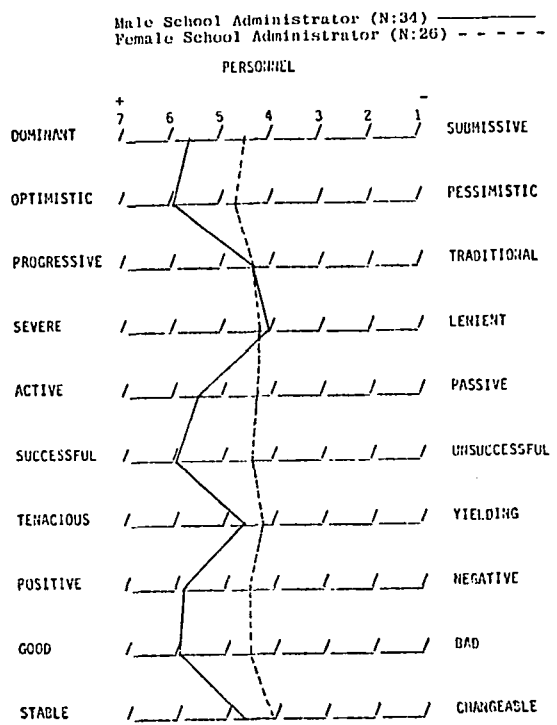


Figure 22. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

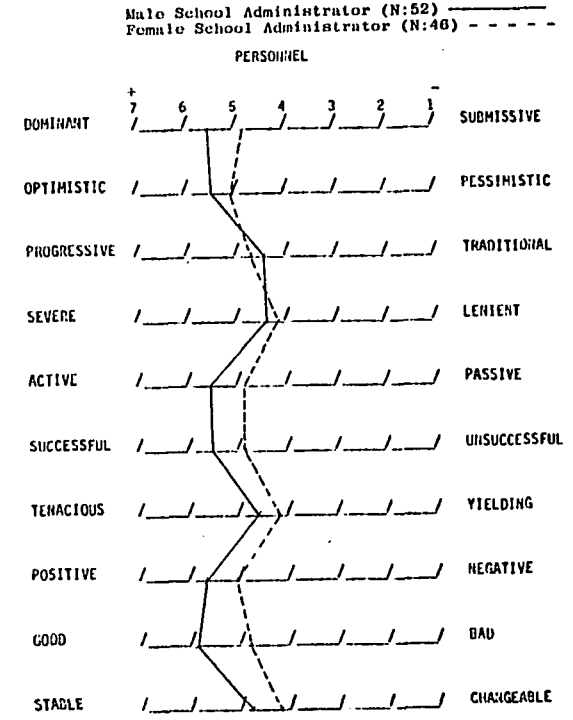


Figure 23. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

administration student sample Although the female administrator was seen as more severe than the male administrator, both were seen as too lenient. The female administrator was seen as much more progressive but the male administrator was seen as much more successful. The superintendent sample (see Figure 22) perceived the male administrators as extremely more dominant, optimistic, active, successful, positive and good; and as more tenacious and stable in this area of personnel. The superintendent respondents did specify that they felt male and female administrators were equally progressive and that the female administrator was slightly more severe. As shown in Figure 23, the school board member sample saw the female administrator as more progressive than the male administrator. But they demonstrated with intensity that in personnel the male administrator rated higher on the good-bad scale than the female.

As shown in Figure 24, there was not much difference in the way the total group viewed the role of male and female administrator in the area of evaluation. Nonetheless, the male administrator was seen with a more favorable attitude except that the female administrator was viewed as more progressive. Although, the student respondents (see Figure 25) indicated that the male administrator was slightly more dominant, optimistic, tenacious and positive than the female administrator. They felt the female administrator was more progressive than the male administrator and equally severe, active, good and stable. On the concept Evaluation (see Figure 26), the superintendent sample felt the female administrator excelled over the male administrator only as being more progressive and severe. They perceived the male administrator as slightly lenient. The board member sample regarded the male administrator more favorably than the female administrator on all scales and especially viewed the female administrator as too lenient

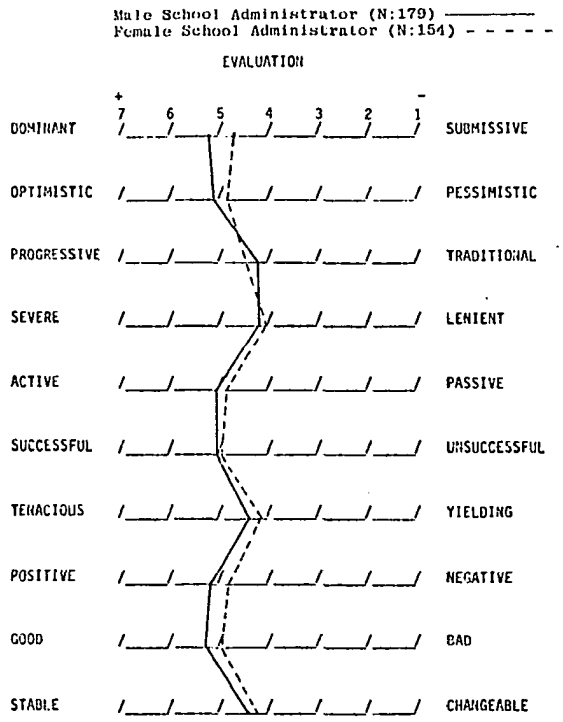


Figure 24. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

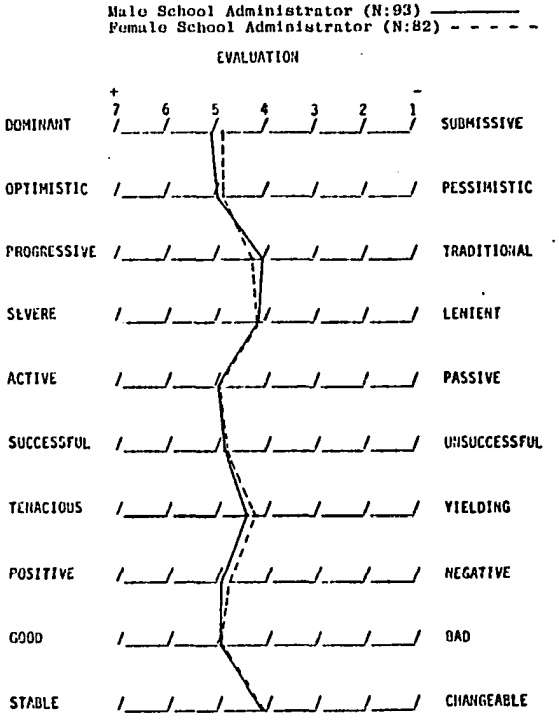


Figure 25. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

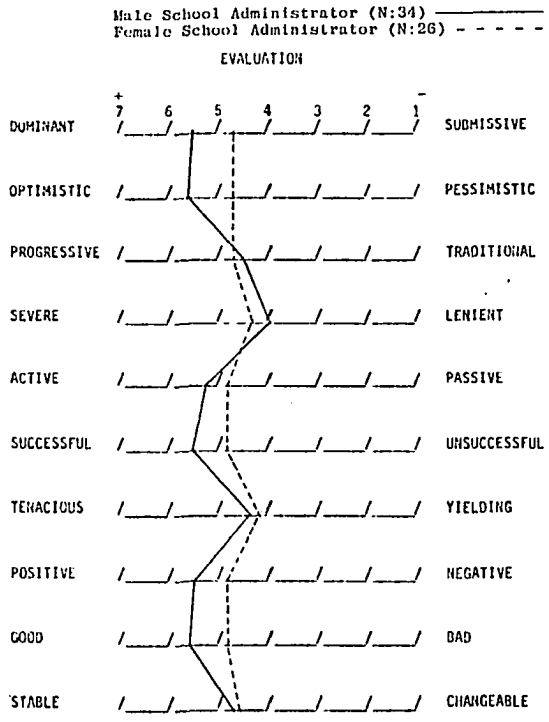


Figure 26. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

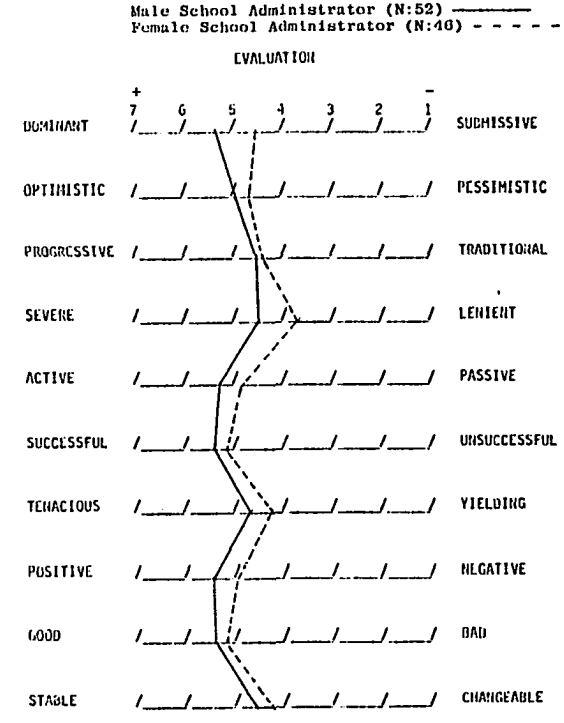


Figure 27. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

in the area of evaluation (see Figure 27).

According to Figure 28, on the concept Decision-making, the total group indicated that the male administrator was regarded more favorably than the female administrator except that the female was seen as more progressive. The female administrator was also regarded as slightly lenient and changeable. The superintendent sample and board member sample showed they felt more favorable toward the male administrator on all the scales. The student sample agreed except that they felt the male administrator was too traditional (see Figures 29, 30, and 31).

The concept, Leadership, is analyzed in Figures 32, 33, 34 and 35. In Figure 32, it is shown that the total group disclosed they saw the male administrator more favorably than the female administrator in this area. They indicated the male administrator was extremely more dominant, while the female administrator was more progressive. However, they felt the female administrator was too lenient. The student respondents (see Figure 33) saw the male administrator as too traditional and the female administrator as too lenient. They indicated the female administrator was more progressive and slightly more stable than the male administrator. The superintendent sample (see Figure 34) felt the male administrator was much stronger in leadership on all scales, although slightly less progressive than the female administrator. The school board member respondents agreed with the superintendent sample, except they saw the male and female administrator as equally progressive (see Figure 35).

Although Figure 36 shows that the male administrator was viewed more favorably than the female administrator on the concept Legal Responsibilities by the total group. The female administrator was seen

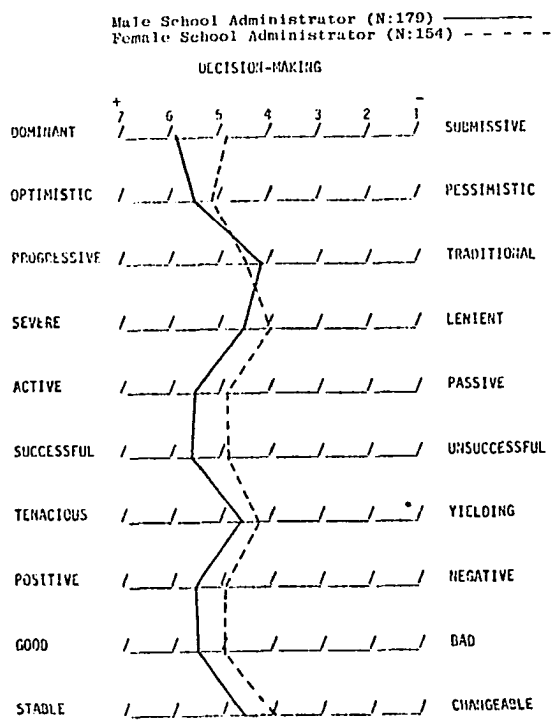


Figure 28. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

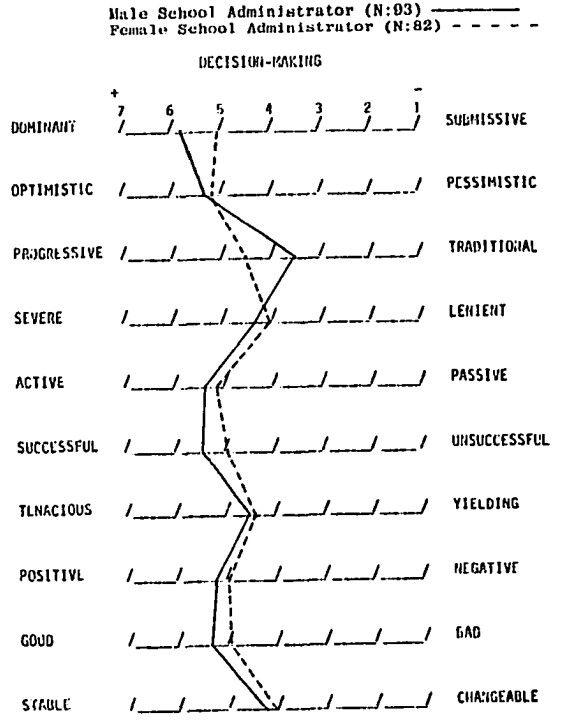


Figure 29. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

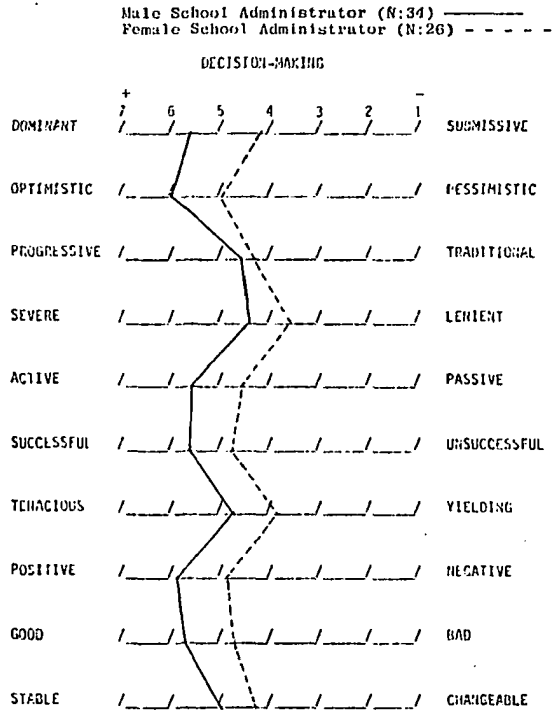


Figure 30. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

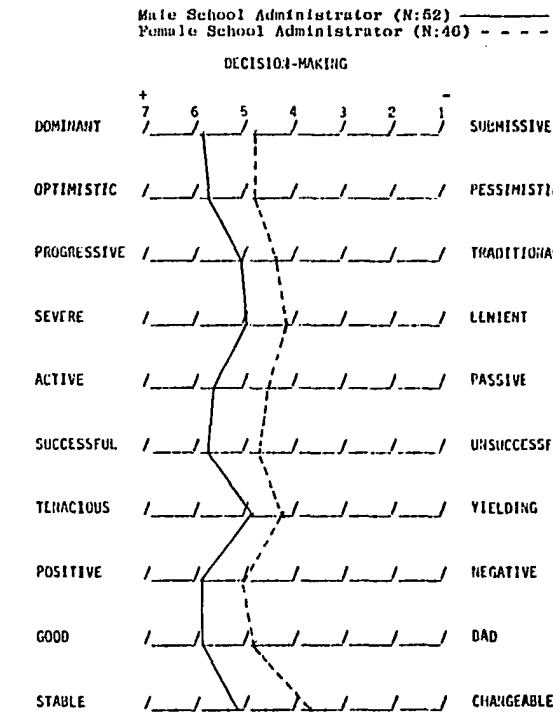


Figure 31. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

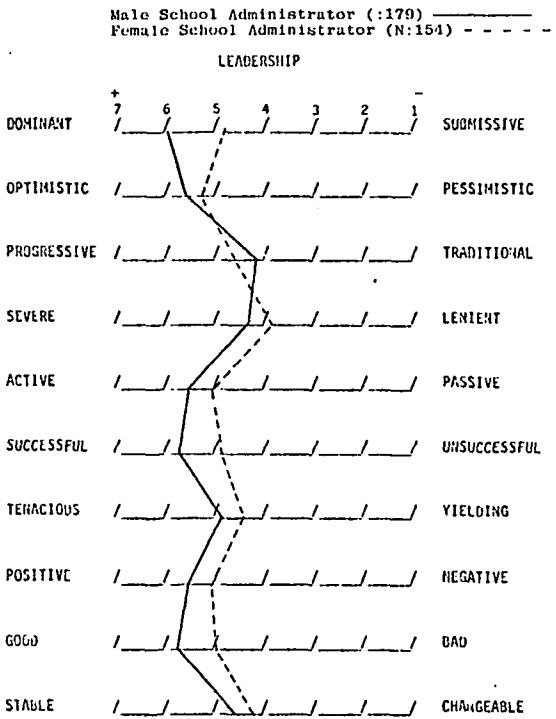


Figure 32. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

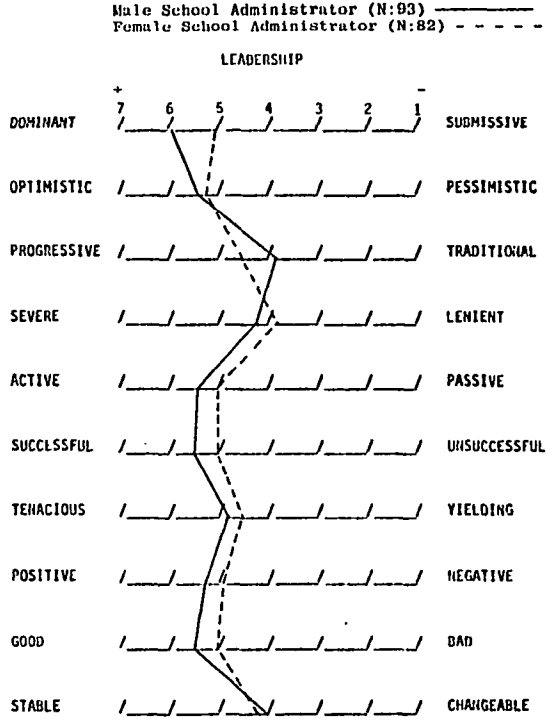


Figure 33. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiatir between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

