

To the Graduate Council:

I am submitting herewith a dissertation written by Lana Robeson Doncaster entitled "The Congruence of Social-Psychological Factors And Career Choices of Women in Leadership Positions in U.S. Programs for the Deaf." I have examined the final copy of this dissertation for form and content and recommend that it be accepted for partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Education, with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision.

John T. Lovell
John T. Lovell, Major Professor

We have read this dissertation
and recommend its acceptance:

Henry H. Miller

Michael C. Rish

Charles H. Hargis

Accepted for the Council:

Cuminski
The Graduate School

THE CONGRUENCE OF SOCIAL-PSYCHOLOGICAL FACTORS AND
CAREER CHOICES OF WOMEN IN LEADERSHIP POSITIONS
IN U. S. PROGRAMS FOR THE DEAF

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ABSTRACT

The major focus of this study was concerned with analyzing the social-psychological factors influencing the career choices of women in educational administration in residential and day school programs for the deaf in the United States and comparing this influence with that of these same factors upon women teachers in these programs who had worked for a five-year period and had not attained administrative positions.

The participants in this study consisted of two groups. The first group, the target group, was 141 top-level women administrators in 141 United States residential and day school programs serving the deaf who were identified in the April 1982 issue of American Annals of the Deaf. The second group, the control group, was 137 women teachers in seven residential school programs and twenty-three day school programs serving the deaf from a cross section of the United States who had obtained Master's degrees and had remained in a teaching position for at least five years and who had not attained top-level administrative positions.

The data in this study were obtained via questionnaire survey. The questionnaire was designed to obtain demographic data, social-psychological data, and data on subject attribution, the latter to determine external-internal locus of control.

The returned questionnaires were analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Data obtained were subjected

to frequency distributions, and the Chi-square and t-test of mean differences. The findings in this study showed no significant differences between the administrators and teachers on the social-psychological variables concerned with locus of control, lack of support from female peers, commitment to uninterrupted careers, relationship between family situation and professional qualifications, and sexual identity vs. career identity. The social-psychological variables which showed significant differences between the administrators and teachers and were deemed to be correlates of success for the women administrators in this study were: The development of mentor relationships with other administrators; the influence of other administrative role models; and the ability to mesh family responsibilities with a firm career commitment, career persistence, and career success.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER	PAGE
I. INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY	1
Introduction	1
Statement of the Problem	3
Purpose of the Study	4
Importance of the Study	5
Assumptions	8
Limitations and Delimitations	8
Definitions	9
Hypotheses	11
Procedures	12
Design	12
Population	13
Survey Instrument	13
Data Collection	14
Data Analysis	16
Organization of the Study	16
II. REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE	18
Introduction	18
Socialization Practices at Cross Purposes with Career Identity: A Statement of the Problem . . .	19
Social-Psychological Factors as Correlates of Career Success	21
Locus of Control Theory	22
Role Models and Mentors as Significant Others . . .	24
Autonomy and Achievement Activity	26
Support from Female Peers	28
Career Commitment	29
Role Conflict	32
Family Situation	34
III. PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA	37
Personal Characteristics	39
Geographic Location of Respondents	39
Position Titles	40
Age	42

CHAPTER	PAGE
Marital Status	44
Number of Children	44
Highest Academic Degree Obtained	47
Audiological Status of Respondents	48
Analysis of Data	50
Hypothesis Number One	50
Hypothesis Number Two	52
Hypothesis Number Three	56
Hypothesis Number Four	65
Hypothesis Number Five	75
Hypothesis Number Six	78
Hypothesis Number Seven	83
Hypothesis Number Eight	92
Hypothesis Number Nine	96
Hypothesis Number Ten	100
Summary	106
IV. SUMMARY, FINDINGS, AND CONCLUSIONS	108
Summary	108
Findings and Conclusions	110
Comparative Demographic Data	110
The Target Group: Supplemental Demographics	112
Results and Conclusions from Hypotheses	114
Limitations	134
LIST OF REFERENCES	135
APPENDICES	142
A. Cover Letter Mailed to Participants	143
B. Follow-Up Letter Mailed to Participants	145
C. Questionnaire	147
VITA	154

