

WOMEN'S PERCEPTIONS COMPARED TO
MEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF THE
EFFECTIVENESS OF WOMEN
ADMINISTRATORS

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WOMEN'S PERCEPTIONS COMPARED TO MEN'S
PERCEPTIONS OF THE EFFECTIVENESS
OF WOMEN ADMINISTRATORS

An Abstract
Presented to
The Graduate Council of
Austin Peay State University

In Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree
Education Specialist

by
Marjorie Ann Lane Smith

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ABSTRACT

The problem of this field study was to obtain, organize and present data of an available sample from male and female educators and noneducators, and to determine the effectiveness of women administrators as perceived by women and men.

The purpose of this study was to examine the hypotheses expressed in the following objectives:

1. To examine the amount of exposure the respondents have had to women administrators.
2. To determine the percentage of women administrators employed in the respondents' places of employment.
3. To examine the possibility that women possess characteristics different from men in a leadership role.
4. To examine the possibility that women cause behavior changes in subordinates.
5. To determine copeability under stress in men and women administrators.
6. To identify classifications of the leadership shown respondents.
7. To establish the need for achievement in women and men.

To obtain this information, interviews, following an evaluative questionnaire as a guide, were conducted with 25 male educators, 25 female educators, 25 male noneducators, and 25 female noneducators, all of whom had served under both male and female administrators. One

hundred responses were received and analyzed, and the data were included in this study.

Conclusions based on findings indicated:

1. Women do possess characteristics different from men in a leadership role.
2. Men, at times, held higher opinions of women than did women.
3. Women have a greater need for achievement.
4. Men's perceptions of the effectiveness of women administrators differed little when compared to women's perceptions.

There were slight relationships found among gender, educator and noneducator, levels of management, exposure to female administrators, changes in work environment, and kinds of leadership.

The major conclusion drawn from this study was that there is little difference between the female's perception of the effectiveness of the female administrator and the male's perception of the effectiveness of the female administrator. Females often are accepted better by men than by women was a surprising conclusion for this researcher.

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To The Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a Field Study written by Marjorie Ann Smith Lane entitled "Women's Perceptions Compared to Men's Perceptions of the Effectiveness of Women Administrators." I recommend that it be accepted in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree of Education Specialist, with a major in administration.

Donald B. Lambert

Major Professor

We have read this field study and
recommend its acceptance:

George Rawlin
Second Committee Member

Ellen S. Williams
Third Committee Member

Accepted for the Graduate Council:

William H. Ellis

Dean of the Graduate School

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Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

All societies define sex roles and form images of family and occupational life. Women predominate "women's jobs" in employment but are often excluded from "men's jobs." Women's jobs are more often health, home, and heart related rather than managerial, executive positions.

Women are accredited with possessing a set of characteristics pertaining to management that can either keep them from becoming administrators or can help them become administrators, depending on who is giving the credit.

Statement of the Problem

Women differ among themselves as to how they feel about women administrators. Their feelings also often differ from men's feelings about women administrators.

The purpose of this study was to compare women's perceptions of the effectiveness of women administrators with men's perceptions of the effectiveness of women administrators.

Statement of the Hypotheses

The hypotheses of this study were expressed in objective form and included the following:

- (1) To examine the amount of exposure the respondents have had to women administrators,

- (2) To determine the percentage of women administrators employed in the respondents' places of employment,
- (3) To examine the possibility that women possess characteristics different from men in a leadership role,
- (4) To examine the possibility that women cause behavior changes in subordinates,
- (5) To determine copeability under stress in men and women administrators,
- (6) To identify classifications for the leadership shown respondents, and
- (7) To establish the need for achievement in women and men.

Limitations and Procedures of the Study

This study dealt only with the perceptions of the effectiveness of women administrators. A structured interview was conducted through the use of an interview questionnaire. A statement describing the general purpose of the research was presented to each respondent. The respondents were informed in writing of their legal rights and they signed an Informed Consent Statement required for research involving human subjects.

This writer administered closed form questions which permitted only certain responses in order that quantification and analysis of the results could be carried out efficiently. This limitation prevented the respondents from giving their personal opinions.

Respondents were chosen by availability. All subjects were adults, half of which were professional educators and the remaining portion held noneducation positions. Availability of subjects who had worked with both a male and female administrator was a limitation.

Another limitation of the study was the minimal number of samples used due to the extensive time involved in the interviewing process. The questionnaire interview was limited to the objectives of the survey and the information received was dependent on the accuracy of the responses.

Conclusions reached in this study can only be generalized to similar populations, although, according to replications, studies with larger populations show similar results.

Respondents were broken down statistically as to sex, title, and establishment but not by age, marital status, number of children, experience, or formal training. Anonymity was maintained.

Definitions of Terms Used

The following definitions are provided for a better understanding of certain terms used in this study:

Administrator. A person appointed to direct members of a group. This one term was used to represent persons whose official titles could be principal, manager, superintendent, dean, chairperson, foreman, supervisor, or director.

Coercion. The practice of an administrator using threat on a subordinate to achieve compliance (Yukl, 1981).

Expert Power. Special knowledge and expertise on the part of the administrator used as power over the subordinate (Yukl, 1981).

Inspirational appeal. An inducement by the administrator to the subordinate to achieve compliance out of loyalty to the group (Yukl, 1981).