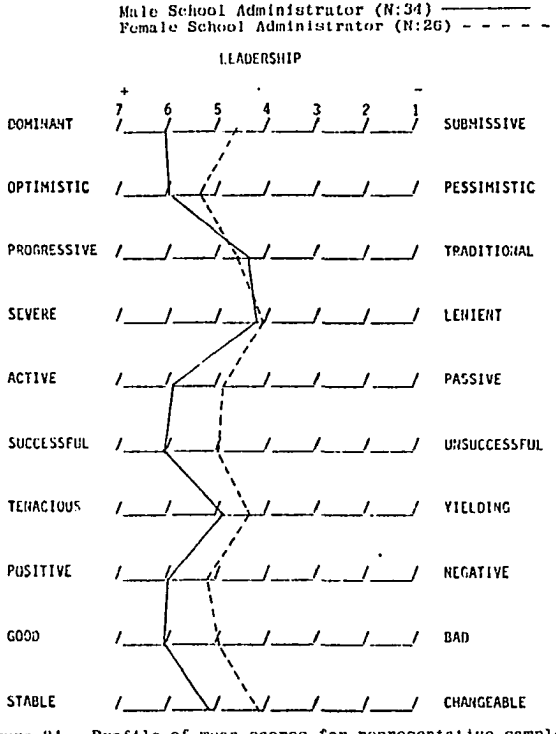


Figure 34. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

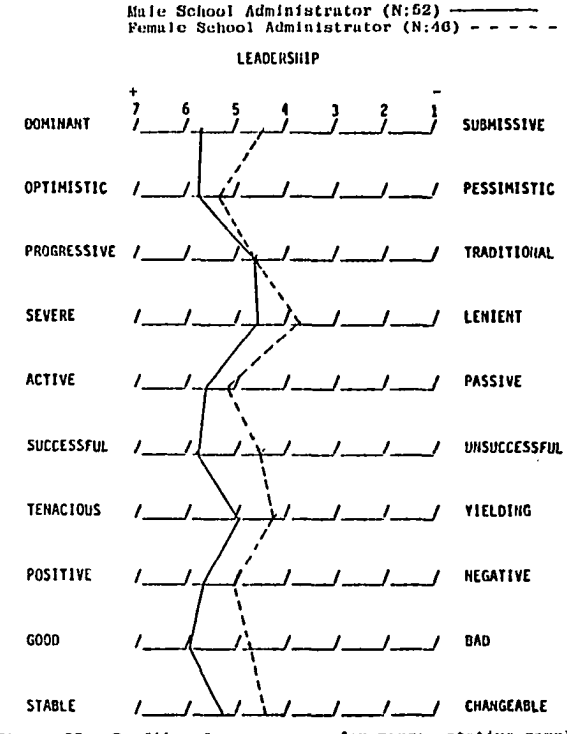


Figure 35. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

as almost as tenacious and progressive as the male administrator. The student respondents (see Figure 37) viewed the male administrator as too traditional and female administrators as too lenient. Only the superintendent responses showed a larger fluctuation between the two (see Figure 38). They viewed the male administrator as being extremely more dominant, stable and active than the female administrator. The superintendent sample viewed both male and female administrators as too traditional, although they felt the male was just slightly more progressive. The board member sample also viewed the male administrator as extremely more dominant than the female administrator in legal responsibilities (see Figure 39). Moreover, the male appeared much favorable on the remaining scales.

According to Figure 40, the male and female administrators were viewed almost identically by the total group on the concept Communications. Only on the scale progressive-traditional was there a larger difference. Here, the female administrator was viewed as more progressive than the male administrator. However, the female administrator was viewed as slightly too lenient. The educational administration student respondent indicated that the female administrator was extremely more progressive than the male, but too lenient (see Figure 41). It was in this area of communications that the female administrator was seen more favorably than the male administrator by the student respondents. They felt the male and female administrators were equally dominant. The superintendent respondents(see Figure 42), however, saw the male administrator as much more dominant, successful, positive and good than the female administrator. They saw him as being more optimistic, active, tenacious and stable than her. However, they felt that the male administrator

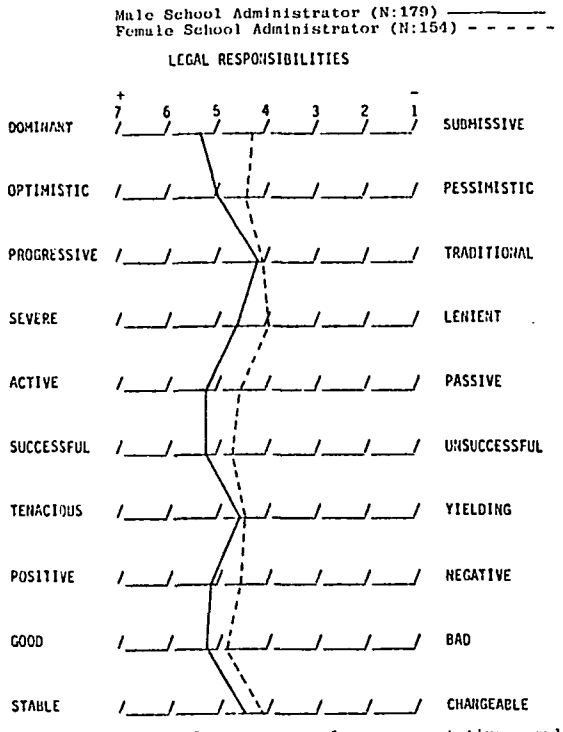


Figure 36. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

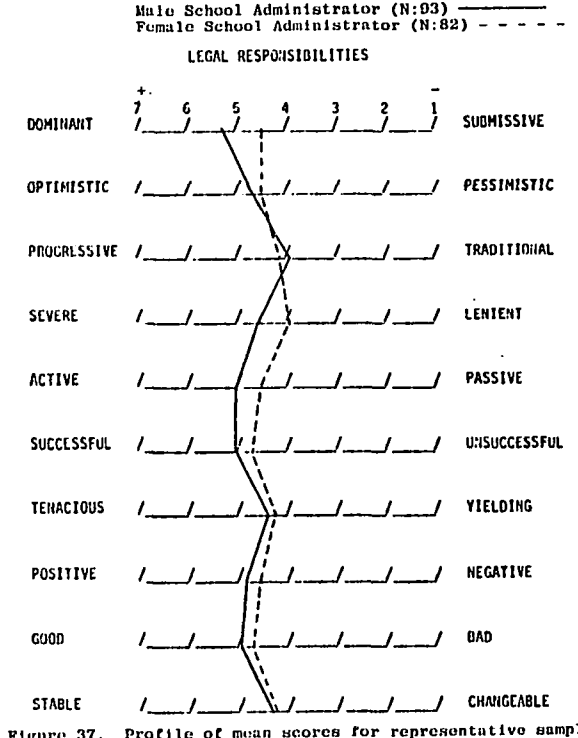


Figure 37. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

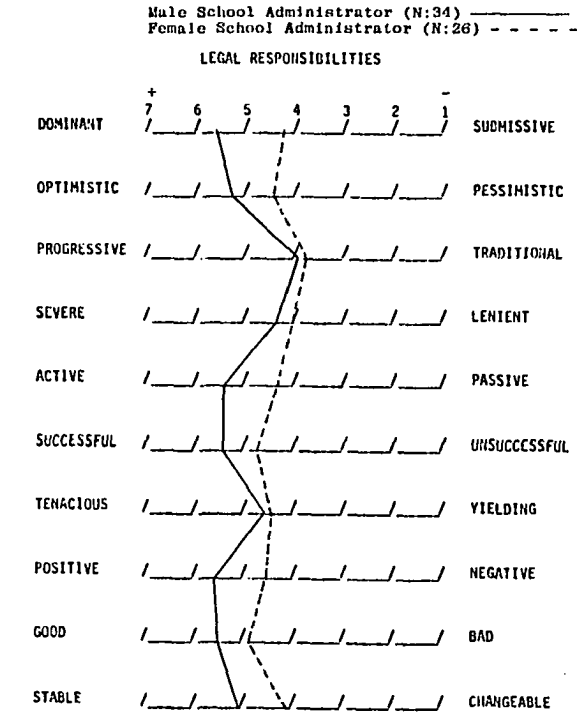


Figure 38. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

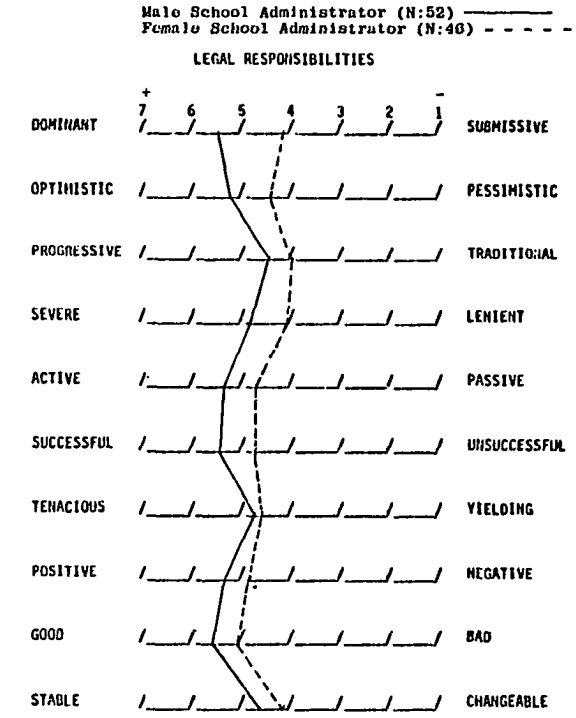


Figure 39. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

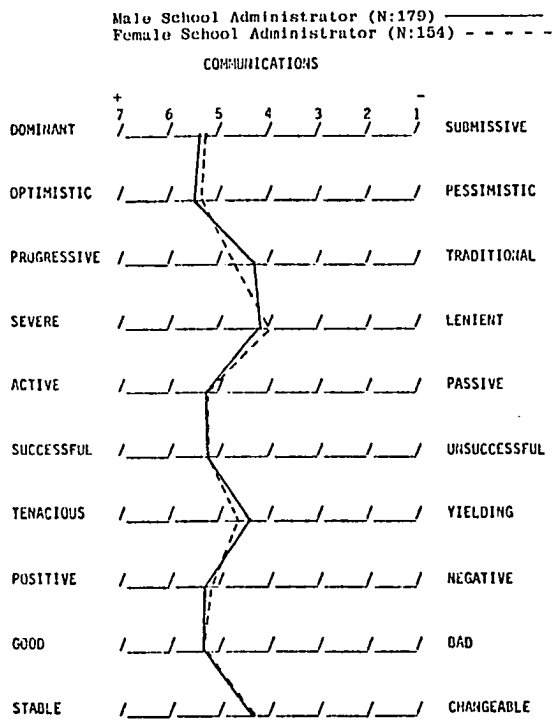


Figure 40. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

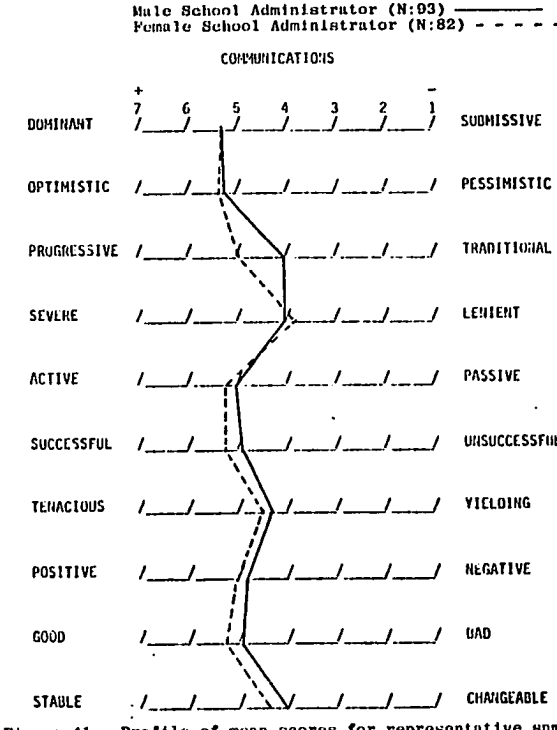


Figure 41. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

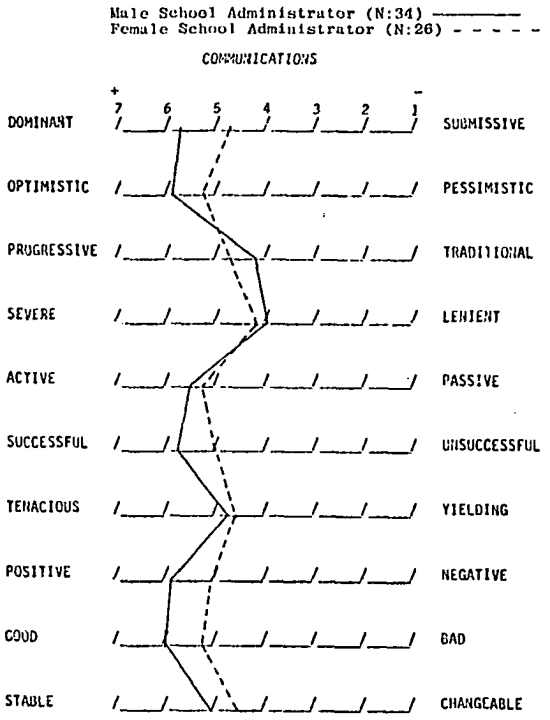


Figure 42. *Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.*

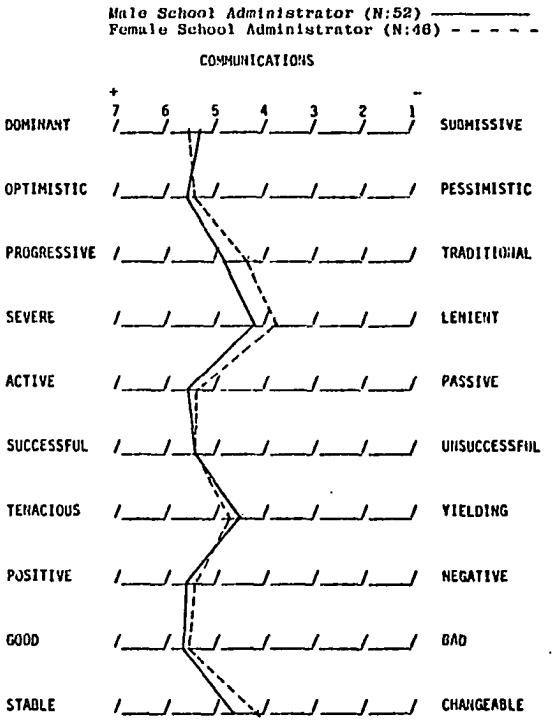


Figure 43. *Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.*

would be slightly too lenient in the area of communications. As shown in Figure 43, the school board member sample felt that it was the female administrator who was too lenient. They indicated that the female administrator was more dominant and more tenacious than the male administrator. The mean scores were generally higher on the scales on this concept toward both the male and female administrator.