LIST OF TABLES

TABLE	PAGE
I. Geographic Location of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	40
II. Position Titles of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	41
III. Age Distribution of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	43
IV. Marital Status of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	45
V. Distribution of Number of Children of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	46
VI. Highest Academic Degrees Obtained for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	49
VII. Audiological Status of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	49
VIII. Distribution of Locus of Control Scores for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	51
IX. Summary of $\bar{I}$ -Value for Locus of Control Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	53
X. Distribution of Mentor Relationships for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	54
XI. Distribution of Female Administrators Who Served as Mentors for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	55

TABLE

PAGE

XII.	Distribution of Male and Female Administrators Who Served as Mentors for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	56
XIII.	Distribution of Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	57
XIV.	Distribution of Female Parents Who Served as Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	59
XV.	Distribution of the Occupations of the Mothers of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	59
XVI.	Distribution of the Occupational Status of the Mothers of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	60
XVII.	Distribution of Females Within the Educational System Who Served as Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	62
XVIII.	Distribution of Female College Professors Who Served As Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	62
XIX.	Distribution of Administrators Who Served as Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	64
XX.	Distribution of College Level Quality of Academic Work for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	66
XXI.	Summary of T-Value for Lack of Confidence and Attitude Toward Self Variable for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	68
XXII.	Summary of T-Value for Conflict Associated with a Fear of Becoming Unfeminine Variable for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	68

TABLE

PAGE

XXIII.	Distribution of Answers for Conflict Associated with a Fear of Becoming Unfeminine Variable for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	70
XXIV.	Distribution of Sources of Influence for Present Job for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	71
XXV.	Distribution of Reported Discouragement for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	73
XXVI.	Distribution of Sources of Discouragement for Present Job for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	74
XXVII.	Summary of T-Value for Peer Support Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	77
XXVIII.	Summary of T-Value for Role Conflict Caused by Lack of Support from Female Peers Variable for Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	77
XXIX.	Total Years of Teaching Experience for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	79
XXX.	Distribution of Ages at First Appointment to Teaching Position for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	81
XXXI.	Distribution of Ages at First Appointment to Administrative Position for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	81
XXXII.	Total Number of Years Served in an Administrative Position for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	82
XXXIII.	Summary of T-Values for Career Commitment Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	84

TABLE

PAGE

XXXIV.	Summary of T-Values for Dual Role Conflict Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	86
XXXV.	Distribution of Degrees Obtained for Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf by Number of Children	94
XXXVI.	Distribution of Degrees Obtained for Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf by Marital Status	95
XXXVII.	Summary of T-Values for Commitment to Uninterrupted Careers Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	97
XXXVIII.	Distribution of Time Periods on Initial Decision to Enter Teaching or Educational Administration for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	101
XXXIX.	Distribution of Time Periods on Initial Decision to Enter Teaching as a Career for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	103
XXXX.	Distribution of Time Periods on Initial Decision to Enter Educational Administration as a Career for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	103
XXXXI.	Distribution of Time Periods on Final Decision to Become a Teacher for Female Administrators and Teachers in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	105
XXXXII.	Distribution of Time Periods on Final Decision to Become an Educational Administrator for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf	105

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

I. Introduction

Fact: Today in America, public education's rank and file is composed largely of women. Fact: Today in America public education administration is composed largely of men. This is not too surprising. During the past fifty years--a period that has seen women truly subsumed into the national workforce--women have traditionally held the lion's share of teaching positions in public education while men have dominated the supervisory and administrative ranks. That there was an imbalance in favor of men in educational administration, then, was hardly surprising. What was surprising is the degree to which the imbalance existed. And what was downright incomprehensible is the fact that despite a heightened awareness of the imbalance and despite concerted efforts to rectify the situation, the imbalance not only persisted, but was growing. A recent national survey indicated that 13.5 percent of the nation's principals were female, down from 37 percent in 1960; and of the nation's superintendents, only .1 percent were female. This figure also reflected a decline from the past decade (Howard, 1975).