Legitimate request. An inducement by the administrator to the subordinate to achieve compliance based on the administrator's right to make such a request (Yukl, 1981).

Personal identification. An imitating of the behavior of an administrator by a subordinate to become more like the administrator (Yukl, 1981).

Response Effect. The tendency of the respondent to give inaccurate responses (Borg and Gall, 1979).

Situational engineering. The influencing by the administrator of the subordinate through manipulation of physical and social situations (Yukl, 1981).

Structured interview. A series of questions that can be answered by selecting one of a set of alternate choices (Borg and Gall, 1979).

Subordinate. A member of a group who performs under the direction of an administrator.

Assumptions

In conducting a study of this nature, certain basic assumptions were necessary. After the related literature and research studies were reviewed, the findings of this study are based on the following assumptions without testing:

1. The questionnaire was a valid means of measuring the objectives.
2. The anonymity of the questionnaire allowed respondents to answer the questions freely and honestly without threatening repercussions.

3. All the respondents were adults and all understood the questions.

4. All the respondents had held positions under both a male and a female administrator.

5. The total sample population selected was represented one hundred percent by completed interview questionnaires.

Chapter 2

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

Only a small fraction of the administrative positions in American public schools are occupied by women, whereas women comprise a majority of the teachers in those schools. The United School Administrators of Kansas in 1979 (Adkison and Bailey, 1981) was instrumental in involving superintendents in a project to promote leadership qualities in women. It has brought, according to the report, into education administration women who might not otherwise have entered the field and it has demonstrated that women can be outstanding administrators.

According to a survey made by the U.S. Department of Labor (Ginzberg and Yohalem, 1973) a quarter of all women workers were clustered around five occupations---secretary, retail salesperson, household worker, bookkeeper, and elementary school teacher. Half of all women workers were employed in only 21 occupations, whereas half of all male workers were more broadly distributed over 65 occupations.

While women are excluded from some positions they predominate in others. Included in the exclusions often are management positions and jobs leading to management. Psychological obstacles get in the way of women. The Journal of New York State Boards Association published a study (Freedman, 1980) that revealed some psychological obstacles. The greatest obstacles, according to this report, were tradition and the persistence of stereotypes. Certain leadership qualities frequently

approved of in men but sometimes found overbearing in women were emotional stability, aggressiveness, and self-reliance.

Other studies offer data as to why women do not attain leadership positions. Forty-one percent of the executives surveyed in a Louis Harris Poll of corporate officials for Business Week (Aig, 1982) felt it had been harder to promote women to high level positions than they had thought it would be and they agreed that men don't like to take orders from women.

Another study to find out how rapidly acceptance of women in management was occurring at an attitudinal level concluded the higher the level of education of the executive, the more likely it is that he has a high acceptance of women in nontraditional (managerial) roles (Baron, 1982). Fifty percent of the men in management surveyed accepted women as managers. Also concluded was men who worked for a woman manager generally have a higher acceptance of women in management roles. This study affirmed that education is the one common denominator in acceptance of, and adaptation to, a significant social change, namely women in nontraditional roles.

Many studies on achievement presented inconsistent sex-specific results. Females did tend to show less confidence in problem-solving situations and to underestimate their level of performance. Males described themselves as having more control over external events and as more powerful, ambitious, and energetic than females (Block, 1981).

Assumptions, according to hearings before the Committee on Education and Labor, House of Representatives (Tsuchigane and Dodge, 1974) indicated women possessed characteristics such as emotional instability, lack of intellectual ability, and among others, lack of

extreme independence. It was concluded that sex-segregated occupations were primarily a historical product of social and cultural conditioning.

Research revealed that women show a deep-seated lack of confidence in the managerial ability of their own sex. In The Women's Opinion Poll (Ginzberg and Yohalem, 1973) the talley showed that working women prefer a male boss to a female boss 8 to 1. This lack of self-confidence could lead to doubts about their ability to handle supervisory responsibilities and to lower expectations in terms of advancement.

Are women prejudiced against women? Other studies revealed:

Over the years, psychologists and psychiatrists have shown that both sexes consistently value men more highly than women. Characteristics considered male are usually praised; those considered female are usually criticized. In 1957, A.C. Sheriffs and J.P. McKee noted that women are regarded as guilty of snobbery and irrational and unpleasant emotionality. Consistent with this report, E.G. French and G.S. Lesser found in 1964 that women who value intellectual attainment feel they must reject the woman's role--intellectual accomplishment apparently being considered, even among intellectual women, a masculine preserve. (Theodore, 1971:167)

Not only in the United States do women appear to judge women inferior but in other parts of the world too. One could assume that nowhere is the status of women higher than in Great Britain, India, Ceylon, and Israel where all have had women prime ministers, but these isolated examples do not reflect the entire occupational distribution of women in these areas.

One third of the women in a survey of the British Civil Service judged women to be less capable of holding the undersecretaryship. Both men and women believed the main difficulty was that women were too diffident, although there was ambivalence about this quality; when a woman did display initiative or ambition or otherwise attempted to move

up, she was regarded as dangerously aggressive and unpleasant (Galenson, 1973).