On the concept School Finance, Figure 44 shows that the total group viewed the male administrator more favorably than the female administrator, especially on the scale dominant-submissive. They saw the female administrator as slightly more progressive than the male administrator. There was not much fluctuation in the distribution of means within the student sample, except on the dominant-submissive scale and the progressive-traditional scale (see Figure 45). The male administrator was seen by the student sample as being more dominant than the female administrator, however, the female administrator was seen as being more progressive than the male administrator. On school finance, the superintendent sample (see Figure 46) saw the male administrator extremely more favorably than the female administrator. There were 2½ interval units of difference between the male administrator and the female administrator means on the dominant-submissive scale. The male administrator was regarded as being extremely more dominant, optimistic, active, successful, tenacious, positive, good and stable than the female administrator. The closest views of the male and female administrator as regarded by the superintendent sample were on the scale of progressive-traditional. The superintendent respondents regarded the female administrator as being much too submissive, slightly traditional, too lenient, too yielding and too changeable in the area of

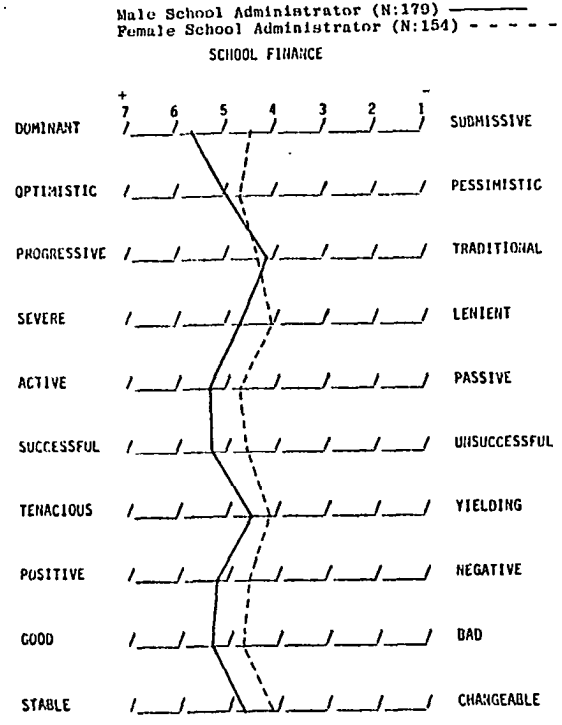


Figure 44. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

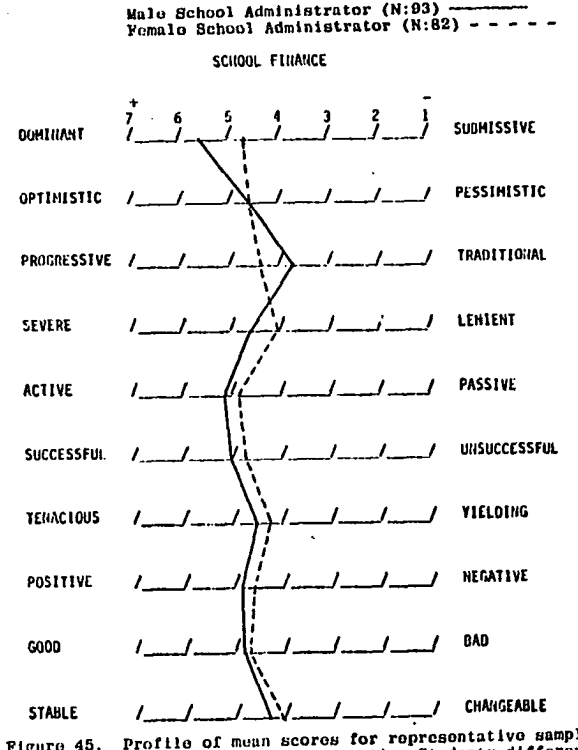


Figure 45. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

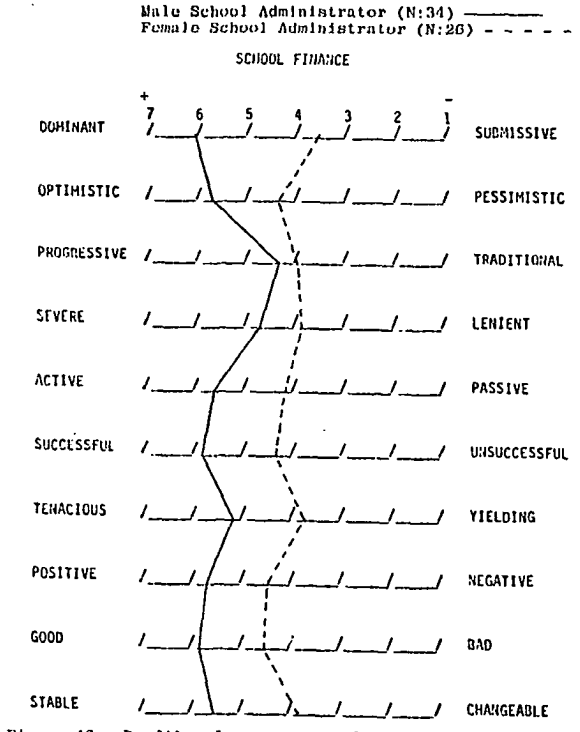


Figure 46. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

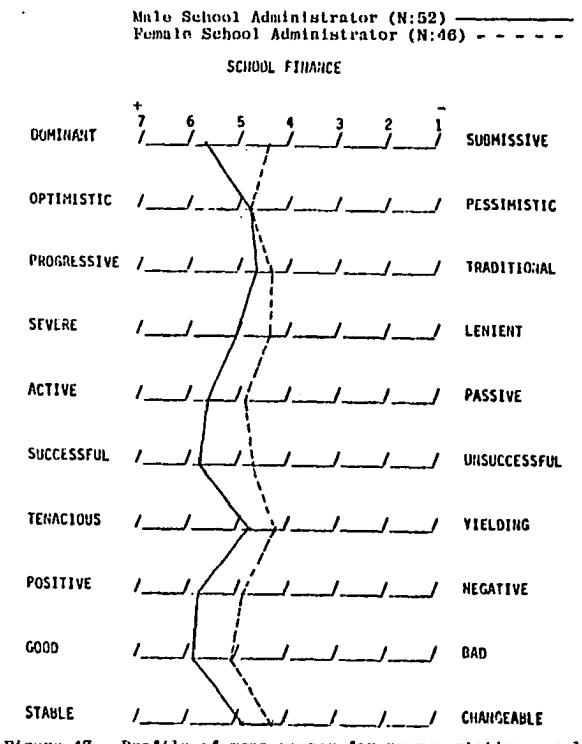


Figure 47. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

school finance. While the school board member respondents (see Figure 47) viewed the male school administrator more favorably than the female administrator, the difference in means was not as great as for the superintendent sample. The school board member respondents viewed the male and female administrators as equally optimistic.

As exhibited in Figures 48, 49, 50, and 51, on the concept of School Facilities, the male administrator was regarded slightly more favorably than the female administrator, except on the scale progressive-traditional. Again, the female administrator was seen as slightly more progressive by the total group. The student sample (see Figure 49) thought of the female administrator as being much more progressive in the area of school facilities than the male administrator and slightly more optimistic. They viewed both the female and male administrator as equally tenacious and equally stable. The superintendent sample (see Figure 50) regarded the male administrator as extremely more dominant and optimistic than the female administrator. However, they regarded both male and female administrators as equally severe. Although the school board member respondents regarded the male administrator more favorably than the female administrator in the area of school facilities, they perceived the female administrator as slightly more tenacious (see Figure 51).

In the area of school boards, Figure 52 shows that the male and female administrator were similarly viewed by the total group of respondents. The male administrator was regarded more favorably than the female administrator except on the progressive-traditional scale. The female administrator was perceived as slightly more progressive

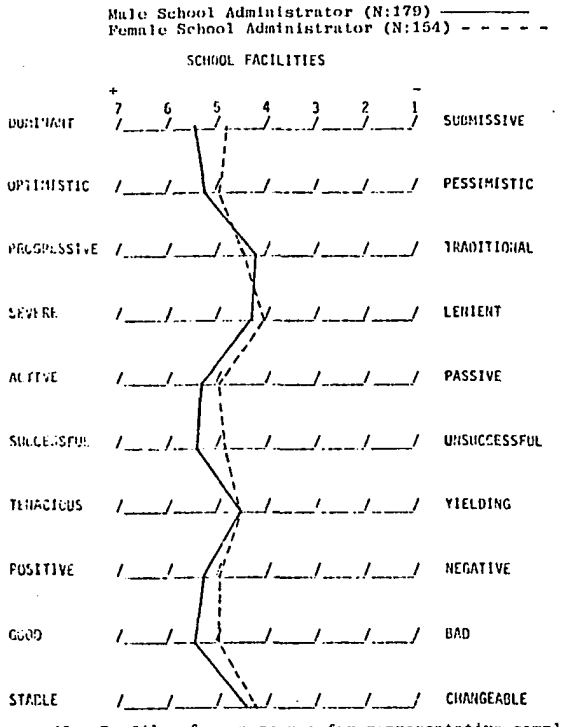


Figure 48. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

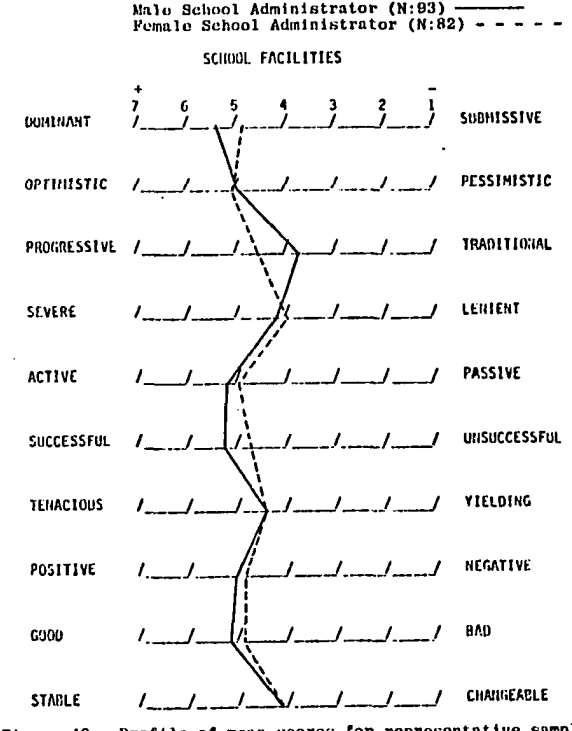


Figure 49. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

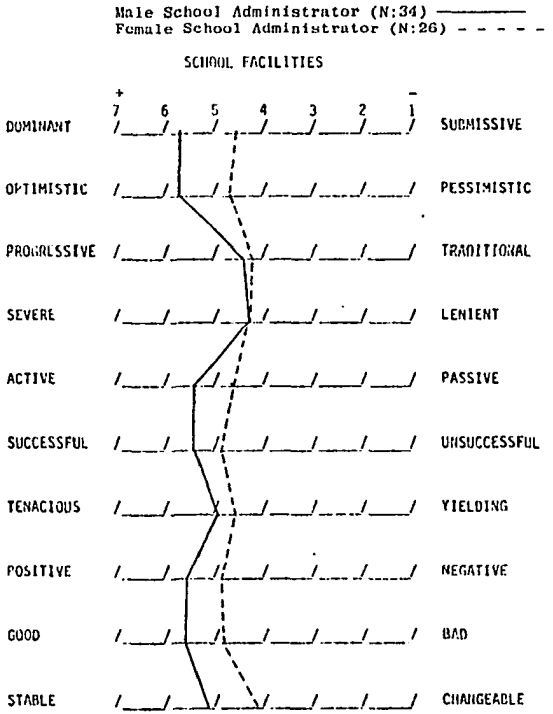


Figure 50. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

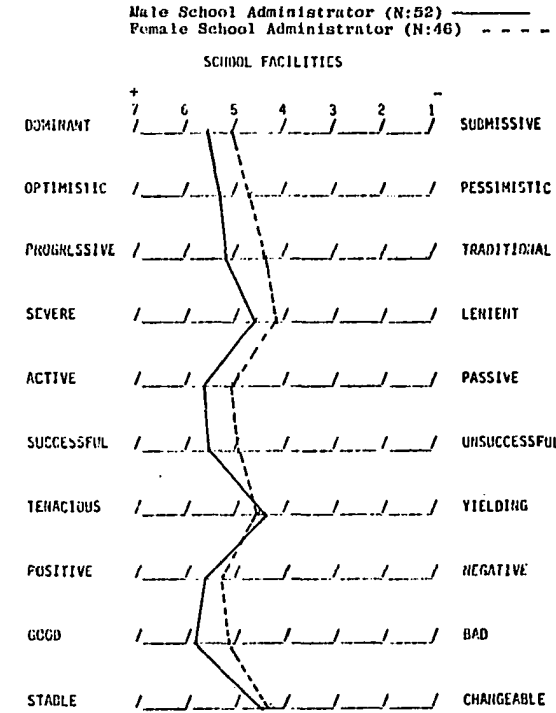


Figure 51. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

than the male administrator. The male administrator was viewed as much more dominant, successful and good than the female administrator by the total group of respondents. The educational administration student sample saw the female administrator as more optimistic and much more progressive than the male administrator (see Figure 53). On all other scales, while the male administrator was viewed more favorably, there was not much difference. The educational administration student sample disclosed that the male school administrator was too traditional and that the female school administrator was slightly too lenient. On the other hand, the superintendent sample (see Figure 54) regarded the male administrator in an extremely more favorable manner than the female administrator. They perceived the male administrator as extremely more dominant, optimistic, active, successful, positive and good than the female administrator. They also viewed the male administrator as more severe, tenacious and stable than the female administrator and slightly more progressive. The superintendent sample saw the female administrator as too submissive, extremely lenient and too changeable regarding school boards. The school board member sample exhibited their largest differences on the active-passive, successful-unsuccessful, good-bad, and stable-changeable scales (see Figure 55). They viewed the male school administrator more favorably than the female school administrator on all scales.

Figure 56 demonstrates that on the concept Community, the views of the total group ran almost the same for both male and female administrator except that the female administrator was seen as more progressive and more tenacious. Although, the female administrator

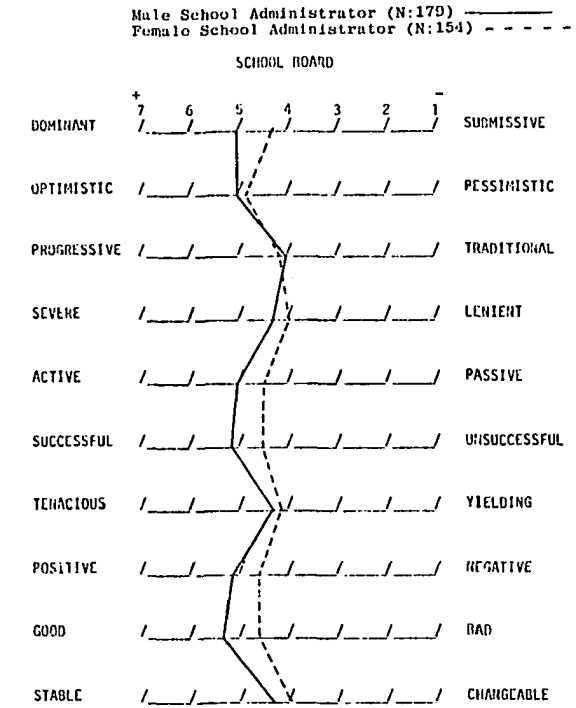


Figure 52. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

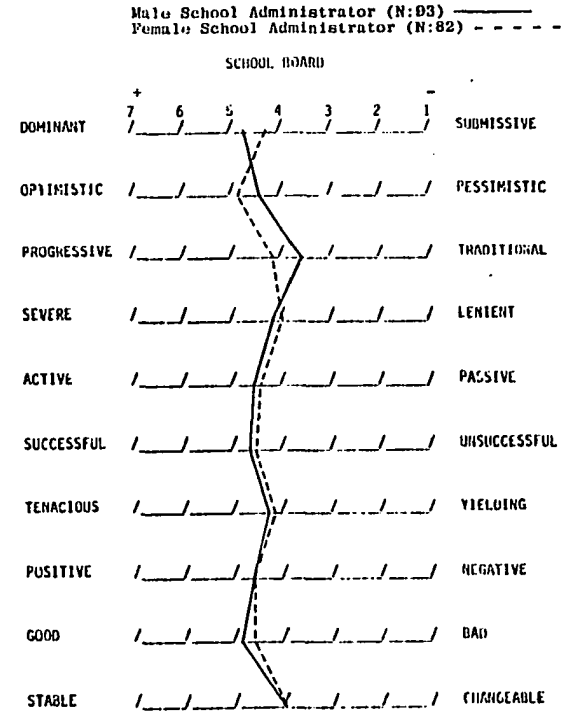


Figure 53. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

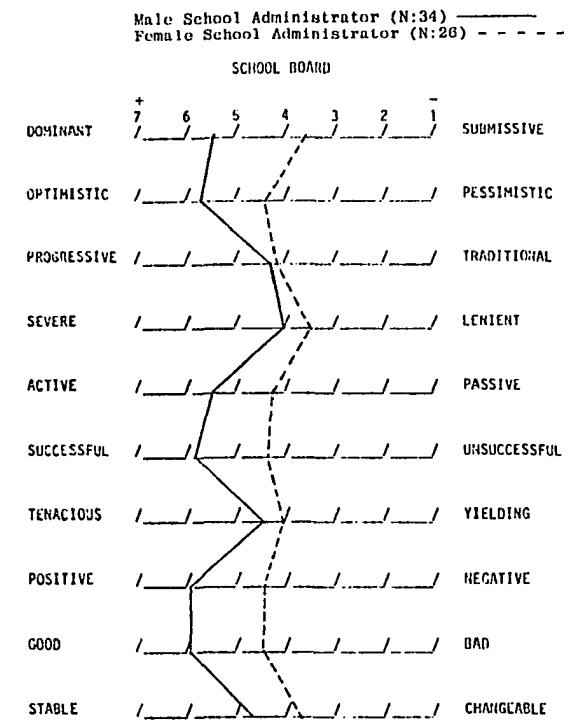


Figure 54. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

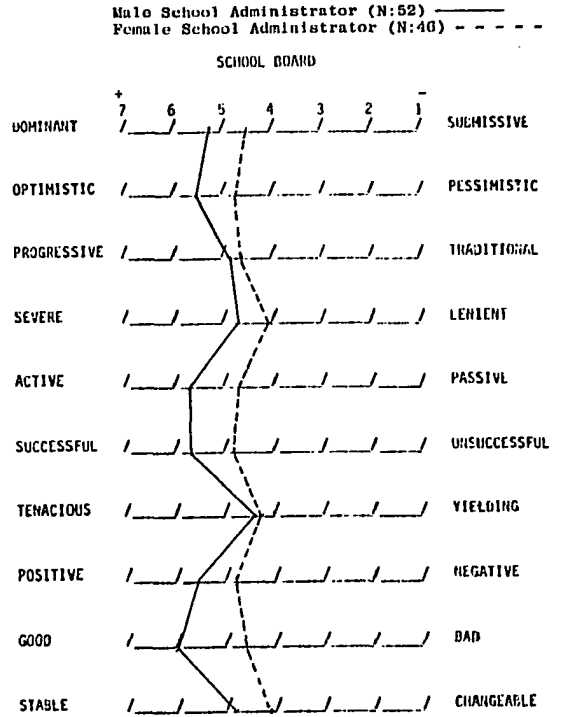


Figure 55. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

was thought to be too lenient and slightly changeable. The student sample felt that the male administrator was much too traditional and the female administrator much too lenient and slightly changeable (see Figure 57). Generally, they expressed a more favorable attitude toward the female administrator than the male administrator in the area of community, except on the scales severe-lenient, good-bad, and stable-changeable. While the superintendent respondents (see Figure 58) generally exhibited a more favorable attitude toward the male school administrator, they felt the female administrator was slightly more progressive, and more tenacious, however, much too lenient. They also rated the male administrator as slightly lenient. The largest difference was on the optimistic-pessimistic scale. They viewed the male administrator as extremely optimistic. The school board member sample perceived the male administrator in a similar manner as they did the female administrator (see Figure 59). They did express a more favorable view of the male administrator than the female administrator. Although, they regarded both sexes as being equally severe and tenacious in the area of community. Here again, the school board member sample viewed both the male and female administrator as being too lenient.