Recent studies (Broverman, Broverman, Clarkson, Rosenkrantz, & Vogel, 1972; Megargee, 1969; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973; Schein, 1973), on women have focused primarily on the first generation research

topics of stereotyping and discrimination. These studies have typically demonstrated that the results of leadership theory research, that is research originally conducted with male subjects, apply equally to women.

Second generation research was needed on women in general and on women in educational administration in particular. Who were the women involved in educational administration? To what did they attribute their success? Were they different from other women in education? If so, how? The fact was we knew relatively little about these women and the social-psychological factors which enabled them to defy the myths concerning sex-role stereotypes. Since most recent research studies (Broverman et al., 1972; Megargee, 1969; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973; Schein, 1973) have focused on why women have not been motivated to enter male dominated professions, a look at the converse (i.e., an assessment of the social-psychological factors which influenced career choices of women in educational administration) was of significance.

The focus of attention in this study was a social-psychological assessment of women in educational leadership positions in the United States residential and day school programs for the deaf. It was assumed an assessment would bring about a shift in the perceptions of, and the attitudes toward, the women in question and thus provide the basis for enhanced utilization of them within their respective organizations. Hopefully, this study also provided women either already in or desirous of entering educational administration with

informational referents that would be useful in both formulating and attaining professional goals.

II. Statement of the Problem

The problem was twofold. Current research had failed to satisfactorily examine the influence of social-psychological factors upon career choices of women in educational leadership positions. Moreover, while women in educational administration had been targeted as a group in previous studies, no one to date had looked at the women in educational administration in the United States residential and day schools for the deaf sub-group.

Many women are employed in leadership positions in educational administration. However, recent research (Adams & Hicks, 1980; Maccoby, 1966; Megargee, 1969; Pheterson, Kiesler, & Goldberg, 1971; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973; Schein, 1973) on women in educational leadership positions has been confined to the following areas: (1) sex role stereotyping, (2) misconceptions concerning management capabilities, (3) discrimination in recruitment, hiring, and recruitment policies, and (4) biological causes of sex differences and subsequent problems.

This study focused on those women who were employed in top-level administrative positions in the United States residential and day school programs serving the deaf (Craig & Craig, 1982). The major question of this study was: What social-psychological factors influenced the career choices of women in educational administration in the United States residential and day school programs serving the deaf?

III. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study was to examine the influence of selected social-psychological factors upon the career choices of top-level women administrators in the United States residential and day school programs for the deaf and compare this influence with that of these same factors upon women in these same programs who had worked for a five-year period and had not attained top-level administrative positions.

Specific research objectives were:

1. To identify the social-psychological variables that served as correlates of success in the target group; and as correlates of stasis in the control group.
2. To identify any trends in the data collected; and in so doing,
3. To develop a social-psychological profile of women administrators in deaf education in the United States.

Objective number one was critical here and was the primary focus of the study. Some of the issues that were addressed in identifying the social-psychological variables essential to bringing about the success outcome follow:

1. What was the locus of control of the target group; and if it was different, how was it different from the control group?
 - a. In this case, were these target women inner directed (internal locus of control) or did family attitudes and influences

of "powerful others" (external locus of control) influence their successes? Was there variance here with the control group?

b. Did role models and mentors serve as "significant others" in career choices for the target population? Did the same hold true for the control group?

2. Were the women in the target group and the women in the control group able to function autonomously when the social environment was hostile?

3. Did the women in the target group and the women in the control group receive support from female peers?

4. Did the women in the target group and the women in the control group narrow broad academic interests into an orderly pattern of career development?

5. Was there a fit or conflict between career pursuits and those of wife and/or mother in the women in the target group? Was there variance here with the control group?

6. Were professional qualifications and family situation dependent or independent variables in the target and the control groups?

7. Was continuity of work involvement a critical factor in success in the target group? Did lack of continuity bring about stasis in the control group?