In The Male Machine, the results of the Boverman Survey revealed that men and women typically displayed, among 35 others, the following differences in behavior:

Men	Women
Very aggressive	Not at all aggressive
Not at all emotional	Very emotional
Can make decisions easily	Have difficulty making decisions
Never cry	Cry very easily
Almost always act as a leader	Almost never act as a leader
Very blunt	Very tactful

The Boverman Survey also confirmed that "masculine" characteristics are believed by both sexes to be more desirable than "feminine" characteristics (Fastaeu, 1974: 212, 213).

The Harvard Business Review survey, however, reported their analysis of the responses on the basis of age, geographic region, industry, and job function showed no significant pattern of differences in stereotyping or prejudices. The responses also reflected greater concern for the careers of men than there was for those of women (Rosen and Jerdee, 1974).

Equality for women has come a long way with the help of Title VII to the Civil Rights Act. The Equal Pay for Equal Work in the Fair Labor Standards Act requires equal salaries for equal governmental work without regard to sex, yet it does not apply to executive, administrative, or professional employees (Stimpson, 1973).

This writer concludes that much is being accomplished to advance female occupational involvement in the low and middle areas of

management but not in the top positions. Women need to take a look at their own attitudes toward women. More women executives are speaking out for women and are writing books of encouragement for women. In The New Executive Woman, Marcille Williams (1977:237) says to women:

Business is indeed making room for the new executive woman, however slow the progress may seem. It's not an equal world yet, but the extra effort you must devote is worth the satisfaction, as women everywhere are discovering. Corporate doors are being unlocked. Increasing opportunities exist. Now it's up to you.

Phyllis Schlafly (1977) in The Power of the Positive Woman reminds women of the essential validity of the old prayer that asks for strength to change what can be changed, the serenity to accept what cannot be changed, and the wisdom to discern the difference. This writer feels that women need to learn to "discern the difference."

Women need strategies to gain power in the administrative world of men. "Achieving power," according to Jane Trahey (1977:84), "is a combination of timing, luck, and hard work, plus one other ingredient women overlook a lot--that is wanting power." This does not mean that women need to rush right out and fill every executive chair that exists. As Elizabeth Koontz (1972:47) said when she was president of the National Education Association, "The desire of women to reach their full potential does not mean that they want to assume the master role over men."

Perhaps changes need to be made in women's attitudes at the career decision level with the high school or even the middle school guidance counselor. The Journal of Counseling Psychology revealed some interesting data concerning changes in women's attitudes. The attitudes of females toward the career choice process mature more rapidly than those of their male counterparts. Evidence is shown that many females

consistently select occupations that are unrealistically low in terms of their aptitudes and interests (Fitzgerald and Crites, 1980).

Research indicates that women's achievement motivation is somehow fundamentally different from that displayed by men. If a counselor operates under this assumption, counseling techniques and case management will differ from those of a practitioner alert to the possibilities of inhibited motivation. Counselors may find that women's aspirations need to be raised. Extended training is needed for counselors to recognize the pervasive influence of sex-role socialization on women's achievement strivings. Counselors also need to develop techniques to improve that pervasive influence (Fitzgerald and Crites, 1980).

In this review of literature there were employed numerous methods, measures, subjects, and approaches. Information was obtained through the use of public hearings, questionnaires, tests, and interviews conducted by polls, psychologists, the Department of Labor, women's organizations, psychiatrists, and other individuals. Subjects included educators, managers, magazine subscribers, employed women all over the world, and guidance counselors.

All reviewed literature was related to women's perception of women and men's perception of women. This writer was more specifically concerned with women's perceptions of the effectiveness of women administrators as compared to men's perceptions of the effectiveness of women administrators. The literature reviewed in this chapter gave an overview of studies that have already been conducted concerning this interest.

Chapter 3

METHODOLOGY

A review of related literature was the first step in this study. Then a questionnaire designed to be used as an interview guide was devised. From a sample of one hundred available educators and noneducators who had worked with both male and female administrators an attempt was made to determine how the females perceived the effectiveness of female administrators and to compare these perceptions to how the males perceived the effectiveness of female administrators. Data were recorded and compiled in descriptive and statistical form.

Methods and Materials Used

An interview guide was designed to obtain the data needed to meet the specific objectives of the study and to standardize the situation to some degree. The selection of the types of material and methods was influenced by the guidelines presented by Walter Borg (1979). The questions asked during the interviews were listed in the desired sequence in the interview guide. All respondents were exposed to the same interview situation.

The data sought--limited specific facts--called for a highly structured interview situation. Each respondent was asked a brief series of questions that could be answered by saying "man" or "woman" and by selecting from answers presented by the interviewer. A copy of the questionnaire can be found in Appendix B.

Subjects Used

Respondents were chosen by availability to conform to one of four classifications--male educator, female educator, male noneducator, or female noneducator. Respondents who had held a subordinate occupational position under both a male and a female administrator either at the same time or at different times were chosen as subjects by this writer.

One-half of the respondents were educators. The other half represented various occupations from pet shop groomer to personnel manager. All subjects were adults.

Questionnaire for Interviews

A highly structured interview followed an interview guide designed to meet the specific objectives stated in Chapter 1. As well as answering the structured questions pertaining to the objectives, the samples responded to personal data sought such as title-position, sex, nonmanagement or management level, and amount of exposure to women administrators.