On the concept, Legislature (see Figures 60, 61, 62, and 63), the fluctuation of mean scores was very slight. The total group of respondents viewed the male administrator as more dominant, severe, successful and stable than the female administrator. They viewed the female administrator as more optimistic, progressive, active and positive than the male administrator. The male and female administrator were thought of as being equally tenacious and good. However, the mean scores

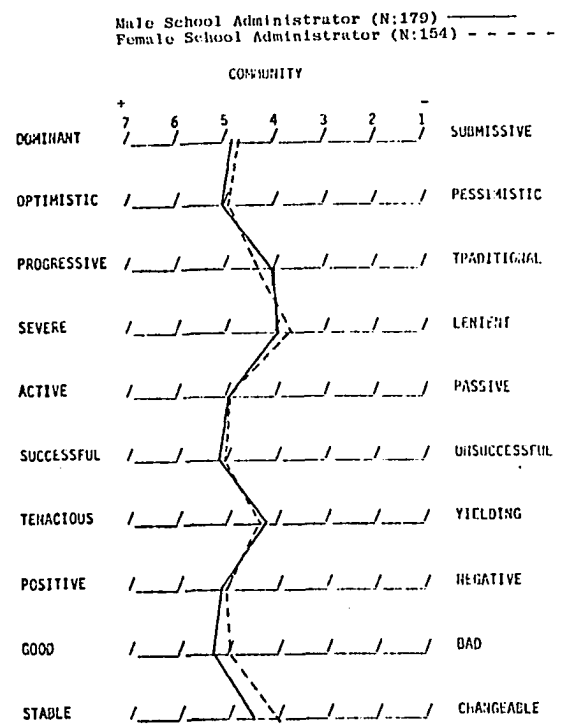


Figure 56. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

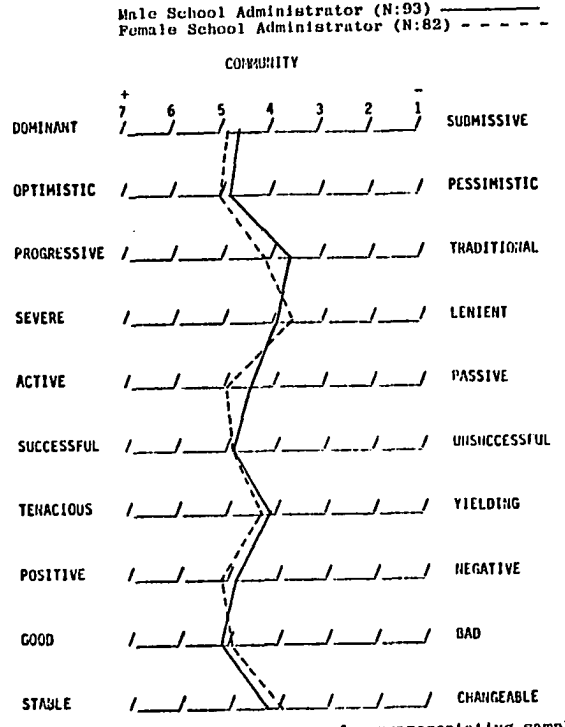


Figure 57. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

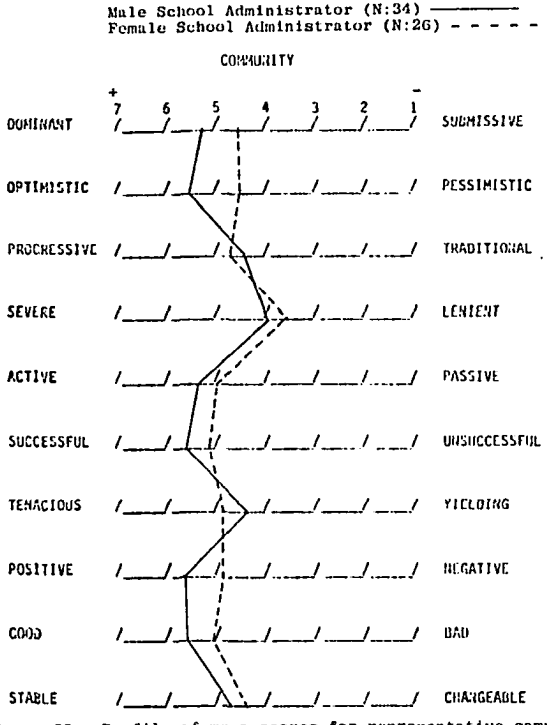


Figure 58.. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

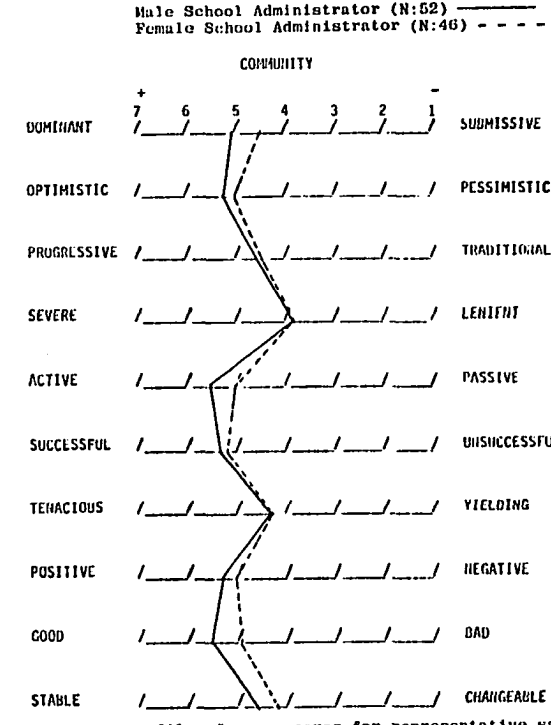


Figure 59. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

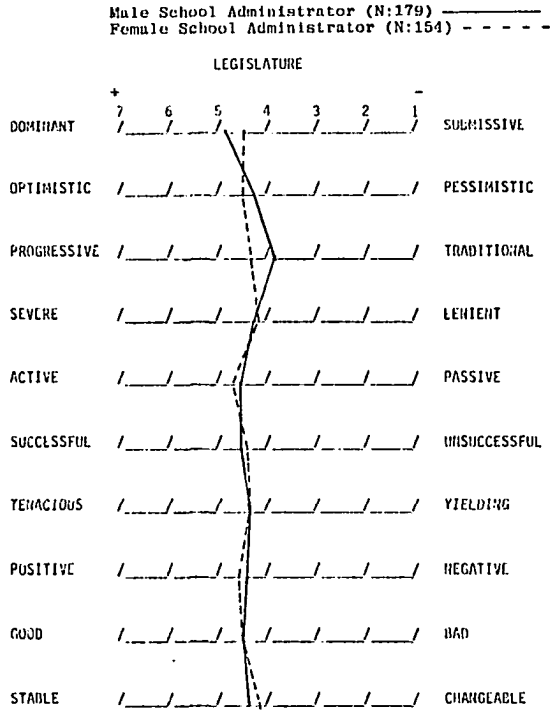


Figure 60. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents, and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

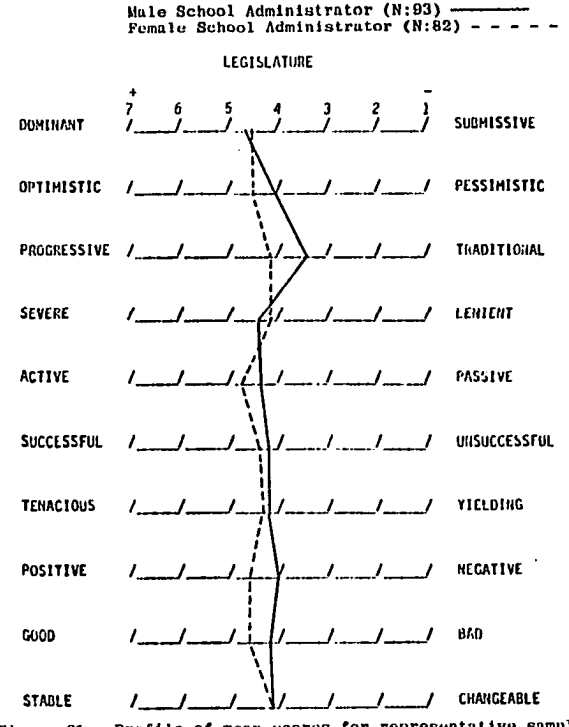


Figure 61. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

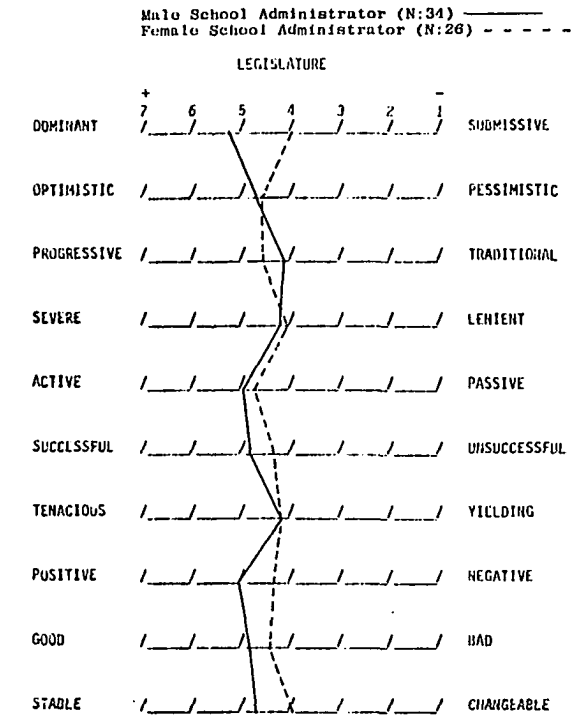


Figure 62. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

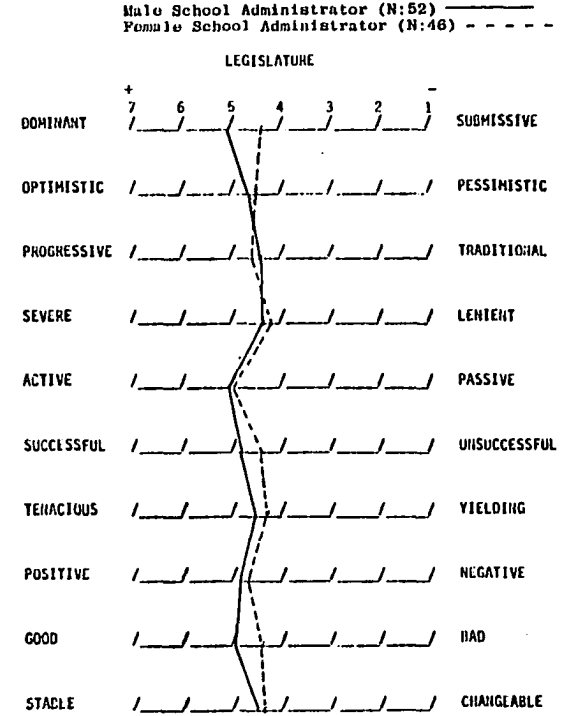


Figure 63. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

ranged very close to the mid-point. The student sample viewed the female administrator more favorably than the male administrator except on the dominant-submissive scale and the severe-lenient scale (see Figure 61). They regarded the male administrator as slightly more dominant than the female administrator and slightly more severe. The male and the female administrator were thought of as being equally stable. This group regarded the male administrator as being extremely traditional in the area of the Legislature. The superintendent sample (see Figure 62) expressed a more favorable attitude toward the male administrator than the female administrator, except on the progressive-traditional scale. Here, they saw the female administrator as being more progressive. There was a wide discrepancy on the dominant-submissive scale. On this point, they regarded male administrators as extremely more dominant than the female. Male and female administrators were perceived as equally tenacious by the superintendent respondents. These respondents saw the female administrator as being slightly submissive and slightly changeable. The school board member sample, like the superintendent sample, viewed the male administrator more favorably than the female administrator on all of the scales except progressive-traditional (see Figure 63). Here, they perceived the female administrator as being slightly more progressive. This concept showed little variation in scores. They ran close to the mid-point showing only a slightly favorable direction and almost no intensity.

The perceptions of the total group as they viewed the male and female school administrator regarding the concept of Public Relations (see Figure 64) demonstrated only slight differences. The male administrator

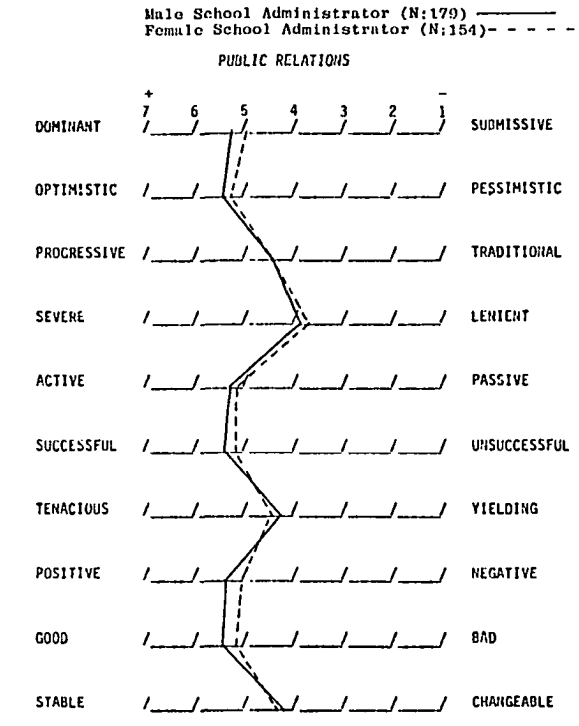


Figure 64. *Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students, Superintendents and School Board Members (Total Group) differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.*

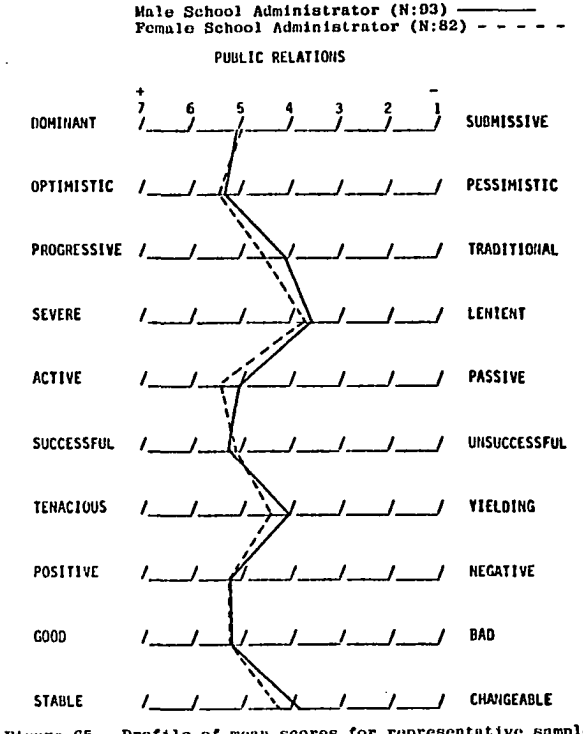


Figure 65. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Educational Administration Students differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

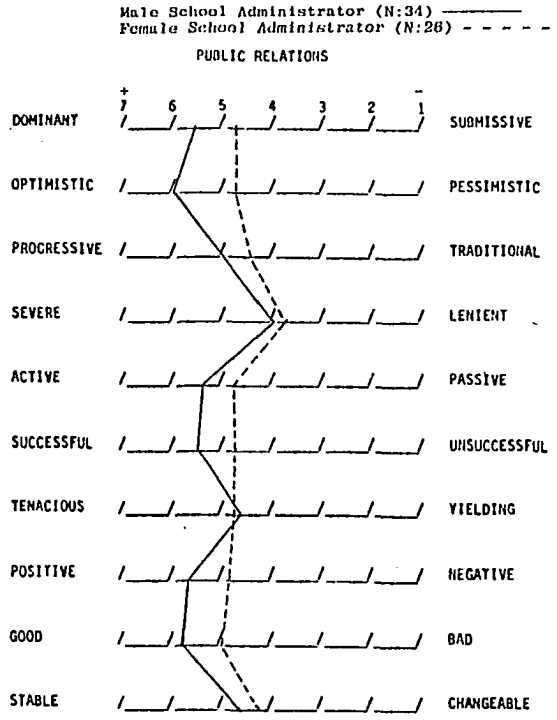


Figure 66. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of Superintendents differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

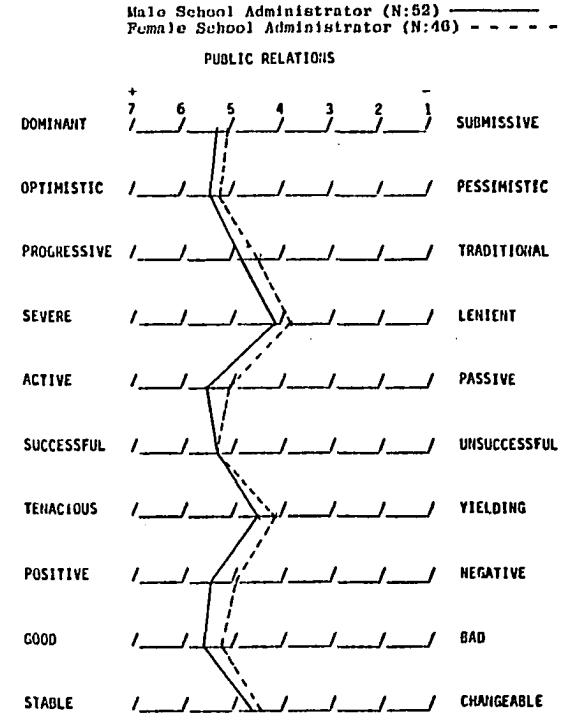


Figure 67. Profile of mean scores for representative sample of School Board Members differentiating between attitudes toward the role of male and female administrator.

was regarded more favorably except on the tenacious-yielding and the stable-changeable scales. Here, the female administrator was seen as slightly more tenacious and stable than the male administrator. The student sample also viewed the male and female administrators as being similar on the scales in the area of public relations (see Figure 65). Their views were slightly more favorable toward the female administrator than the male administrator. They viewed the female administrator as slightly more optimistic, more progressive, slightly more severe, more active, more tenacious and more stable than the male administrator. They viewed the male administrator as slightly more dominant and slightly more successful than the female administrator. The male and female administrator were regarded as equally positive and good by the student respondents. The superintendent sample (see Figure 66) was more favorable toward the male administrator than the female administrator, except on the tenacious-yielding scale. They saw the male administrator as extremely more optimistic, dominant, active, successful, positive and good than the female administrator. There was only a slightly more favorable attitude on the part of the school board member sample toward the male administrator than toward the female administrator (see Figure 67). Both the male and female school administrator were regarded as equally successful on the Public Relations concept. While the total group respondents' scores on this concept varied in intensity, only on the severe-lenient scale did the responses show an unfavorable direction. Both the male and female administrator were seen as too lenient in public relations.