IV. Importance of the Study

Although scattered information, mainly of a demographic nature, existed on women in educational administration in residential

and day schools for the deaf in the United States, this information was sparse at best and had never been gathered together and collated. Furthermore, there had been no analysis whatsoever of the social-psychological factors that demarcated these women in top-level administrative positions from other women in the field of deaf education. This study, in addressing these heretofore unresearched areas, generated data that would be useful in a number of ways.

Many individual differences exist between men and women. Some of these differences are biological in origin and thus highly resistant or immune to modification, while others are cultural in origin and thus susceptible to change. It was with this latter group that we concerned ourselves here. For instance, while men may need to learn more about relationships and expressing emotions, Kanter (1977) stated:

women need help in just the opposite: to experience their power, to develop task orientation, to intellectualize, to behave impersonally and address large groups, to become invulnerable to feedback, to own and value their own ambitions as well as their responsibilities to others (p. 198).

Social learning theorists concern themselves with one's perception of control, and Julian B. Rotter's (1966) social learning theory contained the largest body of empirical data which deals with perceived control. Rotter's (1966) theory postulates that a person's actions are predicated on the basis of his values, his expectations, and the situations in which he finds himself. "Perceived control is defined as a generalized expectancy for internal as opposed to external control of reinforcements" (Lefcourt, 1976, p. 27).

To summarize Rotter's (1966) locus of control theory: The potential for a set of behaviors to occur which lead to the satisfaction of some need (Need Potential) is a function of both the expectancies that these behaviors will lead to these reinforcements (Freedom of Movement) and the value of these reinforcements (Need Value). The general formula follows:

$$NP = f(FM \& NV)$$

In this formula, value, reinforcement expectancy, and situation specificity all share equal emphasis.

Rotter's (1954) definition of freedom of movement is:

the mean expectancy of obtaining positive satisfactions as a result of a set of related behaviors directed toward the accomplishment of a group of functionally related reinforcements. A person's freedom of movement is low if he has a high expectancy of failure or punishment as a result of the behaviors with which he tries to obtain the reinforcements that constitute a particular need (p. 194).

Thus, freedom of movement pertains to expectation of success.

In this study, freedom of movement referred to that aspect of a woman's belief system that holds that specific sequences of behavior once engaged in engender specific and functionally related outcomes. Successful behavior equals successful outcome in the freedom of movement calculus.

Although there is conflicting evidence on this point, it appears that women are more likely to see what happens to them as independent of their own behavior than are men, and they also more often attribute their success to external and/or unstable factors. However, one's confidence, self-esteem, and sense of competence are best served by attributing success to internal, stable factors and

failure to external, unstable ones (Frieze, 1975). Thus, research on locus of control and attributions was highly relevant to understanding women's experiences and attitudes within organizations.

When viewed within the context of social motivation theory then, information from this study would provide educational organizations with a basis for developing methods to facilitate the goal attainment and behavioral change of women within the organization. To the degree that specific success factors can be identified and quantified, to that same degree can they be taught. The result is that both the women employee and the organization benefit.

V. Assumptions

This study was based on the following assumptions:

1. The subjects in the study were from a relatively normative and representative population of women educators and educational administrators in residential and day school programs for the deaf.
2. The subjects were capable of giving unbiased information under the conditions set forth in a questionnaire format.

VI. Limitations and Delimitations

The target population of this study was limited to those women individuals employed in residential and day school programs for the deaf who were identified in the April, 1982 issue of American Annals of the Deaf (Craig & Craig, 1982). (This was the most current and comprehensive listing of administrative personnel in deaf education.) Thus, the scope of this study was delimited to women who were employed

in 1982 as superintendents, assistant superintendents, principals, supervisors of curriculum, directors, directors of special education, consultants, department heads, coordinators, and administrators; and to a control group of women who had obtained M.S. degrees and were employed as teachers and had taught for at least a five-year period in American residential and day school programs for the deaf. Both residential and day school programs included public, private, and parochial educational institutions; therefore, questionnaires were sent to all members of the population of top-level administrators. Programs which were not identified in the April, 1982 issue of American Annals of the Deaf were not included in the study.