Of the questions that remained, one asked for a "man" or "woman" response followed by an open-ended "why?" The remainder of the questionnaire presented a brief series of questions that could be answered by either "man" or "woman" and by selecting one of a set of alternate choices.

Respondents were never threatened, contradicted, or cross-examined. Each was allowed to comment at any time during any question process. There were no leading questions as safeguards were established against bias.

Chapter 4

PRESENTATION OF DATA

The purpose of this chapter was to report the findings of the study. The collection and analysis of data for the study involved four tasks. The first of these tasks was concerned with selecting, for the study, subjects who had held positions under both a male and a female administrator. A second major task in the study involved the construction of an instrument adequate to measure perceptions of the sample population. The third task was interviewing the selected subjects in order to receive their perceptions. Making analyses of data received from the interviews was the fourth task.

The sample population consisted of one hundred subjects selected by availability of respondents who had held one or more positions under both male and female administrators. One hundred responses were divided into four categories consisting of 25 male and 25 female educators and 25 male and 25 female noneducators.

The interview-questionnaire, containing a total of 58 variables, consisted of 15 major parts. This writer asked the questions and recorded the responses as they were given by the subjects.

The data contained in Table 1 illustrates the job positions held by the respondents at the time the interviews were made. The respondents were asked to state the title of the position they held rather than to select the proper category. Positions among educators ranged from school superintendent to teacher, with a woman holding the

Table 1

Percentage of Titles - Positions* of Respondents

N = 25		N = 25		N = 25		N = 25	
Male Educators	%	Female Educators	%	Male Noneducators	%	Female Noneducators	%
Teachers	80	Teachers	84	Gen. Workers	76	Supervisors	24
Counselors	12	Counselors	4	Managers	12	Clerks	24
Principals	4	Principals	8	Supervisors	12	Secretaries	20
Asst. Principals	4	Superintendents	4			Gen. Workers	16
						Groomers	8
						Coordinators	4
						Waitresses	4

*Respondents stated own title for the position they held.

rank of superintendent. Supervisors to general workers comprised the noneducator positions with the highest and lowest ranks represented by both males and females.

The data contained in Table 2 depict the management position of each respondent. To Question 3 (see Appendix B) responses were made to either nonmanagement, line management, mid-management, or top management. Only one top management position was held by an educator and a female claimed that. Males and females tied with each holding 50 percent of the mid-management positions. Males outnumbered females by 8 percent in line management. Twenty of the male educators held nonmanagement positions while twenty-one females were in nonmanagement.

In noneducators the females led the males by 16 percent in top management and males outnumbered females in mid-management 2:1, while there were no positions held by male or female noneducators in line management. Nineteen males constituted 76 percent to 18 females falling just below with 72 percent in nonmanagement.

Part 4 on the questionnaire (see Appendix B) asked the respondents to identify the type of concern where they were employed. To meet Objective 1 (see Chapter 1), question 5 requested responses to "none", "little", or "much" exposure to women administrators. The survey findings in Table 3 show educator respondents have received slightly more exposure to women administrators than noneducator respondents. Female educators received the most exposure with 64 percent indicating they had received "much" exposure. Male noneducators have been exposed the least with 72 percent, according to Table 3. In the total population, the variance is small—52 percent received little exposure and 84 percent received much exposure. "None" was deleted from the table because there were no responses.

Table 2

Management Positions of Respondents by Number and Percentages

N = 25 each Subjects	Number in Nonmanagement		Number in Line Management		Number in Midmanagement		Number in Top Management	
		%		%		%		%
Male Educator	20	80	3	12	2	8	0	0
Female Educator	21	84	1	4	2	8	1	4
Male Noneducator	19	76	0	0	4	16	2	8
Female Noneducator	18	72	0	0	1	4	6	24
Totals	78		4		9		9	

Table 3

Number and Percentage of Exposure to
Women Administrators

(N=25 each)

Subjects	Number with Little	%	Number with Much	%
Male Educators	15	60	10	40
Female Educators	9	36	16	64
Male Noneducators	18	72	7	28
Female Noneducators	10	40	15	60
Totals	52		48	

The majority, 65 percent, of the population stated they were employed where less than 25 percent of the administrators were women. Of the female noneducators, 40 percent were employed where one hundred percent of the administrators were women. The educators worked with a higher percentage of female administrators than did the noneducators, 78 percent to 13 percent respectively. Table 4 shows the percentage of women administrators where respondents were employed. There were no males, neither educators nor noneducators, who worked with an absence of female administrators; whereas, 10 percent of the female population worked with no female administrators.

Respondents were allowed to state a percentage that applied to their own work environment that was not a possibility on the questionnaire. Four of the 25 male educators indicated they were employed where the percentage of female administrators was thirty-three and one-third percent. Female educators all fell within the zero percent to 50 percent range, while the female noneducators ranged from 8 percent with no female administrators, 28 percent with less than 25

Table 4

Number and Percentage of Respondents Employed Under
Zero to 100 Percent Female Administrators

Percentage of women Administrators where Respondents were Employed	25 Male Educators		25 Female Educators		25 Male Noneducators		25 Female Noneducators		Total Number
	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	Number	%	
0%	0	0	3	12	0	0	2	8	5
Less than 25%*	21	84	18	72	19	76	7	28	65
33.33%*	4	16	0	0	0	0	0	0	4
50%	0	0	4	16	3	12	6	24	13
75%	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
100%*	0	0	0	0	3	12	10	40	13

*These free response percentages were not on the questionnaire.

percent female administrators, 24 percent with 50 percent female administrators, none with 75 percent female administrators, and 40 percent with all (100 percent) female administrators. Of the male noneducators, 12 percent worked with 100 percent female administrators. The results show roughly that female noneducators have been exposed to more female administrators than male noneducators and male and female educators have.