Chi-square Test Results

Using the cross-tabulations where the respondents were categorized by their scores, chi-square tests were run to ascertain the level of significance on the different concepts by scale by type of respondent. Tables 10 through 26 exhibit the chi-square scores and their level of significance. Underscored are those terms which showed a significant difference at the .05 level on the male and female form for a particular concept for each of the three categories of respondents.

On the concept Management Skills (see Table 10), there were no significant differences among student male and female form responses on any of the scales. The scales dominant-submissive, optimistic-pessimistic, successful-unsuccessful, tenacious-yielding, positive-negative, good-bad and stable-changeable show a significant difference for the superintendent sample. The male school administrator is regarded more favorably than the female administrator by the superintendent sample on these scales. The school board member respondents regarded the male administrator more favorably on the dominant-submissive, successful-unsuccessful, positive-negative, and stable-changeable scales since these showed a significant difference at the .05 level.

For the concept, Ethics (see Table 11), no significant differences showed on any of the scales for the student responses. The superintendent sample responses yielded five significant scales; dominant-submissive, active-passive, successful-unsuccessful, positive-negative, and good-bad. This demonstrated that the superintendents saw the male school administrator in a more favorable manner than the

Table 10

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Management Skills					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	12.588	0.0501	22.795	0.0004	13.923	0.0305
Optimistic	1.249	0.9744	17.664	0.0071	5.677	0.4603
Progressive	11.962	0.0628	8.107	0.2304	1.680	0.9466
Severe	6.693	0.3502	9.194	0.1016	10.865	0.0926
Active	8.940	0.1770	9.277	0.0985	7.182	0.2075
Successful	5.107	0.5301	18.752	0.0021	12.995	0.0431
Tenacious	6.398	0.3801	12.600	0.0499	11.698	0.0690
Positive	4.620	0.5934	24.852	0.0001	11.330	0.0452
Good	4.711	0.4521	36.510	0.0000	10.540	0.1037
Stable	3.868	0.6945	14.243	0.0270	17.693	0.0070
Total Significant Terms	0		7		4	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

Table 11

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Ethics					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	6.654	0.3540	13.312	0.0206	4.319	0.6336
Optimistic	4.545	0.4739	4.523	0.3398	1.889	0.9296
Progressive	6.839	0.3360	12.494	0.0518	8.808	0.1847
Severe	6.328	0.3875	3.730	0.5889	3.243	0.7778
Active	11.713	0.0687	10.131	0.0383	17.154	0.0087
Successful	9.503	0.1472	12.569	0.0136	19.275	0.0037
Tenacious	3.598	0.7309	11.325	0.0788	4.951	0.5501
Positive	1.947	0.9245	16.503	0.0024	13.248	0.0393
Good	3.134	0.6794	12.149	0.0163	12.409	0.0534
Stable	3.606	0.7298	5.339	0.3759	5.781	0.4462
	0		5		3	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

female administrator on these scales. The school board member sample expressed a more favorable attitude toward the male administrator than toward the female administrator on three scales; active-passive, successful-unsuccessful, and positive-negative.

One scale showed a significant difference under the student responses on Curriculum (see Table 12). This significant difference on the progressive-traditional scale exhibited a more favorable attitude toward the female administrator than toward the male administrator on the part of the student sample. The superintendent sample showed two significant terms under the concept Curriculum. These terms, active and good showed a preference for the male administrator. The school board member respondents exhibited a more favorable attitude toward the male administrator on the term successful since this term showed a significant difference on this concept.

Regarding the concept of Discipline (see Table 13), the student respondents showed five significant scale terms; dominant, progressive, severe, active, and tenacious. The student sample expressed a more favorable attitude toward the male administrator on four of the terms; dominant, severe, active, and tenacious. However, they felt the female administrator was more progressive. Six terms resulted in a significant difference for superintendent respondents. These terms demonstrated that the superintendent sample regarded the male administrator as more dominant, optimistic, active, successful, positive and good than the female administrator. Within this area of discipline, the school board respondents also displayed a preference for the male administrator through the significant difference on the terms; dominant, severe,

Table 12

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Curriculum					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p
Dominant	11.145	0.0840	11.656	0.0701	2.450	0.8740
Optimistic	10.482	0.1058	7.087	0.1314	3.585	0.7326
Progressive	14.640	0.0233*	7.915	0.2444	5.112	0.5296
Severe	9.592	0.1429	3.929	0.6863	6.745	0.3450
Active	10.438	0.1074	12.421	0.0295	5.076	0.5341
Successful	8.247	0.2206	8.585	0.0723	14.083	0.0287
Tenacious	2.211	0.8994	3.416	0.7552	3.811	0.7022
Positive	4.791	0.4419	6.923	0.1400	5.494	0.4821
Good	2.731	0.7414	16.080	0.0029	6.938	0.3266
Stable	4.806	0.5689	9.735	0.1363	4.126	0.6597
Total Significant Terms	1		2		1	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

[b] * = The female administrator is indicated as more favorable than the male administrator.

Table 13

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Discipline					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	χ^2	p	χ^2	p	χ^2	p
Dominant	31.772	0.0000	23.946	0.0005	20.379	0.0011
Optimistic	3.978	0.6797	15.271	0.0182	7.969	0.2404
Progressive	27.612	0.0001*	12.071	0.0604	3.081	0.7987
Severe	17.679	0.0071	9.880	0.1298	17.757	0.0069
Active	14.783	0.0220	10.770	0.0293	19.675	0.0032
Successful	5.645	0.4641	17.775	0.0032	18.490	0.0051
Tenacious	12.620	0.0495	10.136	0.1191	22.267	0.0011
Positive	3.143	0.7907	14.616	0.0121	17.362	0.0080
Good	8.719	0.1900	21.472	0.0007	22.799	0.0009
Stable	6.846	0.3353	10.206	0.0696	15.380	0.0175
Total Significance Terms	5		6		8	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

[b] * = The female administrator is indicated as more favorable than

active, successful, tenacious, positive, good and stable.

Within the area of personnel (see Table 14) the student sample regarded the female administrator as more progressive than the male administrator since this term was significant. Terms which showed significant differences under the area of personnel by superintendents were dominant, optimistic, active, successful, positive, good and stable. The superintendent sample showed a more favorable attitude toward the male administrator. The school board respondents indicated a more favorable attitude toward the male administrator on one scale under the concept Personnel. The scale that showed the significant difference was good-bad.

Evaluation (see Table 15) showed one significant term for the student respondents, severe-lenient. The superintendent responses identified three significant terms; optimistic, successful and good. The school board sample showed one significant scale, severe-lenient. All of the respondents favored the male administrator on this concept.

The concept, Decision-making, yielded 16 significant terms (see Table 16), three from the student responses, seven from the superintendent responses and six from the school board member responses. The student respondents favored the male administrator as being more dominant and optimistic, and the female administrator as being more progressive. The superintendent respondents favored the male administrator on seven significant terms; dominant, optimistic, active, successful, positive, good, and stable. The board member respondents also perceived the male administrator more favorably than the female administrator showing six significant terms on this concept; dominant,

Table 14

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Personnel: Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	4.781	0.5722	11.381	0.0443	9.702	0.0841
Optimistic	10.783	0.0953	24.960	0.0003	6.397	0.3802
Progressive	12.881	0.0450*	10.496	0.1053	4.089	0.6646
Severe	7.527	0.2748	1.068	0.9569	7.193	0.3034
Active	5.303	0.5056	19.469	0.0016	9.127	0.1041
Successful	10.405	0.1086	33.700	0.0000	12.149	0.0587
Tenacious	10.080	0.1213	6.974	0.2226	4.948	0.5505
Positive	5.509	0.4804	23.971	0.0005	7.503	0.2768
Good	4.377	0.6258	26.313	0.0002	15.168	0.0097
Stable	1.066	0.9830	19.231	0.0038	6.603	0.3591
Total Significant Terms	1		7		1	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

[b] * = The female administrator is indicated as more favorable than the male administrator.

Table 15

Level of Significance on Chi-Square Tests

Scales	Evaluation: Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	6.655	0.3539	9.229	0.1611	9.342	0.0962
Optimistic	2.473	0.8715	12.670	0.0486	8.615	0.1964
Progressive	6.608	0.3587	8.037	0.1542	8.646	0.1945
Severe	13.354	0.0377*	4.947	0.4224	13.376	0.0374
Active	5.317	0.5039	5.407	0.3682	6.280	0.3926
Successful	1.354	0.9686	14.985	0.0047	5.736	0.4534
Tenacious	3.968	0.6810	6.221	0.2853	10.143	0.1188
Positive	0.624	0.9960	10.663	0.0585	7.911	0.2447
Good	3.657	0.7230	15.056	0.0046	11.921	0.0638
Stable	7.439	0.2821	5.325	0.3775	7.974	0.2400
Total Significant Terms	1		3		1	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

[b] * = The female administrator is indicated as more favorable than

Table 16

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Decision-Making					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	21.836	0.0013	17.047	0.0091	14.663	0.0230
Optimistic	13.257	0.0391	14.285	0.0266	14.630	0.0233
Progressive	15.012	0.0202*	4.424	0.6195	11.973	0.0626
Severe	8.034	0.2356	7.425	0.1909	14.330	0.0262
Active	8.049	0.2346	16.750	0.0102	18.175	0.0058
Successful	11.113	0.0850	18.119	0.0028	11.154	0.0837
Tenacious	2.871	0.8249	10.724	0.0973	7.324	0.1977
Positive	4.668	0.5870	18.017	0.0029	10.332	0.0664
Good	6.571	0.3624	15.313	0.0091	15.216	0.0186
Stable	4.488	0.6110	15.859	0.0073	18.526	0.0050
Total Significant Terms	3		7		6	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

[b] * = The female administrator is indicated as more favorable than the male administrator.

Table 17

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Leadership					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	18.905	0.0043	17.180	0.0086	22.077	0.0012
Optimistic	6.200	0.4012	9.390	0.0945	10.392	0.1091
Progressive	15.057	0.0198*	8.899	0.1794	5.770	0.4495
Severe	5.744	0.4525	7.553	0.2727	12.997	0.0431
Active	5.400	0.4936	14.169	0.0278	9.748	0.1357
Successful	10.341	0.1110	23.096	0.0003	17.276	0.0083
Tenacious	6.327	0.3875	9.865	0.0791	7.887	0.2465
Positive	7.977	0.2398	15.139	0.0098	9.978	0.1256
Good	11.202	0.0823	26.516	0.0000	15.762	0.0151
Stable	5.330	0.5022	16.297	0.0060	8.405	0.2099
Total Significant Terms	2		6		4	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

[b] * = The female administrator is indicated as more favorable than

optimistic, severe, active, good and stable.

Table 17 demonstrates that for the concept Leadership, two significant terms resulted for the student responses. The student sample viewed the male administrator as significantly more dominant but the female administrator as significantly more progressive. The superintendent and board member samples regarded the male administrator more favorably. The significant terms under superintendent responses were dominant, active, successful, positive, good and stable. The school board responses demonstrated four significant terms; dominant, severe, successful and good.

In Table 18, the student responses exhibited two significant terms under the concept Legal Responsibilities. They regarded the male administrator as more dominant and more severe than the female. The superintendent respondents regarded the male administrator as more dominant, optimistic, active, successful, positive, and stable. The significant terms for the school board member sample under the concept Legal Responsibilities were three. They felt the male administrator was more dominant, severe and good than the female administrator.

Communications disclosed five significant terms; two for the student responses and three for the superintendent responses (see Table 19). The terms progressive and active showed a significant difference. The student respondents viewed the female administrator as more progressive and more active. The superintendent respondents perceived the male administrator as more dominant, successful and good.

In the area of school finance (see Table 20), the student respondents regarded the male administrator as more dominant and the

Table 18

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Legal Responsibilities					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	13.605	0.0344	21.480	0.0007	24.958	0.0003
Optimistic	3.494	0.7448	14.391	0.0133	11.942	0.0633
Progressive	9.855	0.1309	10.203	0.1164	6.066	0.4159
Severe	14.365	0.0258	4.198	0.5212	19.777	0.0030
Active	9.718	0.1370	13.258	0.0211	12.526	0.0512
Successful	1.956	0.9237	13.495	0.0192	9.448	0.1499
Tenacious	9.683	0.1386	6.148	0.2921	5.109	0.5299
Positive	3.267	0.7747	16.008	0.0068	9.607	0.1422
Good	2.616	0.8552	10.400	0.0647	11.633	0.0402
Stable	7.372	0.2878	18.194	0.0058	6.374	0.3827
Total Significant Terms	2		6		3	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

Table 19

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	*Communications*					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	7.569	0.2714	12.666	0.0487	6.414	0.2680
Optimistic	8.081	0.2322	9.448	0.0925	1.882	0.8653
Progressive	13.936	0.0304*	12.414	0.0533	5.079	0.5337
Severe	4.214	0.6477	2.477	0.7799	7.237	0.2995
Active	19.304	0.0037*	4.214	0.5191	6.535	0.2576
Successful	9.197	0.1628	11.213	0.0473	5.335	0.5017
Tenacious	9.564	0.1443	5.734	0.3330	5.263	0.3846
Positive	3.132	0.7922	10.933	0.0527	7.157	0.3066
Good	6.386	0.3814	12.590	0.0275	6.837	0.2330
Stable	10.091	0.1209	11.590	0.0718	8.485	0.2047
Total Significant Terms	2		3		0	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

[b] * = The female administrator is indicated as more favorable than

female administrator as more progressive. The superintendent sample showed an extremely favorable attitude toward the male administrator exhibiting 9 out of 10 significant terms. Only the term severe showed no significance. The school board member sample demonstrated almost as strong a preference for the male administrator. Only the terms optimistic, progressive and tenacious showed no significant difference.

For the concept School Facilities, the male school administrator was shown preference by all three groups (see Table 21). The student respondents saw the male administrator as more tenacious; the superintendent respondents saw him as more dominant and good; and the school board member respondents saw him as more progressive than the female administrator.

The student sample showed no significant terms under the concept School Boards (see Table 22). The superintendent respondents regarded male administrators more favorably than female administrators. They saw him as dominant, optimistic, active, successful, positive, good and stable. The school board member sample indicated a preference for the male administrator through the significant terms; optimistic, successful, positive and good.

For the concept, Community (see Table 23), no significant terms appeared. Shown in Table 24, the concept Legislature demonstrated only two significant terms; the term severe for the student responses and the term dominant for the superintendent responses. Both saw the male administrator more favorably than the female administrator on these terms.

Table 20

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	School Finance					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p^a	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	20.978	0.0019	38.883	0.0000	18.408	0.0053
Optimistic	5.123	0.5281	21.482	0.0015	4.377	0.6258
Progressive	23.141	0.0008*	15.962	0.0140	8.421	0.2088
Severe	11.475	0.0748	8.872	0.1809	16.392	0.0118
Active	8.364	0.2126	16.667	0.0106	11.625	0.0403
Successful	3.350	0.7638	24.893	0.0001	17.309	0.0040
Tenacious	4.870	0.5606	15.679	0.0156	7.690	0.2617
Positive	9.516	0.1466	18.420	0.0025	13.086	0.0417
Good	4.357	0.6285	19.236	0.0017	11.197	0.0476
Stable	14.900	0.0210	22.127	0.0011	13.389	0.0373
Total Significant Terms	3		9		7	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

[b] * = The female administrator is indicated as more favorable than the male administrator.