VII. Definitions

1. Career identity. A component of self-concept indicating the role expectations an individual has adopted and manifests in the form of behavioral traits deemed appropriate for his/her gender.
2. Day school program. A school program in which students attend classes and return to their homes at the end of each school day.
3. Deviant behavior. A behavior that is either qualitatively or quantitatively different from behavior specified as normative.
4. External locus of control. A construct used to denote the place from which environmental events arise; more specifically, a person's belief that the origin of what befalls him resides in "significant others" (i.e., in people or forces outside himself).

5. Freedom of movement. A construct connecting expectation of success; more specifically, a term that refers to an individual's belief or perception that reinforcement (in this case, any successful outcome) is functionally tied to his/her antecedent behavior.

6. Internal locus of control. A construct used to denote the place from which environmental events arise; more specifically, a person's belief that what befalls him is generally controlled by him; that he brings it about.

7. Mentor. A person who influences--either by example, encouragement, or support--another person's career choices by motivating the other person to seek higher aspiration levels.

8. Residential school. A school equipped with dormitories and one in which the majority of students live as well as attend classes.

9. Role model. A person who possesses skills and displays behaviors which another person identifies with and emulates.

10. Sex-role identity. A behavioral characteristic deemed appropriate to a specific gender within any given culture.

11. Significant others. Those persons or things perceived by an individual to have some element of control over his/her life.

12. Social-psychological factors. This term as used throughout the study includes all quantifiable determinants of behavior whether they reside within or without the individual.

13. Success and successful. This term as used herein is used not in its generic sense but rather in a very special sense. It is used as an abbreviated description of the women subjects in the target

group, all of whom have risen to the level of supervisor of instruction or above in residential and day school programs for the deaf.

14. Stasis and unsuccessful. These terms, used interchangeably, are used throughout the study to refer to all the women in the control group. Quite simply, these terms denote those women who are presently not employed in top-level administrative positions in deaf educational facilities, but who have been employed for at least a five-year period in those facilities.

VIII. Hypotheses

The basic hypotheses which were investigated were:

1. There were significant differences in locus of control between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers.
2. There were significant differences in the lack of mentors between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers.
3. There were significant differences in the scarcity of role models between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers.
4. There were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on operating autonomously in a hostile environment (i.e., significant differences on achievement needs as measured by intellectual attainment and highest degree obtained, on external sources of support, and on a lowering of self-esteem and a loss of

femininity in a society which negatively reinforces women's success and achievements).

5. There were significant differences in the lack of female peer support between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers.

6. There were significant differences between administrators and teachers on an orderly pattern of career development and commitment.

7. There were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on role conflict associated with combining the dual role of worker and the traditional role of wife/mother.

8. There were significant differences between administrators and teachers on the relationship between family situation and professional qualifications.

9. There were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on commitment to uninterrupted careers.

10. There were significant differences between administrators and teachers on whether their sexual identity evolved before their career identity.

IX. Procedures

Design

The data in this study were obtained via questionnaire survey (Appendix). The questionnaire was designed to obtain demographic data, social-psychological data, and data on subject attribution, the latter to determine external-internal locus of control. Portions

of the Rotter (1966) I. E. Scale which deal with social and personal control were included to determine internal-external locus of control.

Population

The population for this study consisted of two groups. The first group, the target group, was 175 top-level women administrators in 175 United States residential and day school programs which served the deaf who were identified in the April, 1982 issue of American Annals of the Deaf (Craig & Craig, 1982), and who were employed in 1982 as one of the following: superintendent, assistant superintendent, principal, supervisor of curriculum, director, director of special education, consultant, department head, administrator, or coordinator.

The second group, the control group, was 175 women teachers in seven residential school programs and twenty-three day school programs which served the deaf from a cross section of the United States who had obtained Master's degrees and had remained in a teaching position for at least five years and who had not attained top-level administrative positions.