Respondents were asked to indicate a need for more or less female administrators where they were employed. Table 5 shows that about half (54 percent) of the total population indicated neither was needed while the remainder (46 percent) was almost equally divided between "more" or "less." Twenty-two percent felt that more female administrators were needed while 24 percent felt less female administrators were needed. Female educators (56 percent) were the respondents favoring more female administrators, and male educators (80 percent) felt neither was needed according to Table 5. Only two males from the entire population felt a need for more female administrators.

Table 5

Number and Percentage of Responses to the Need
For More or Less Women Administrators

N = 25 each

Respondents	More	%	Less	%	Neither	%
Male Educators	0	0	5	20	20	80
Female Educators	14	56	3	12	8	32
Male Noneducator	2	8	8	32	15	60
Female Noneducator	6	24	8	32	11	44
Totals	22		24		54	

Do women have unique characteristics that men do not have in a leadership role? Table 6 shows that analysis of the survey findings by educator groups indicates that females feel that women are more energetic (48 percent) and patient (32 percent), while in the noneducator group both males and females felt women were more energetic and patient. Table 6 indicates that 57 percent of the total population agree that women are more energetic than men. In contrast, the least frequently indicated characteristic was "powerful." Both male and female noneducators each named, on their own, "understanding" 16 percent times. Other suggested characteristics named more than once were persuasive, empathetic, compassionate, threatened, and determined. Also, 24 percent of the male educators stated that women try too hard.

The question posed in Table 7 was, "When this concern began to place women in leadership positions, were there changes such as improvement in the quality of work life, increase in the self-confidence of followers, and/or increase in followers' skills?" Table 7 indicates a larger percentage of the total population answered "no" to all three possibilities. The highest positive response came from the male educators with 84 percent indicating an increase in the self-confidence of followers. This was quite in contrast to the 96 percent of the male noneducators answering negatively to this same question. Women do not seem to cause behavior changes indicated according to 61.33 percent of the entire population.

Analysis of the findings by groups reveals in Table 8 that 84.2 percent overwhelmingly feel that neither more nor less absenteeism, grievances, slowdowns, voluntary turnovers, or requests to transfer have been present since females have been supervising. The highest percentages indicating more absenteeism, voluntary turnovers,

Table 6

Characteristics Unique to Women by Number and Percentage

N=25 each*											
Respondents	Dominant		Energetic		Powerful		Patient		Other+		
		%		%		%		%			%
Male Educators	5	20	6	24	0	0	5	20	Sensitive	1	4
									Try too hard	6	24
									Helpful	1	4
									More sure	1	4
									Persuasive	2	8
Female Educators	1	4	12	48	2	8	8	32	Acceptance	1	4
									Empathy	2	8
									Compassionate	4	16
Male Noneducators	1	4	23	92	1	4	5	20	Threatened	2	8
									Determined	2	8
									Understanding	4	16
Female Noneducators	7	28	16	64	3	12	11	44	Organized	1	4
									Common Sense	1	4
									Understanding	4	16
									Forceful	1	4
									Enthusiastic	1	4
									Try harder	1	4
									Moody	1	4
									Sensitive	1	4
Totals	14		57		6		29				

*Every category was not checked by every respondent. Some checked more than one.

+These characteristics were given by the respondents.

Table 7

Number and Percentage Indicating Behavior Changes
After Placement of Women Administrators

N=25 each Respondents	Improvement in the Quality of work life				Increase in the Self- Confidence of followers				Increase in Follower's skills			
	Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%	Yes	%	No	%
Male Educators	19	76	6	24	21	84	4	16	6	24	19	76
Female Educators	19	76	6	24	17	68	8	32	5	20	20	80
Male Noneducators	3	12	22	88	1	4	24	96	2	8	23	92
Female Noneducators	5	20	20	80	9	36	16	64	9	36	16	64
Totals	46		54		48		52		22		78	

Table 8

Number and Percentage Indicating Attendance and Grievances

N=25 each Respondents	Absenteeism						Grievances						Slowdowns						Voluntary Turnovers						Requests to Transfer					
	M	%	L	%	N	%	M	%	L	%	N	%	M	%	L	%	N	%	M	%	L	%	N	%	M	%	L	%	N	%
Male Educators	2	8	2	8	21	84	3	12	1	4	21	84	0	0	0	0	25	100	1	4	1	4	23	92	1	4	1	4	23	92
Female Educators	3	12	3	12	19	76	0	0	1	4	24	96	0	0	0	0	25	100	1	4	2	8	22	88	0	0	1	4	24	96
Male Noneducators	0	0	1	4	24	96	2	8	2	8	21	84	0	0	0	0	25	100	2	8	0	0	23	92	2	8	0	0	23	92
Female Noneducators	4	16	11	44	10	40	3	12	5	20	17	68	2	8	5	20	18	72	4	16	1	4	20	80	4	16	3	12	18	72
Totals	9		17		74		8		9		83		2		5		88		8		4		88		7		5		88	

M = more
L = less
N = neither

and requests to transfer were all (16 percent) made by female noneducators. Indications are that attendance and grievances are not affected by female administrators.