Table 21

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	School Facilities					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p^a	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	9.983	0.1254	15.192	0.0188	6.569	0.3625
Optimistic	6.338	0.3864	8.639	0.1949	5.665	0.4617
Progressive	11.281	0.0801	6.729	0.3466	13.919	0.0305
Severe	10.487	0.1056	4.200	0.6496	7.508	0.2764
Active	6.908	0.3295	5.353	0.4994	9.035	0.1077
Successful	8.508	0.2032	7.341	0.1965	6.125	0.4094
Tenacious	17.122	0.0088	2.357	0.7979	12.130	0.0591
Positive	6.927	0.3276	7.623	0.1783	3.801	0.5784
Good	9.275	0.1587	14.009	0.0156	9.498	0.1475
Stable	5.770	0.4495	9.613	0.1419	6.990	0.3218
Total Significant Terms	1		2		1	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$

Table 22

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	School Boards					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	6.013	0.4217	18.281	0.0056	7.247	0.2986
Optimistic	3.508	0.7429	16.717	0.0104	12.687	0.0483
Progressive	6.902	0.3300	3.680	0.7199	3.819	0.7011
Severe	8.420	0.2089	4.066	0.5400	7.862	0.2484
Active	7.546	0.2733	14.584	0.0238	12.195	0.0578
Successful	4.794	0.5705	30.948	0.0000	16.032	0.0136
Tenacious	3.227	0.7799	2.539	0.8641	2.615	0.8553
Positive	2.802	0.8333	23.773	0.0006	13.572	0.0348
Good	3.639	0.7255	26.072	0.0002	20.694	0.0021
Stable	4.457	0.6150	18.554	0.0050	7.326	0.2918
Total Significant Terms	0		7		4	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

Table 23

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Community					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	x^2	p[a]	x^2	p	x^2	p
Dominant	9.653	0.1401	5.816	0.4442	4.039	0.5438
Optimistic	10.009	0.1243	9.590	0.1430	4.201	0.6495
Profressive	9.681	0.1387	7.443	0.2818	3.612	0.7290
Severe	5.659	0.4624	6.332	0.3871	1.911	0.9277
Active	3.891	0.6915	5.630	0.4659	8.207	0.1452
Successful	2.566	0.8610	6.196	0.2876	4.160	0.6551
Tenacious	3.806	0.7028	4.174	0.5246	2.809	0.8325
Positive	5.830	0.4425	11.170	0.0833	9.041	0.1713
Good	3.617	0.7283	8.888	0.1800	10.684	0.0987
Stable	7.242	0.2991	4.402	0.6224	7.696	0.2612
Total Significant Terms	0		0		0	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a] $p < .05$.

Table 24

Level of Significance on Chi-Square Tests

Scales	Legislature					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	χ^2	p[a]	χ^2	p	χ^2	p
Dominant	2.661	0.8500	13.398	0.0371	6.900	0.3302
Optimistic	9.906	0.1287	8.412	0.2095	4.633	0.5917
Progressive	7.950	0.2418	6.769	0.3428	4.804	0.5692
Severe	15.521	0.0166	9.921	0.1280	5.388	0.3704
Active	6.212	0.3999	3.830	0.5741	0.731	0.9812
Successful	12.183	0.0580	2.806	0.7298	6.909	0.3294
Tenacious	3.941	0.6846	5.983	0.3079	3.446	0.7511
Positive	12.283	0.0559	5.106	0.4030	5.419	0.4914
Good	7.856	0.2489	4.480	0.4826	8.493	0.2042
Stable	6.075	0.4148	9.162	0.1647	6.692	0.3503
Total Significant Terms	1		1		0	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a]$p < .05$

Table 25

Level of Significance on Chi-square Tests

Scales	Public Relations					
	Students		Superintendents		School Boards	
	χ^2	p[a]	χ^2	p	χ^2	p
Dominant	6.006	0.4225	8.792	0.1102	3.869	0.6943
Optimistic	5.606	0.4687	19.724	0.0014	7.325	0.1976
Progressive	7.022	0.3189	12.743	0.0259	4.364	0.6275
Severe	8.506	0.2034	2.893	0.5758	4.336	0.6313
Active	8.652	0.1941	7.688	0.1743	7.412	0.1918
Successful	8.117	0.2296	7.553	0.1826	3.238	0.7785
Tenacious	9.936	0.1274	3.411	0.6370	9.175	0.1640
Positive	2.615	0.8554	10.811	0.0553	9.719	0.1370
Good	6.548	0.3647	10.045	0.0740	12.840	0.0457
Stable	9.183	0.1635	16.763	0.0102	5.152	0.5244
Total Significant Terms	0		3		1	

Note. Statistically significant terms are underlined.

[a]$p < .05$.

Public relations exhibited significant terms for the superintendent and school board samples (see Table 25). Both groups of respondents showed a preference for the male administrator. The superintendent respondents saw the male administrator as more optimistic, progressive and stable in the area of public relations. The good-bad scale showed a significant difference according to the school board member responses.

Summary

On seven of the 16 concepts, the student respondents felt the female administrator would be more progressive. On one concept, the student sample saw the female administrator as more severe and on another concept as more active. All other significant scale terms under the concepts showed a preference for the male administrator. The concepts which showed the greatest number of significant terms were Discipline and School Finance with 19 significant terms each. Decision-making showed 16 significant terms; followed by Leadership with 12 significant terms; and Management Skills, Legal Responsibilities and School Boards, all showing 11 significant terms. The only concept showing no significant terms was Community. Here, the scores were slightly higher for both male and female forms. The concept Legislature showed only two significant terms. The scores on this concept showed the male and female administrator as neither favorable nor unfavorable.

The number of times that each scale term showed a significant difference within the concepts by respondent groups, students, superintendents and board members, is exhibited in

Table 26. The progressive-traditional scale showed a significant

Table 26

Total Number of Significant Scales Across Concepts[a]

Scales	Respondent Groups Students	Superintendents	School Boards
Dominant-Submissive	5	12	6
Optimistic-Pessimistic	1	9	2
Progressive-Traditional	7	2	1
Severe-Lenient	4	0	5
Active-Passive	2	9	4
Successful-Unsuccessful	0	11	7
Tenacious-Yielding	2	2	1
Positive-Negative	0	9	5
Good-Bad	0	12	8
Stable-Changeable	1	8	4

Note. This shows the number of scale terms showing a significant difference ($p < .05$) across the 16 concepts by groups of respondents.

[a]Total number of significant scales: Students = 22; Superintendents = 74; School Board Members = 43.

difference more times for the student responses than the other nine scales. The terms successful, positive and good did not show any significant differences on any of the concepts by student respondents. The successful-unsuccessful and the good-bad scales showed the largest number of significant differences according to superintendent and school board member responses. Only the severe-lenient scale showed

no significant difference in superintendent responses. All the scales showed a significant difference at least once for school board member responses. All superintendent and school board member responses showing a significant difference were male administrator-oriented. There were 22 significant terms for student responses, 74 significant terms for superintendent responses and 43 significant terms for school board member responses.

Testing the Hypotheses

In order to test the eight hypotheses ($p < .05$) proposed in this study, parametric tests were employed. Hypothesis H_{o1} was tested by the one-way analysis of variance. This null hypothesis stated that there was no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among the total group of respondents; educational administration students, superintendents and school board members from Oklahoma.

To conduct the one-way analysis of variance, an over-all mean score was computed for each respondent (n = 333). The results are demonstrated in Table 27. According to the F Distribution Table,

Table 27

Analysis of Variance

Source	df	Sum of Squares	Mean Squares	F Ratio	F Prob
Between groups	1	7.2262	7.2266	13.696	0.000
Within groups	331	174.6523	0.5277		
Total	332	181.8789			

an F value of 3.87 or greater is necessary to reject the null hypothesis at the .05 level. The F value for this test was 13.696 resulting in a probability of 0.000. The null hypothesis was rejected. It can be concluded that there is a significant difference in attitude toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male and when filled by a female among superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma.

Hypothesis H_{o2} was tested by a 2 x 3 ANOVA. This null hypothesis stated that there was no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male and when filled by a female among the three categories of respondents; superintendents, school board members and educational administration students from Oklahoma. Table 28 presents the results of this ANOVA. The main

Table 28

Analysis of Variance

Overall Mean by Form of Questionnaire
Classification of Respondents

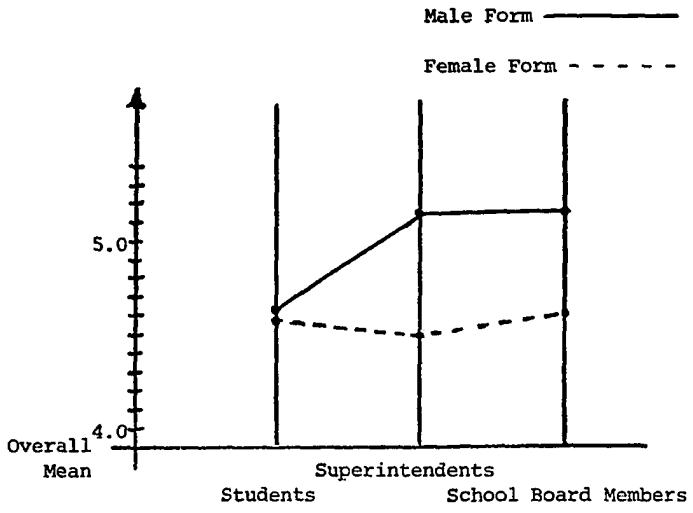
Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Signif of F*
Main Effects	12.797	3	4.266	8.567	0.001
Form	7.103	1	7.103	14.266	0.001
Class	5.566	2	2.783	5.589	0.004
2-way interaction					
Form Class	6.021	2	3.011	6.046	0.003

Note. n = 333

*$p < .05$.

effects of each variable, form and categories of respondents, showed a significance at the .05 level. The interaction of these two variables also showed a significant difference at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. It can be concluded that there is a significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male and when filled by a female among the three categories of respondents.

Because the interaction between form and categories of respondents showed a statistically significant difference, the Tukey Individual Comparisons test was employed to identify the causal relationship. In Figure 68, the interaction among the variables is demonstrated showing the t values for each interaction. For this test, the critical value of t showed to be 2.90. For these tests to show a significance at the .05 level, they had to exceed this critical value. Six comparisons showed a significant difference at the .05 level. These statistically significant differences appeared in the comparisons of: (a) the educational administration student responses to the female form and the school board member responses to the male form, (b) the educational administration student responses to the female form and the superintendent responses to the male form, (c) superintendent responses to the male form and superintendent responses to the female form, (d) superintendent responses to the male form and the school board member responses to the female form, (e) school board member responses to the male form and the superintendent responses to the female form, and (f) the school board member responses to the male form and their responses to the female form. There was little difference in the way the educational administration student respondents viewed the



Significant t Values

t_1=0.3932	t_3=4.3078*	t_5=3.8019 *	t_7=0.7056	t_9=3.5996 *
t_2=3.8118 *	t_4=1.2285	t_6=4.0660*	t_8=3.2828 *	t_{crit}=2.90

Categories of Respondents

*$p < .05$

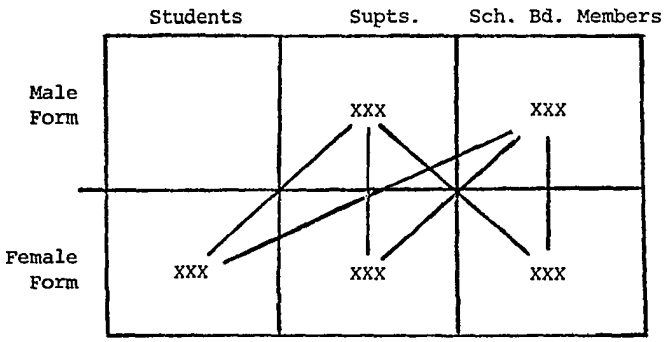


Figure 68. Results of Tukey Individual Comparisons Test showing significant differences between form of questionnaire and categories of respondents.

male school administrator and the female administrator. The superintendent and school board member respondents regarded the male administrator significantly more favorably than the female administrator.

Hypothesis H_{o3} was tested by a 2 x 2 ANOVA. The null hypothesis proposed that there was no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male and when filled by a female among superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma who had worked with a female administrator and those who had not. The results of this test are presented in Table 29. The main effects showed no significance for

Table 29

Analysis of Variance

Overall Mean by Form of Questionnaire
Female Administrator in District

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Signif of of F*
Main Effects	12.821	2	6.411	12.589	0.001
Form	12.756	1	12.756	25.049	0.001
FMA	0.070	1	0.070	0.137	0.999
2-way interaction					
Form FMA	0.137	1	0.137	0.270	0.999

Note. n = 158

*p .05.

FMA at the .05 level. The interaction between form and FMA was not statistically significant either. As a result of this test, the null hypothesis was accepted, and it can be assumed that there is no significant

difference in attitudes toward the male or female administrator between superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma who have worked with a female administrator and those who have not.

To test Hypothesis H_{o4} a 2 x 2 ANOVA was used. This null hypothesis stated that there was no significant difference among attitudes of male and female respondents toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male and when filled by a female. Table 30 demonstrates the results. The F value showed that the main effects of sex of

Table 30

Analysis of Variance

Overall Mean by Form of Questionnaire
Sex of Respondent

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Signif of of F*
Main Effects	7.096	2	3.548	7.415	0.001
Form	6.923	1	6.923	14.468	0.001
Sex	0.211	1	.211	0.442	0.999
2-way interaction					
Form Sex	15.776	1	15.776	32.969	0.001

Note. n = 332. One case missing.

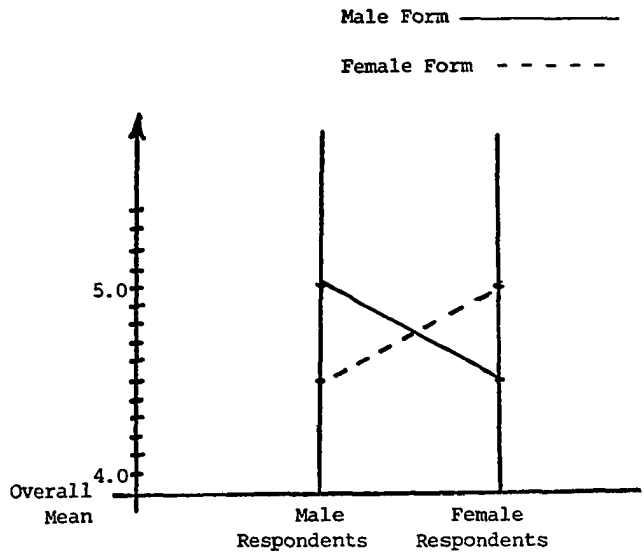
*p .05.

respondent were not significant at the .05 level. However, the interaction between form of questionnaire and sex of respondent showed a significant difference at the .001 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. It can be concluded that there is a significant difference

in attitudes toward the male and female administrator due to sex of respondent among the superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma. When the Tukey test was applied (see Figure 69), a significant difference was found between male respondents to the male form and male respondents to the female form. A significant difference was also found between female respondents to the male form and female respondents to the female form. The male respondents from the three groups viewed the male administrator more favorably; the female respondents viewed the female administrator more favorably.

A 2 x 3 ANOVA was used to test Hypothesis H_{o5} which presented that there was no significant difference in attitudes toward the male or female administrator among young, middle years or older superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma. Table 31 presents the results of this test. Although the main effects of form and age showed a significance at the .05 level, the interaction between the two was not significant. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted. It can be concluded that there is no significant difference in attitudes toward the male and female administrator due to age of respondents among superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma.

Hypothesis H_{o6}, which stated that there was no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male and when filled by a female among superintendents and school board members of small, medium and large school districts in Oklahoma, was tested by a 2 x 3 ANOVA. The ANOVA found a significant



Significant t Values

t_1=6.0548* t_2=0.6387 t_3=0.7039 t_4=3.2822*

t_{crit}=2.60 *$p < .05$

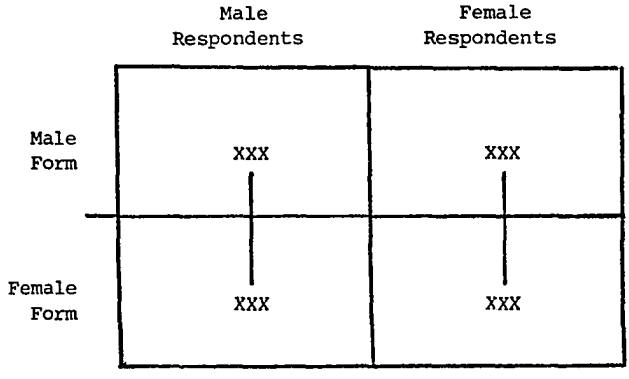


Figure 69. Results of Tukey Individual Comparisons Test showing significant differences between form of questionnaire and sex of respondent.

difference in the main effects of form and size of district at the .05 level (see Table 32). The interaction between the two variables showed

Table 31

Analysis of Variance

Overall Mean by Form of Questionnaire
Age of Respondent

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Signif of F*
Main Effects	10.291	3	3.430	6.597	0.001
Form	7.085	1	7.085	13.625	0.001
Age	3.407	2	1.703	3.276	0.038
2-way interaction					
Form Age	0.015	2	0.007	0.014	0.999

Note. n = 332. One case missing.

*p .05.