Survey Instrument

The mail questionnaire was chosen for this study because it allowed for sampling the entire population of the target group. It was more cost effective, furthermore, than either a personal interview approach or a telephone survey. The survey instrument utilized in this study was developed after a thorough review of the literature.

The instrument was field tested by being administered to and critiqued by a group of teachers at the Tennessee School for the Deaf. The instrument was then modified after consultation with a statistics instructor.

To check reliability of the questionnaire instrument, it was administered to a sample of 25 female administrators and teachers at the Tennessee School for the Deaf, and was retested three weeks later with this same group. Test-retest reliability, as it pertained to this study, was satisfied by a Pearson Correlation, establishing a range of $r = .63$ - $r = .99$ for individual questionnaire items, yielding an overall average for all items of $r = .88$.

Data Collection

The first phase of the mail survey was directed to the entire population of the target group. The questionnaire (Appendix) and accompanying cover letter (Appendix) which explained the purpose of the study and guaranteed anonymity of the participants was mailed to the 175 women in the target group, along with a self-addressed stamped envelope.

A follow-up letter (Appendix) and another questionnaire was mailed in one week to those persons who had not responded. An initial return of 155 responses, or 88 percent, of the questionnaires in the target group was obtained. This number was reduced to a 75 percent return because 24 of the 155 respondents identified themselves as teachers/program assistants instead of administrators.

The second phase of the mail survey was directed to the 175 participants in the control group, who were identified by asking administrators and program directors from seven residential and four day-school programs involved in education of the deaf to distribute questionnaires and cover letters to female teachers who held Master's degrees and had taught in their programs for at least a five-year period but had not attained top-level administrative positions. Before these questionnaires were mailed, verbal approval was obtained from an administrator in each of these seven residential and four day-school programs via a telephone call.

An initial return of 138 responses, or 79 percent, of the questionnaires in the control group was obtained. This number was reduced to a 67 percent return because 10 of the 138 respondents identified themselves as administrators instead of teachers, and another 10 were eliminated because they had not received the Master's degree. The 24 respondents from the target group who identified themselves as teachers were initially included as a part of the control group; however, five of these 24 teachers were eliminated because they had not received the Master's degree, reducing the number to 19. The 19 respondents moved from the target group to the control group represented 19 different day-school programs for the deaf from a cross-section of the United States.

Thus, of the 350 questionnaires which were mailed to both groups, 137 met the criteria for inclusion in the control group, yielding a final control group return rate of 79 percent. Furthermore, the 10 women who were removed from the control group because

they identified themselves as administrators were moved to the target group, yielding a final target group return rate of 80 percent.

Data Analysis

The returned questionnaires were grouped into the categories of teacher and administrator, keypunched, and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Data obtained were subjected to frequency distributions, crosstabulations, and the Chi-square and t-test of mean differences. Nominal and ordinal levels of data generated frequencies and percentages which were cross-tabulated with the two groups--administrators and teachers--and tested for significance at the .05 level with the Chi-square (χ^2) test of association. Interval levels of data generated frequency responses and mean scores. T-scores were computed which yielded mean differences tested for significance at the .05 level.

X. Organization of the Study

This study was organized in the following manner:

In Chapter I, the study was introduced by stating the problem area, defining the purpose, stating the importance of the study, establishing assumptions, limitations and delimitations, defining terms used, postulating hypotheses, and outlining the procedures used.

In Chapter II previously written literature on the nature and manifestations of social-psychological factors affecting a woman's career were presented.

In Chapter III the data collected from the study were presented and discussed.

In Chapter IV the study findings and conclusions were summarized.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

I. Introduction

In the field of education, women traditionally comprised the bulk of the workforce. At the same time, their representation in the administrative ranks of the field was singularly small. Education has long been characterized by a career development duality. Traditionally there had been one track for administrators who had been males more often than not, a second for instructors who, conversely, tended to be females (Howard, 1975).

Times change. Many of the factors that once stood as barriers between women and success in education have been removed. The legal barriers have long since fallen, and educational parity exists. Women today are as impressively credentialed academically as the men with whom they compete for administrative positions. Yet barriers still remain. They are more subtle than those of the past, harder to identify, harder still to quantify and measure, but they are there. Most of these remaining barriers are of a social-psychological nature (Gimlin, 1977).