In Table 9, all respondents did not choose all possibilities. Some respondents chose just one or two or more possibilities when asked to classify the kinds of leadership displayed in their situation. "Situational engineered" led "legitimate request" with 57 to 51 responses. "Coercion" was chosen the least with 19 responses. "Situational engineered" was chosen most often by both male and female educators with "coercion" being chosen the least.

Male noneducators chose "persuasive" most while "inspirational appealing" was chosen the most by female noneducators. "Personal identification" would appear, to this writer, to be appealing to the female follower but this variable was chosen next to least by both female educators and noneducators. Males and females disagreed the most on "inspirational appealing" with five responses from the males and 31 from the females. Twelve female noneducators felt they were coerced, whereas only one female educator felt coercion.

Survey findings indicate, according to Table 10, that women cope better when the trait needed for leadership is tact, creativity, organization, persuasion, and dominance. Subjects were asked to respond to "men," "women," or "neither" in reference to each variable. The other possible trait choice, "skill," was chosen by 66 percent of the population as being possessed more by females, than by males. Ninety-two percent of the entire population felt that women coped better than men when creativity was needed. Men and women came closer together under dominance with 37 percent of the population indicating men coped better and 52 percent indicating women coped better.

Table 9

Number of Responses to Classifications of Leadership Displayed

N=25 each* Respondents	Persuasive	Inspirational Appealing	Situational Engineered	Personal Identification	Coercion	Legitimate Request
Male Educator	10	2	15	2	4	7
Female Educator	10	12	17	8	1	11
Male Noneducator	19	3	13	2	2	15
Female Noneducator	6	19	12	9	12	18
Total	45	36	57	21	19	51

*All respondents did not choose all--some one, some 2 or more

Table 10

Number of Responses to Ability to Cope

N=25 each	Skill			Tact			Creativity			Organized			Persuasive			Dominance		
Respondents	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N
Male Educators	1	0	1	1	24	0	0	24	1	1	9	15	1	23	1	23	1	1
Female Educators	2	2	3	3	5	17	3	22	0	3	2	20	3	21	1	4	18	3
Male Noneducators	3	4	2	2	21	2	1	24	0	4	20	1	3	20	2	2	20	3
Female Noneducators	7	15	5	5	16	4	0	22	3	4	17	4	10	13	2	8	13	4
Total	13	21	11	11	66	23	4	92	4	12	48	40	17	77	6	37	52	11

M = Man

W = Woman

N = Neither

Women received the next highest marks in "persuasion." Seventy-seven percent felt women were more persuasive. More men than women (45-25) felt women were more tactful than men. More women than men (17-4) felt women were more skillful. More men than women felt women were better organized (29-19), and more persuasive (43-33). More women than men (31-21) felt women were more dominant than men.

The total male population gave the female the highest percentage of ratings, 31.66, to the females' ratings of 21.16. The remaining portion indicated neither coped better with the traits presented. Noneducators rated women higher than did men with 36.16 percent and 25.16 percent respectively.

"Under stress does the female or male leader or neither appear to be more cooperative, dependable, self confident, tolerant of stress, or responsible?" is tabulated in Table 11. Twenty-one male educators felt women were more tolerant of stress, whereas 18 male noneducators felt men were more tolerant. Male and female educators tallied 18 each with male respondents believing females to be more self confident and females believing males to be. Male and female noneducators felt equally (18-18) that females were more cooperative than males while educators were split with 17 percent of the males for women and 13 percent of the females for men. The male noneducator felt men were more tolerant of stress (18 percent), while 20 percent of the female noneducators felt women were more tolerant.

Male educators (72 percent) felt neither man nor woman had a greater need for achievement. Female educators (60 percent), male noneducators (48 percent), and female noneducators (60 percent) believed women had a greater need for achievement than men. The total

Table 11

Number of Responses Indicating Stress in Leadership

Question: Under stress does the female or male leader appear to be more:

N=25 each Respondents	Cooperative			Self Confident			Tolerant of Stress			Dependable			Responsible		
	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N
Male Educator	3	17	5	4	18	3	1	21	3	2	8	15	3	15	8
Female Educator	13	5	7	18	5	2	5	17	3	10	10	5	7	8	10
Male Noneducator	5	18	2	2	8	5	18	5	2	2	3	20	3	3	21
Female Noneducator	6	18	1	7	15	3	4	10	1	5	18	2	3	15	4
Total	27	58	15	31	46	23	28	63	9	19	39	42	16	41	43

M = Man

W = Woman

N = Neither

female population, as shown in Table 12, considered women to have a greater need for achievement by 60 percent.

Some of the reasons why men have a greater need for achievement, as contributed by respondents, were: man must find himself, has something to prove, is the breadwinner, and must keep his macho image. These were contributed by men, as well as women. Reasons for women's need for achievement were: women are oriented to achieve, must prove self, need power, need career, and everyone is watching. These also were given by men and women.