Table 32

Analysis of Variance

Overall Mean by Form of Questionnaire
Size of District

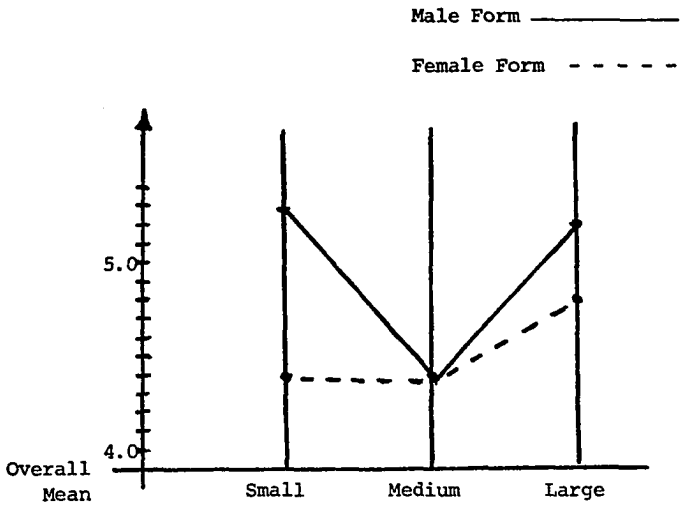
Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Signif of F*
Main Effects	19.228	4	4.807	10.549	0.001
Form	10.470	1	10.470	22.976	0.001
Size of District	6.477	3	2.159	4.738	0.004
2-way interaction					
Form Size	3.339	2	1.669	3.663	0.027

Note. n = 158

*p .05.

a significant difference at .027. Therefore, the null hypothesis was rejected. It was concluded that size of district does make a difference in attitudes toward the male or female administrator among superintendents and school board members in Oklahoma. When a Tukey was applied to these variables, form and size of district (see Figure 70), five t values showed a significance at the .05 level. A significant difference was found: (a) between the respondents of the male and female forms from small districts, (b) between the female form respondents of small districts and the male form respondents of large districts, (c) between female form respondents of medium districts and male form respondents of small districts, (d) between female form respondents of medium districts and male form respondents of large districts, and (e) between male form respondents of small districts and female form respondents of large districts. The respondents from small district had a significantly more favorable view of the male administrator than the female administrator while the respondents from large districts did not show a significant difference between their view of the male and female administrator, they did show a higher regard for the male administrator. There was a very slight difference in attitudes of respondents from medium size districts toward the male and female administrator.

To test Hypothesis H_{07}, a 2 x 6 ANOVA was used. This hypothesis proposed that there was no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of male and female administrators among school board members, superintendents and educational administration students in Oklahoma



Significant t Values

t_1=4.9421*	t_3=4.4463*	t_5=0.1156	t_7=2.9693*	t_9=2.4208
t_2=0.1377	t_4=4.3085*	t_6=3.8901*	t_8=1.5993	t_{crit}=2.90

*$p < .05$

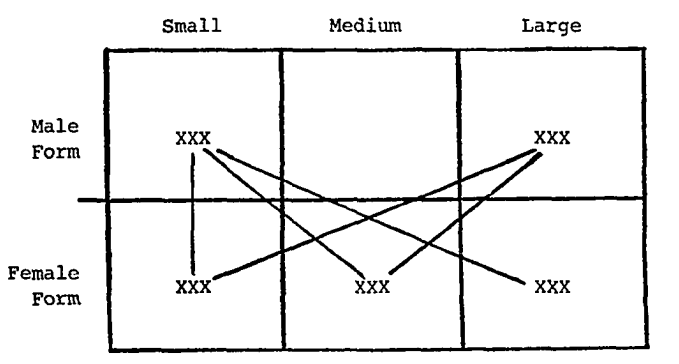


Figure 70. Results of Tukey Individual Comparisons Test showing significant differences between form of questionnaire and size of district.

having less than a High School diploma, a High School diploma, a Bachelors degree, a Masters degree, a Professional certificate or a Doctors degree. The results shown in Table 33 indicate that there was no significant difference due to the main effects of educational level.

Table 33

Analysis of Variance

Overall Mean by Form of Questionnaire
Educational Level

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Signif of F*
Main Effects	7.267	4	1.817	3.549	0.008
Form	4.512	1	4.512	8.813	0.003
Education	2.767	3	0.922	1.802	0.145
2-way interaction					
Form Education	0.101	3	0.034	0.066	0.999

Note. n = 279

*$p < .05$.

The interaction between form and educational level showed no significant difference, so the null hypothesis was accepted. It can be assumed that there is no difference in attitudes toward male or female administrators among superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma due to educational level of the groups.

Hypothesis H_{o8} set forth that there was no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of male and female administrators

among new, experienced or veteran superintendents, school board members, and educational administration students in Oklahoma. To test this hypothesis, a 2 x 3 ANOVA was used. In Table 34, it is shown that neither the main effects of experience in education nor the interaction between form and experience in education, resulted in a significant difference at the .05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis was accepted, and it

Table 34

Analysis of Variance

Overall Mean by Form of Questionnaire
Experience in Education

Source of Variation	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Signif of F*
Main Effects	7.848	3	2.616	4.983	0.002
Form	6.515	1	6.515	12.410	0.001
Experience	0.964	2	0.482	0.918	0.999
2-way interaction					
Form Experience	0.815	2	0.408	0.777	0.999

Note. n = 332. One case missing.

*$p < .05$.

can be said that there is no significant difference in attitudes toward the male and female administrator among new, experienced and veteran superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma.

Four hypotheses were accepted and four were rejected. The tests showed a significant difference in attitudes toward male and

female administrators. These attitudes were affected by category of respondent, sex of respondent, and size of district. The attitudes seemed to be unaffected by age, educational level, educational experience or whether the respondent had or had not worked with a female administrator. From the tests of the hypotheses, it can be concluded that the male administrator is seen more favorably than the female administrator.

CHAPTER VI

INTERPRETATION OF DATA

Summary

This study was conducted with the purpose of assessing the attitudes of the superintendents, school board members and educational administration students in Oklahoma toward the role of school administrator, whether occupied by male or female, to determine if sex-role attitudes existed toward this role. This population was chosen from the educational system because it contained the two components inherent to the management of the system; the employers and the potential employees.

Because anti-sex discrimination has been emphasized in recent years, especially by anti-discriminatory legislation, it is believed that sex biases have been reduced or minimized. They tend to be overlooked as reasons for women's difficulty to advance up the educational ladder. Empirical research cited in this study demonstrated that management ability is not inherent or restricted to the males. Yet educational administration remains predominantly male, nationally and particularly in Oklahoma. Women today are an important component of the work force. Released by technology from household drudgery

and in many instances thrown into the role of head of the household, it becomes imperative for the woman to have an equal opportunity for selection and promotion to the administrative strata. The literature cited several reasons for the limited numbers of females in top educational management levels. One of these was sex-biased attitudes on the part of the male educators in management levels. This study addressed itself to this issue.

Since the representational mediation theory was used as a foundation for this attitude study, the semantic differential technique was used as a measurement instrument. The theory purports that attitudes serve as a mediating agent between a sign stimulus that begins the reaction and the resultant response or behavior. These attitudes are defined as having direction and intensity toward the sign stimulus which mediates the appropriate favorable or unfavorable response. The semantic differential is based on an individual's favorable or unfavorable response to a word stimulus concerning a concept. It measures this direction and the intensity of the direction on a continuum line. This method was chosen because of its simplistic construction, economy and ease of administration, its applicability to attitude study in various areas with varied groups, and its discriminatory attributes.

A representative random sample of 175 educational administration students, 72 superintendents, and 144 school board members, was selected from the population. The students were chosen from educational administration preparation programs at the University of Oklahoma, Oklahoma State University and Tulsa University. The

superintendents and school board members were chosen through a stratified sampling of the independent public school districts of Oklahoma using the FMA (female administrator in district) variable as the stratum parameter. The superintendent and two board members from each of 36 FMA districts and 36 non-FMA districts made up the random sample. This sample produced 333 respondents; 175 students, 60 superintendents and 98 school board members.

Eight null hypotheses were tested through the analysis of variance. Four were rejected and four were accepted. The main hypothesis posed that there was no significant difference in attitudes toward the role of school administrator when filled by a male or a female among the total group of respondents. Because a statistically significant difference resulted, this null hypothesis was rejected. It was concluded that a difference in attitudes toward males and females in administration does exist among this sampling. The other three null hypotheses which were rejected stated that:

1. No difference of attitudes existed among the three categories of respondents.

2. No difference of attitudes existed due to sex of respondents.

3. No difference of attitudes existed due to the size of district for superintendent and school board member respondents.

The four null hypotheses that were accepted proposed that there were no differences in attitudes due to educational level of respondents, age of respondents, educational experience of respondents and the FMA factor.

with ANOVA, the data were also subjected to the non-parametric chi-square test and the calculation of mean scores for comparison of means for respondents to the male differential and respondents to the female differential.

Findings

There were 175 educational administration student respondents. Of these respondents 93 answered the male form of the instrument and 82 answered the female form of the instrument. Approximately half of the student respondents were under 34 and half were between 34 and 49. None were over 50. There were about 8% single student respondents and another 8% who were widowed, divorced or separated. The majority of the student respondents had a Masters degree. Student respondents were divided into 70% males and 30% females. Half of the respondents had less than 10 years educational experience.

Sixty of the 72 superintendents in the sample responded to the instrument packet. Of these, 30 were from FMA districts and 30 from non-FMA districts. The level of education was proportionately divided among the three levels; Masters degree, Education Specialist/ Professional certificate, and Doctors degree. While there were a few more superintendent respondents who were 34 to 49 years of age, there were almost as many 50 or over. Only two were under 34. All of the all male superintendents who responded were married. The majority of them have been in education 17 or more years. There were almost as many respondents from small districts as from large districts and only half as many from medium

size districts. The majority of the superintendent respondents stated that they were self-motivated to enter the field of educational administration as did the majority of educational administration student respondents.

Of the 144 school board members in the sample, 100 responded. Two of these semantic differentials were mutilated and were not used in the data analysis. From the 98 respondents, 51 were from FMA districts, 47 were not. Fifty-two of the school board member respondents replied to the male form of the instrument; 46 to the female form of the instrument. The majority of the respondents fell into the High School diploma level of education or the Bachelors degree level. Almost all of them were married and the majority of them were in their middle years, 34 to 49. The school board member respondents were 80% male and 20% female. There were approximately the same number of respondents in each level of board experience. The largest number of board member respondents came from large districts. The small districts numbered a few less with half again as few coming from medium size districts.

In examining the mean score distribution of the total group according to male and female form responses, it is evident that the male administrator is seen more favorably. Only on the progressive-traditional scale was the female consistently seen as more favorable. The largest differences in means appeared in the superintendent sample, followed by the school board member sample. The educational administration student respondents were much less differentiating between the male and female administrator on all concepts.

The chi-square tests indicated that the concepts showing the greatest numbers of statistically significant terms at the .05 level were Discipline and School Finance. These were closely followed by Leadership, Management Skills, Legal Responsibilities, and School Boards. The male administrator was favored over the female administrator. The concept Community showed no significant differences and Legislature only two. The superintendent sample responses showed significant differences on many of the scales for the concepts, Management Skills, Discipline, Personnel, Decision-Making, School Finance, and School Boards than they did for Discipline. The school board member respondents resulted in significant differences on many of the scales for the concepts, Discipline, Decision-Making and School Finance. For the school board member respondents, the greatest number of significant terms appeared under Discipline.

The greatest number of significant terms for the student respondents were for the concept Discipline. These numbered five out of 10 scales. Of the three groups, the student respondents showed the least number of total significant terms; the superintendent respondents showed the greatest number of significant terms. Most of the significant differences favored the male administrator. Only within the student respondents were there some significant terms which favored the female respondents. These were generally on the progressive-traditional scale. The student sample also showed several significant differences on the terms, dominant and severe. The superintendent sample showed the greatest number of

significant terms on the dominant-submissive and the good-bad scales followed by the successful-unsuccessful scale. Several of the significant differences were on the optimistic-pessimistic, active-passive, positive-negative, and stable-changeable scales. These significant differences all favored the male administrator. The greatest number of significant differences for the school board member respondents appeared on the good-bad and successful-unsuccessful and dominant-submissive scales. Some appeared on the severe-lenient and positive-negative scales. These were positively oriented toward the male administrator.

The one-way analysis of variance on the main hypothesis showed a significant difference in attitudes of the total group of respondents between the male administrator form and the female administrator form at the .000 level. The interaction of form and category of respondent showed a significant difference at the .003 level. The results of the Tukey test indicated a significant difference between student female form respondents and superintendent male form respondents, and student female form respondents and school board member male form respondents; between superintendent male form respondents and superintendent female form respondents, and superintendent female form respondents and school board member male form respondents; and between school board member female form respondents and superintendent male form respondents and school board member female form respondents and school board member male form respondents. The male administrator form was rated higher in all cases.

Contrary to findings in other studies cited, no significant difference in attitude toward a male or female administrator resulted from having worked in a district with a female administrator. The analysis of variance specified a significant difference at the .001 level in the interaction between form and sex. The Tukey Individual Comparisons test indicated a significant difference between the male respondents to the male form and the male respondents to the female form; and the female respondents to the male form and the female respondents to the female form. The males rated the male administrator significantly higher on the scale and the females rated the female administrator significantly higher.

While the age variable showed a significant difference at the .038 level, no significant difference was indicated as a result of the interaction of form and age. Size of district resulted in a significant difference at the .004 level. A significant difference in the interaction between form and size of district was established at the .027 level. The Tukey test exhibited the significant difference between the female form of the small district respondents and the male form of the small district respondents, and the female form of the small district respondents and the male form of the large district respondents; between the female form of the medium size district respondents and the male form of the small district respondents, and the female form of the medium size district respondents and the male form of the large district respondents; and between the female form of the large district respondents and the male form of the small

district respondents. The respondents from small districts strongly favored the male school administrator. The respondents from large districts favored the male school administrator almost as strongly, however, there was not as large a difference indicated between the male and female administrator as there was for the small district respondents. The medium district respondents did not differentiate between male and female administrator. Neither educational level nor educational experience showed a significant difference. Their interaction with form was also nonsignificant.

The data strongly indicated that the male administrator is favored over the female administrator. This is especially true for the superintendent sample which strongly indicated a preference for the male administrator. The student sample showed the least differences in preference. The size of district was a strong indicator of preference for the male or female administrator. The male administrator was strongly favored by the small district and the large district. The medium size district indicated little preference.

Conclusions

One criticism of attitude studies is that attitude measurement does not necessarily lead to prediction of behavior which necessarily depends on the actual situation. However true this may be, attitude measurement can indicate an inclination toward certain types of behaviors. It also is realized that in attitude measurement the respondent may try to hide his/r true

feelings which results in the social desireability effect. In the case of this study, it was felt that this effect had not materialized as the responses showed varied degrees of intensity of feeling. In any case, the simplistic and repetitious format of the instrument could have influenced the responses as could have the problem under study. Biased responses could also be attributed to the happenings of the respondent's day.

The findings supported the major hypothesis (H_{o1}) and it was reinforced by the statistical findings of three of the minor hypotheses. Consistently, the data showed that the male school administrator was seen as preferable to the female school administrator. The FMA variable which had appeared to be an important factor in Barter's study (1959), did not figure as a significant indicator in this study. Barter found that, generally, male teachers who had worked in schools administered by females were more favorable to women administrators than men who had not taught under women principals. Taylor's research in 1971 was in agreement. Her study indicated male school board members who had worked with a female administrator were more prone to hire a female for an administrative position. Since this variable did not prove significant in this study, it could mean that the hiring of female administrators is an individualistic situation and that female models have no impact on that situation. On the other hand, it could mean that these females have succeeded in becoming a part of the male administrative world causing no undue notice.

The literature pointed out that leadership skills needed by today's administrators included good communications, team management, group dynamics and foresight in planning. Cited studies indicated that women possess these skills to the same degree or more than males. Hemphill, Griffiths, and Frederickson (1962) indicated in their research that women are better able to work with others, that they rated higher in instructional knowledge and obtained better relationships with their superiors and peers. Yet, here in Oklahoma, the findings of this study demonstrated that the male school administrator was seen more positively in the areas of public relations, curriculum and especially, personnel.

The 1952 Florida Leadership Project concluded women were effective leaders. The Gross and Trask study in 1964 found that women rated higher in administrative practices, professionalism, student concern, and evaluation. Interestingly, the findings of this study show that some of the concepts showing a large number of significant terms were Leadership and Management Skills. The superintendent sample leaned heavily toward the male administrator on such concepts as Management Skills, Personnel, Decision-Making, and Leadership. The school board member sample agreed on Decision-Making. Even Communications showed several significantly different scales. Discipline which was the major concern of the school board member sample and one of the major concerns of the superintendent sample showed a significant difference even for the educational administration student sample which seemed the least biased

Bach (1976) suggests that women are not regarded as being capable of handling discipline since this is seen as a masculine trait. Back in 1964, Krause's study concluded that although women possessed organizational ability, concern was expressed about the area of discipline. Thirteen years later, here in Oklahoma, the concern that women could not cope with discipline problems is still being expressed.

Gross and Trask's research also indicated that males and females appeared equally competent in the areas of community and personnel. The respondents in this study saw the male administrator as more favorable than the female administrator in the area of personnel.

Highly valued male traits mentioned in the review of the literature included objectivity, logic, decision-making skills, self-confidence, ambition and independence. The superintendent and school board member respondents rated the male school administrator as dominant, optimistic, active, successful, stable and good. The student sample rated the female administrator as more progressive. There is a possibility that in responding to the questionnaire, the superintendent and school board sample viewed the term traditional as the positive end of the scale rather than progressive, since this is the only scale on which the female appeared to be preferable for more than one significant term.

Several studies cited by Chapman and Luthan (1975) concluded that women were more tolerant of conflict encountered in decision-making, that women work more cooperatively in groups than men do,

and that females interact and communicate better than males. Still, in this study, the respondents saw the male as preferable in the areas of communications, personnel, public relations, leadership and especially decision-making. Lee and Gropper (1975) asserted that the male is programmed to protect his territory or face the threat of ego-loss. Moreover, the value function of attitudes is based on a person's ego needs. The sexism observed in superintendents' comments on female school board members quoted by Mullins (1974b) such as "women are too emotional," "I understand males better," and "females don't understand finance" are repeated in the findings of this study.

Educational administration has been the world of the "good old boy." The rules and style of behavior have been established by him. It can be assumed from their strong views in support of the Oklahoma male administrator that an attempt is being made to protect that world.

It has been expressed that anti-sexism legislation is curing all women's ills as far as occupational opportunity is concerned. But it is possible, with the attitudes expressed in this study, that in the area of sexism (as has been the case in negotiations and desegregation) the educational leaders in Oklahoma will only spend their energy seeking ways to avoid dealing with it.

Attitudes have been defined as positive or negative evaluations . . . a set of standards for evaluating a stimulus in relation to a person's world and those around him. Furthermore,

Hartley (1967) stated that the ego-centered attitudes are established principally by the standards of the group (Involving group identification). Compliance to the group's attitudes reinforces the personal identity. This has seemed to firmly cement the "good old boy club." Possibly the administrators of the educational system, superintendents and school board members, in the sample for this study are saying, "We don't want females in our boy's club."

Within the functions of attitudes is the knowledge function which stems from a person's own frame of reference or set of standards. One might conclude that this function served as mediator in the stimulus-response operation of respondents from small districts. These respondents appeared to have the most traditional views. It was not surprising to find that these respondents strongly favored the male administrator since it is in the rural areas where the sex-role ethic is most strongly imbued.

While the female administrator was not viewed in a negative manner, she was not viewed very positively either. Diab's (1967) assessment of neutrality on the attitude scale might be appropriate here. He claimed that neutrality can indicate no preference, indifference, or such strong feelings that a noncommittal answer is preferable. Sherif (1961) supports this view by adding that neutrality also applies to persons with high ego-involvement in the issue and in the case of extreme viewpoints. The two mutilated semantic differential instruments were both female forms.

Several negative comments were written by respondents on the instrument. These were all on female forms. It could be concluded that the respondents in this study fell in one of the above categories. A negative view of the female administrator was not the result of this study but rather a positive view of the male administrator and perhaps, an indifferent attitude toward the female. On some concepts, the male administrator was viewed indifferently also.

One of the recurring statements that emerges from educational sex-role research is that women are not prepared nor are they preparing themselves for administrative posts. This may be true, but with the indicated prevailing attitudes in Oklahoma toward females in administration, there is no incentive for females to enter educational administration preparation programs. Still, professors of Education from all three of the universities used in this sample, indicated that female students in administration preparation programs had steadily increased in the past few years. Koelsch (1975) expressed that administration preparation programs were lacking. This could be true if the educational leaders see the females as lacking in management and decision-making skills, and if they are seen as uncapable of coping with finances, legal problems, discipline and policy-makers. These are then not learnable skills or are not being taught effectively. On the other hand, it could be concluded that educational leaders value "experience" not "book-learning."

Statistics uphold that women are more acceptable at the

elementary level in Oklahoma as well as nationally. They have not yet delved into the higher administrative circles in Oklahoma. Perhaps the findings of this study pinpointed one important reason for this.

Implications and Recommendations

The implications of this study affect three areas: (a) attitude change, (b) female perserverance, and (c) administrative preparation programs.

Attitude change although gradual is possible. Sometimes it is a result of behavioral change. If feminine perserverance continues and masculine ego-threats diminish, perhaps both behavioral and attitudinal change can result. The administrative preparation programs could be the key to the solution. If administrative abilities and skills are learned and the respondents to this survey felt that the female was lacking in these skills, then the administrative preparation programs in Higher Education can remedy this through an improved program. The institutions of Higher Learning are in a good position to serve as change agents both in encouraging women to prepare themselves and apply for administrative positions, and in fostering an enlightened non-sexist attitude. Competing with females in the classroom at the preparation level could prepare the males for more readily accepting the competition of females at a professional level. Perhaps Colleges of Education are already assuming this responsibility, since the educational administration student respondents

held the most favorable view of female administrators and indicated little difference in their view of male and female school administrators. It could be noted in addition, that these student respondents were also the younger group and the group with the least experience. It might be speculated that traditionalism sets in with age, longevity in education or through admission into the administrative circles.

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APPENDIX A

CONCEPT PRETEST

CONCEPTS

The Role of the Administrator

Look over the concepts listed below regarding the role of the Administrator. You may add to the list or change the words of those already listed. Pick the fifteen (15) most pertinent concepts in regard to the role of administrator from this list, as is or as you expanded it.

Discipline

Supervision

Politics

Law

Legal Responsibilities

Curriculum

Budget

Program Evaluation

Personnel Evaluation

Patrons

Media

Students

Teachers

Panning

Decision-making

Innovation

Leadership

Education

Negotiations

Public Relations

In-service

Community

Communications

School Finance

Plant Maintenance

Economy

Stability

Experience

Involvement

School Boards

Priorities

Personnel

Legislature or Legislation

Power Groups

Government Groups

Cultural Factors (understanding)

Racial Groups

Research

Management Concepts

Taxes

School Facilities

Ethical Practice

APPENDIX B

DATA COLLECTION TOOLS

3101 Eton Ave.
Oklahoma City, Ok. 73122

Dear

As a dedicated educator in this state, you can render a service to education by furthering research in the field. You have been chosen through a careful process of random sampling from among your colleagues, to be one of the participants in this research. The purpose of this study is to examine the attitudes of educators in Oklahoma toward the role of school administrator. As a doctoral candidate in Educational Administration at the University of Oklahoma, I feel that with your help my study can make a worthwhile contribution to further the understanding of educational administration in Oklahoma.

Be assured that all precautions will be taken for your responses to remain anonymous and all response booklets will be destroyed after the data has been transferred to computer cards.

Please take time to complete the questionaire and data sheet when you receive it. Look for the packet in your mail in two or three days. I realize your time is valuable so the instrument has been kept simple and it should be easy to complete within minutes. Since the study is being conducted at the researcher's personal expense, it would be greatly appreciated if you would promptly complete and return the document in the self-addressed envelope.

Thank you very much for your enthusiastic cooperation. Have a good day!

Yours truly,

A. Gorena

3101 Eton Ave.
Oklahoma City, Ok. 73122

Dear Colleague:

As a dedicated educator in this state, you can render a service to education by furthering research in the field. You have been chosen through a careful process of random sampling from among your colleagues, to be one of the participants in this research. The purpose of this study is to examine the attitudes of educators in Oklahoma toward the role of school administrator. As a doctoral candidate in Educational Administration at the University of Oklahoma, I feel that with your help my study can make a worthwhile contribution to further the understanding of educational administration in Oklahoma.

Be assured that all precautions will be taken for your responses to remain anonymous and all response booklets will be destroyed after the data has been transferred to computer cards.

Thank you very much for your enthusiastic cooperation. Have a good day!

Yours truly,

A. Gorena

Smile! It won't take more than 15 minutes!

Now that you have the research packet in hand, don't put it down! Take time right now to fill out the data sheet and to complete the questionnaire! This will save you time in having to come back to it later! Check your packet to see that it is complete. It should include a Data Questionnaire sheet, instructions on how to complete the instrument, and the instrument itself. Fill out the Data Questionnaire. Set it aside and proceed to read the instructions on how to complete the instrument. Please follow these directions carefully. Knowing that your time is valuable, the instrument has been kept simple. It should not take long to complete. When you have finished, check to see that you have followed the directions and that the Data sheet is completely filled out.

NOW, place the booklet and the Data Questionnaire sheet along with the instructions in the self-addressed envelope. Be sure that both the booklet and the Data sheet are in the envelope before sealing it. Initial the postcard that was in the packet. Place both the postcard* and the return packet in the mail today!

Thank you so much for your wonderful cooperation. Wasn't that easy? Now you deserve a break, so go drink a cup of coffee or a coke on me.

*Don't be alarmed. There is no way to connect your postcard with your response. This is only a way for me to know who has not returned their booklet and Data sheet in order to follow up on those who do not respond within two weeks. Please do not forget to mail the card at the time you return the booklet.

Smile!

Now that you have the instrument packet in hand, check your packet to see that it is complete. It should include a letter of introduction, a Data Questionnaire sheet, instructions on how to complete the instrument, and the instrument itself. Read the introductory letter. Now proceed to fill out the Data Questionnaire. Set it aside and read the instructions on how to complete the instrument. Please follow these directions carefully. Knowing that your time is valuable, the instrument has been kept simple. It should not take long to complete. When you have finished, check to see that you have followed the directions and that the Data sheet is completely filled out.

NOW, place the booklet and the Data sheet along with the introductory letter and the instructions back in the envelope. Make sure nothing has been omitted. Return the envelope.

Thank you so much for your wonderful cooperation. Wasn't that easy? Now you deserve a break, so go have a cup of coffee or a coke on me!

DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

1-6 1. How many years have you been in Education? EAS-___

____ 1. Less than 10 years

____ 2. 10-16 years

____ 3. 17 or more

1-8 2. Sex

____ 1. Male

____ 2. Female

1-9 3. Age

____ 1. Under 34

____ 2. 34 to 49

____ 3. 50 or over

1-10 4. Marital Status

____ 1. Single

____ 2. Married

____ 3. Widowed, divorced or separated

1-11 5. Level of Education

____ 1. Bachelors Degree

____ 2. Masters Degree

____ 3. Doctors Degree

1-12 6. Who encouraged you to go into the field of administration?

____ 1. Family

____ 2. Peers

____ 3. Superiors

____ 4. Self

____ 5. Other (Please specify) _____

1-13 7. Type of Administration Preparation Program:

____ 1. Elementary

____ 2. Secondary

____ 3. Superintendency or General Administration

DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

___ -6 1. How many years have you been in Education? S-___

____ 1. Less than 10 years

____ 2. 10-16 years

____ 3. 17 or more

___ -7 2. What is the size of your school district by number of teachers?

____ 1. Up to 59 teachers

____ 2. 60-99 teachers

____ 3. 100 or more teachers

___ -8 3. Sex

____ 1. Male

____ 2. Female

___ -9 4. Age

____ 1. Under 34

____ 2. 34 to 49

____ 3. 50 or over

___ -10 5. Marital Status

____ 1. Single

____ 2. Married

____ 3. Widowed, divorced or separated

___ -11 6. Level of Education (you have completed)

____ 1. Masters Degree

____ 2. Education Specialist/Professional Certificate

____ 3. Doctors Degree

___ -12 7. Who encouraged you to go into the field of administration?

____ 1. Family

____ 2. Peers

____ 3. Superiors

____ 4. Self

____ 5. Other (Please specify) _____

DATA QUESTIONNAIRE

SB-____

____ -6 1. How many years have you served on the school board?

____ 1. Less than 2 years

____ 2. 2-6 years

____ 3. 7 or more years

____ -7 2. What is the size of your school district in number of teachers?

____ 1. Up to 59 teachers

____ 2. 60-99 teachers

____ 3. 100 or more teachers

____ -8 3. Sex

____ 1. Male

____ 2. Female

____ -9 4. Age

____ 1. Under 34

____ 2. 34 to 49

____ 3. 50 or over

____ -10 5. Marital Status

____ 1. Single

____ 2. Married

____ 3. Widowed, divorced or separated

____ -11 6. Level of Education (you have completed)

____ 1. Less than High School Diploma

____ 2. High School Diploma

____ 3. Bachelors Degree

____ 4. Masters Degree

____ 5. Doctors Degree

READ CAREFULLY. DO NOT BEGIN UNTIL YOU ARE SURE YOU UNDERSTAND THE INSTRUCTIONS.

The purpose of this study is to measure the meaning of certain concepts as they relate to the role of the MALE School Administrator. In marking your responses please make your choices on the basis of how you feel about the concepts in relation to the topic. Each page presents a different concept which relates to the topic, and a set of scales on which to judge the concepts. The topic is repeated on the top right-hand side of the page so that you will keep the relationship in mind.

Here is an example of how you are to read the questionnaire:

(Concept) TORNADO — WEATHER (Topic)

(Scale)

Strong ___/___/___/___/___/___/___ Weak

In the above example the Concept TORNADO is one aspect of the Topic WEATHER. The direction you choose on the scale depends on which end of the scale you feel is most characteristic of the concept you are judging in relation to the topic. Where you choose to place your mark on the line depends on how closely related you feel the concept is to that end of the scale. For example:

If you feel that the concept in relation to the topic is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your mark as follows:

Strong _X_/___/___/___/___/___/___ Weak

OR

Strong ___/___/___/___/___/___/_X_ Weak

If you feel that the concept is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your mark as follows:

Strong ___/_X_/___/___/___/___/___ Weak

OR

Strong ___/___/___/___/___/_X_/___ Weak

If the concept seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then place your mark as follows:

Strong ___/___/_X_/___/___/___/___ Weak

OR

Strong ___/___/___/___/_X_/___/___ Weak

If you believe the concept to be neutral on the scale or to be equally associated with both sides of the scale, then place your mark in the middle space as follows:

Strong ___/___/___/_X_/___/___/___ Weak

IMPORTANT

1. Place your marks in the middle of the spaces. /_X_/___/

2. Be sure to mark every scale for every concept. DO NOT OMIT ANY even if you feel that they don't make sense.

3. Do not place more than ONE mark on each scale.

There are no correct answers. There are only your answers. Since it is your feelings on the concepts that are of interest, work quickly without turning back and forth through the booklet. It is not necessary, since each item is separate and independent. However, we want your true impressions so work thoughtfully.

When you have finished, leaf through it quickly to make sure you have not missed marking any of the items. Thank you.

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

MANAGEMENT SKILLS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

ETHICS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

CURRICULUM

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

DISCIPLINE

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

PERSONNEL

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

EVALUATION

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

DECISION-MAKING

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

LEADERSHIP

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

LEGAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

COMMUNICATIONS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

SCHOOL FINANCE

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

SCHOOL FACILITIES

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

SCHOOL BOARDS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

COMMUNITY

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

LEGISLATURE

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

MALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

PUBLIC RELATIONS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

READ CAREFULLY. DO NOT BEGIN UNTIL YOU ARE SURE YOU UNDERSTAND THE INSTRUCTIONS.

The purpose of this study is to measure the meaning of certain concepts as they relate to the role of the FEMALE School Administrator. In marking your responses please make your choices on the basis of how you feel about the concepts in relation to the topic. Each page presents a different concept which relates to the topic, and a set of scales on which to judge the concepts. The topic is repeated on the top right-hand side of the page so that you will keep the relationship in mind.

Here is an example of how you are to read the questionnaire:

WEATHER
(Topic)

(Concept)
TORNADO

(Scale)

Strong ___/___/___/___/___/___/___ Weak

In the above example the Concept TORNADO is one aspect of the Topic WEATHER. The direction you choose on the scale depends on which end of the scale you feel is most characteristic of the concept you are judging in relation to the topic. Where you choose to place your mark on the line depends on how closely related you feel the concept is to that end of the scale. For example:

If you feel that the concept in relation to the topic is very closely related to one end of the scale, you should place your mark as follows:

Strong _X_/___/___/___/___/___/___ Weak

OR

Strong ___/___/___/___/___/___/_X_ Weak

If you feel that the concept is quite closely related to one or the other end of the scale (but not extremely), you should place your mark as follows:

Strong ___/_X_/___/___/___/___/___ Weak

OR

Strong ___/___/___/___/___/_X_/___ Weak

If the concept seems only slightly related to one side as opposed to the other side (but is not really neutral), then place your mark as follows:

Strong ___/___/_X_/___/___/___/___ Weak

OR

Strong ___/___/___/___/_X_/___/___ Weak

If you believe the concept to be neutral on the scale or to be equally associated with both sides of the scale, then place your mark in the middle space as follows:

Strong ___/___/___/_X_/___/___/___ Weak

IMPORTANT

1. Place your marks in the middle of the spaces. /_X_/___/
2. Be sure to mark every scale for every concept. DO NOT OMIT ANY even if you feel that they don't make sense.
3. Do not place more than ONE mark on each scale.

There are no correct answers. There are only your answers. Since it is your feelings on the concepts that are of interest, work quickly without turning back and forth through the booklet. It is not necessary, since each item is separate and independent. However, we want your true impressions so work thoughtfully.

When you have finished, leaf through it quickly to make sure you have not missed marking any of the items. Thank you.

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

MANAGEMENT SKILLS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

ETHICS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

CURRICULUM

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

DISCIPLINE

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

PERSONNEL

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

EVALUATION

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

DECISION-MAKING

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

LEADERSHIP

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

LEGAL RESPONSIBILITIES

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

COMMUNICATIONS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

SCHOOL FINANCE

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

SCHOOL FACILITIES

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

SCHOOL BOARDS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

COMMUNITY

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

LEGISLATURE

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

FEMALE SCHOOL ADMINISTRATOR

PUBLIC RELATIONS

Dominant	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Submissive
Optimistic	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Pessimistic
Traditional	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Progressive
Lenient	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Severe
Passive	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Active
Successful	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Unsuccessful
Tenacious	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Yielding
Negative	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Positive
Good	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Bad
Changeable	___/___/___/___/___/___/___	Stable

Survey packet completed and returned.

_____
Signature

_____
School District

☐ I am interested in receiving the results of the study.

If you have returned the Research Survey Packet I thank you sincerely for your promptness.

If you have not yet done so, won't you take a few minutes right now to complete and return it. Your opinions are very important. If you have any questions please call me at (405) 946-2959.

Thank you for your earnest cooperation.

Ame Gorena

Ame Gorena

3101 Eton Ave.
Oklahoma City, OK 73122
April 15, 1977

(405) 946-2959

Dear

In Education, unlike Business, most research in the field is generated by doctoral students. Your participation can add to the educational studies in Oklahoma. Sixty-five percent of your colleagues have already responded to the attitude survey toward the Role of School Administrator. Your feelings should be represented also. One opinion, like one vote, is important. Won't you take a few minutes today to respond to the survey instrument you received in the mail? If you have misplaced your packet, please contact me by phone and another packet will be mailed to you.

Knowing that your time is valuable, my appreciation for your cooperative spirit is doubled. Thank you for the time and consideration you have afforded me.

Yours truly,

Ame Gorena