Is the female administrator more fluent in speaking, more clever, more knowledgeable, more socially skilled, more emotional, and/or more practical than the male? Table 13 shows that from the total population, 56.33 percent said yes. Eighteen percent said the male had more of these attributes, but 25.66 percent said neither was considered to have more of the attributes. Both male educators and male noneducators rated women higher than men in every category except "more practical." Of the male educators, 12 percent thought men were more practical and 72 percent of the male noneducators thought men were more practical. Female educators even felt men to be more practical than the men felt them to be, while female noneducators felt women to be more practical.

Table 12

Number of Responses to Man's or Woman's Need for Achievement in Leadership

Question: Who has a greater need for achievement?

N=25				
Respondents	Man	Woman	Neither	Free responses from all categories
Male Educators	3	4	18	Oriented to achieve
Female Educators	2	15	8	Something to prove (man)
Male Noneducators	3	12	10	Prove self
Female Noneducators	5	15	5	Need for power
				Breadwinner (man)
Totals	13	46	41	Find himself
				Ego (man)
				Career
				Everyone watching
				Macho image

Table 13

Number of Responses to Leadership Performance

Question: When performing as a leader, do you feel that a woman or a man is:

N=25 each Respondents	More fluent in speaking			More Clever			More Knowledgeable			More Socially Skilled			More Emotional			More Practical		
	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N	M	W	N
Male Educator	2	3	20	3	7	15	1	3	21	1	21	3	5	20	0	3	3	19
Female Educator	0	22	3	2	18	5	2	19	4	2	19	4	0	22	3	13	2	10
Male Noneducator	3	19	3	3	7	15	12	12	1	3	18	4	2	21	2	18	5	2
Female Noneducator	15	7	3	5	19	1	3	14	8	6	16	3	2	23	0	2	18	5
Totals	20	51	29	13	51	36	18	48	34	12	14	14	9	86	5	36	28	36

M = Man
W = Woman
N = Neither

Chapter 5

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The purpose of this chapter was to present a summary of the findings, conclusions, and recommendations.

The problem of this investigation has been to obtain, organize, and present data of an available sample from male and female educators and noneducators who had worked with both male and female administrators at the same time or at different times. Male's and female's perceptions of the effectiveness of the female administrators were compared.

Summary

There was little difference in the women's perceptions when compared to the men's perceptions of the effectiveness of women administrators.

Summaries of the hypotheses by objectives were:

1. To examine the amount of exposure the respondents have had

to women administrators. Findings showed females have been exposed to women administrators more and educators have received more exposure than noneducators. Females, both educators and noneducators, received almost twice as much exposure to female administrators.

2. To determine the percentage of women administrators employed

in the respondents' places of employment. Thirteen of the 50 male and female noneducators worked with 100 percent female administrators. A total of 65 respondents from the entire population were employed under

administrations that contained less than 25 percent female administrators. Thirteen percent of the population worked with 50 percent female administrators, only 5 percent worked with no female administrators, and none of the respondents worked with 75 percent female administrators.

3. To examine the possibility that women possess characteristics different from men in a leadership role. Women do possess characteristics different from men in a leadership role. Women appeared to be more energetic, according to 57 percent, and patient, according to 29 percent, than men. Fourteen percent of the population felt women were more dominant, while only 6 percent felt women were more powerful. Among unique characteristics contributed by respondents were compassionate and understanding.

4. To examine the possibility that women cause behavior changes in subordinates. Data show women administrators do not cause changes in subordinates according to 61.33 percent of the population when improvement in the quality of work life, increase in the self-confidence of followers, and increase in followers' skills were the variables. Neither more nor less absenteeism, grievances, slowdowns, voluntary turnovers, or requests to transfer have been present since females have been supervising, according to 84.2 percent of the population.

5. To determine copeability under stress in men and women administrators. Male educators felt women to be more tolerant of stress than did male noneducators. When self-confident was the variable tested, female educators believed men to be more self-confident than women, and male educators believed women to be more self-confident. The male noneducator considered men to be more tolerant of stress while the

female noneducator felt women to be more tolerant. The final analysis reveals little difference in the male or female administrators' ability to cope under stress.

6. To identify classifications of the leadership shown respondents. More than half of the respondents chose situational engineered and legitimate request as the foremost classifications of leadership. Persuasive and inspirational appealing followed in that order. Coercion was chosen the least. Females felt administrators were more inspirationally appealing than did men. More female noneducators than educators felt they were coerced. There was little difference in men's classifying and women's classifying leadership displayed in their situations.

7. To establish the need for achievement in women and men. Male educators felt neither men nor women had a greater need for achievement. A majority of the remaining respondents felt women had a greater need. Respondents were asked to state why they chose the answer they gave. Some of the reasons for women's need for achievement were: women are oriented to achieve, must prove self, need power, need career, and everyone is watching. Men, according to the data, need achievement because: man must find himself, has something to prove, is the breadwinner, and must keep his macho image.

Examination of the results by the major groups--men and women--indicated women do possess characteristics different from men in a leadership role. Men, at times, held higher opinions of women than did women. Men's perceptions of the effectiveness of women administrators differed little when compared to women's perceptions.

Conclusions

According to the Clarksville Area Chamber of Commerce, five percent of the businesses in Clarksville, Tennessee, holding membership in the chamber are administrated by women. Women in Montgomery County are progressing into top and middle management, although they have yet to gain full acceptance in the boardroom. This researcher found in Montgomery County women have achieved top management in shops and locally owned small businesses but were scarce in public school administrative positions and executive positions in corporations. Each of the four banks listed with the Clarksville Area Chamber of Commerce was represented by a woman.

Top management positions in a leading communications corporation in Montgomery County were held one hundred percent by women. This corporation's employees, both men and women, held women administrators in high regard and did not feel more men were needed in administration. This supports the data collected in this field study.

A higher percentage of male and female educators than noneducators rated women to be more effective than men as administrators. Women's century-long struggle for emancipation is evident in the new emerging concept--self-fulfillment. Women must find the meaning of self-fulfillment and the possibilities for growth of the individual as supported in the Harbeson Study (1967).

This writer's conclusions parallel Voltner and Martin's conclusions in their 1982 research in that statistics showed positive

and negative attitudes toward women administrators in education. The positive attitudes included the ideas that women are becoming more assertive, that men now accept that women have expertise in administrative positions, and that more women are welcomed into the administrative world in a warm, helpful manner.

Other conclusions paralleling Voltmer and Martin (1982) are that the negative attitudes may have revealed an unspoken fear of women administrators. Also encountered were the beliefs that women become defensive too quickly, that males tend to ignore female administrators in a group, that men dominate the conversation, and that women are too picky and detailed. Women must be more persistent in their pursuit of their educational administrative aspirations.

The major conclusion drawn from this study was that there is little difference between the females' perception of the effectiveness of the female administrator and the males' perception of the effectiveness of the female administrator. Females often are accepted better by men than by women was a surprising conclusion for this researcher.

Recommendations

Less than one third of the public school principals in Montgomery County in 1982 were women. There was only one other woman administrator in the Clarksville-Montgomery County School System. Factors that inhibit women from aspiring to leadership positions in education must be identified and eliminated if the decade of the '80s is to offer more opportunity for women in administrative careers in education than did the decade of the '70s.

Employers and guidance counselors seem to hold the keys to the top for women administrators. The Department of Labor has issued guidelines which require that employees must take affirmative action to recruit women to apply for those jobs where they have been previously excluded. Otherwise, employers must demonstrate a commitment to include women candidates in management programs for trainees (National Council, 1972).

Catherine East (1972), president of the Citizens Advisory Council on the Status of Women, believed, as this writer recommends, support should be given to those small numbers of women seeking administrative positions because justice will be served and because role models will be provided for women students.

Studies (McCarthy and Zent, 1982) have reported that, as graduate students, females require more encouragement to pursue top administrative jobs more often than do males. Additional opportunities for women to gain such entry-level experience may need to be provided by school districts and administration preparation programs. This would enable women to compete for higher-level positions on an equal footing with males.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A
COMPOSITION OF THE SAMPLE
Analysis of Respondents

SEX	%	%Educators	%Noneducators
Men	50	25	25
Women	50	25	25

AGE	%
Adults (18 and over)	100

OCCUPATION	%Men	%Women
Administrators	16	22
Teachers	40	42
Counselors	6	2
Clerical and Sales	0	12
Secretaries	0	10
General Workers	38	12
Waitresses	10	2

MANAGEMENT	%Men	%Women
Nonmanagement	78	78
Line Management	6	2
Mid Management	12	6
Top Management	4	14

APPENDIX B

QUESTIONNAIRE TO BE COMPLETED BY THE
RESEARCHER THROUGH INTERVIEWS

1. Title/Position _____ 2. Sex _____
3. Nonmanagement _____ Line mgn _____ Mid mgn _____ Top mgn _____
4. Association, company, school, etc. _____
5. How much exposure have you had to women adms?
None _____ Little _____ Much _____
6. At this location what is the percentage of women administrators?
0% _____ Less than 25% _____ 50% _____ 75% _____ Other _____
7. Do you feel that more _____ or less _____ women adms. are needed here?
8. Do women have unique characteristics that men do not possess in the field of leadership such as dominant _____, energetic _____, powerful _____, patient _____, other _____?
9. When this concern began to place women in leadership positions, were there changes such as improvement in the quality of work life _____, an increase in the self-confidence of followers _____, and increase in followers' skills _____?
10. Since you have had women adms. have you noticed more or less absenteeism _____, grievances _____, slowdowns _____, voluntary turn over _____, requests to transfer _____, wild cat strikes _____?
11. How would you classify the kinds of leadership displayed in your situation:
persuasive _____, inspirationally appealing _____, situationally engineered _____, personal identification _____, coercion _____, legitimate request _____?

12. Do you feel that a man or a woman copes better when the trait needed for leadership is skill _____, tact _____, creativity _____, organization _____, persuasion _____, dominance _____?
13. Under stress does the female or male leader appear to be more cooperative _____, dependable _____, self-confident _____, tolerant of stress _____, responsible _____?
14. Who has a greater need for achievement, a man or a woman? _____
Why? _____

15. When performing as a leader, do you feel that a woman or a man is:
more fluent in speaking _____
more clever _____
more knowledgeable _____
more socially skilled _____
more emotional _____
more practical _____