Women in educational administration exhibited some patterns and trends in their careers that were at variance with men in comparable positions. Gender appeared to account for most if not all of these differences. Social-psychological factors, moreover, appeared

to account for most if not all of the differences due to gender. It may well be that social-psychological factors were the greatest correlates of career success or failure for women in educational administration today. Only when women recognize the importance of these factors and come to grips with them for the barriers to success that they often are, can they begin to neutralize their effect on career outcomes. Once women surmount these social-psychological barriers, they will be more likely to aspire to, prepare for, and assume educational leadership positions.

An overview of the nature and manifestations of social-psychological factors affecting a woman's career are presented in the following analysis. Relevant literature comprising the theoretical basis for this study are reviewed.

II. Socialization Practices at Cross Purposes with Career Identity:

A Statement of the Problem

Considerable research (Broverman et al., 1972; Megargee, 1969; Rosen & Jerdee, 1973; Schein, 1973) supported the notion that females were socialized to be more people oriented and to be dependent and "other directed," while males were permitted to be more aggressive, independent, and achievement oriented. Bardwick's (1971) research also supported the tenet that there are different socialization practices for males and females.

McGregor (1967) reported that a "male managerial model" existed and that the desired managerial attitudes were characterized by aggressiveness, competitiveness, and firmness. McGregor further

reported that the masculine model existed because it was culturally accepted. Studies by Broverman (1972) also supported this cultural stereotype by reporting that men were more independent, objective, unemotional, confident, and rational than women. When women exhibited these same characteristics, they were often viewed as being unhappy and maladjusted because of the social bias concerning the nature of women who aspired to careers outside the home. This led women to avoid masculine occupations, which resulted in lowered occupational aspirations. Thus, this led to a vicious circle: socialization practices caused stereotypic feminine behaviors which caused society to justify the socialization practices. Because of the differentiation in socialization, women who entered careers that were traditionally reserved for males ran a good risk of developing a negative self image.

Prather (1971) summarized this double bind effect:

If the woman wishing success emulated the masculine characteristics deemed essential for the job, she is then called "unfeminine," "aggressive," or other adjectives considered derogatory for women. On the other hand, if she does not demonstrate these so-called "masculine characteristics" she may be considered inadequate for the job. The double bind typifies some of the difficulties women face trying to "make it" to the top echelons of business and professions. The barriers preventing the woman from succeeding often exist at a sociopsychological level and are embedded in society's conceptions of women and society's definition of work (p. 172).

The literature pointed out that it was extremely difficult for women to compete successfully in careers traditionally reserved for males. Acculturation and socialization worked against them in two ways: First, it influenced the way others viewed them, both in

shaping their career choices and later working within their career field. Secondly, it shaped their own self-image, often in a way that undermined their chances for success.

In describing women who had defied myths concerning sex-role stereotypes and had attained positions formerly dominated by males, Rossi (1965) stated:

Those women who have entered the top professional fields have had to have extraordinary motivation, thick skins, exceptional ability, and some unusual pattern of socialization in order to reach their occupational destinations (p. a).

III. Social-Psychological Factors as Correlates of Career Success

Human behavior, social learning theorists instruct us, is at any given moment merely the sum of environment (both external and internal stimuli need to be factored into the equation), heredity (that is, our ability to process and assimilate the aforementioned stimuli), and the passage of time that has led up to the moment in question. This reductionist view of behavior is lean and stripped but essentially accurate and highly useful as a theoretical model.

The social-psychological factors referred to repeatedly throughout the study were select, quantifiable elements of the environment-heredity-time paradigm. Career success for women in deaf education was surely not governed by chance alone. Most probably there were features of socialization, perception, and cognition that served as correlates of success. Correlates of success would, of course, vary to some degree from individual to individual, but what

of commonality? Would we expect to find statistically significant trends in the data on social-psychological factors in the target group of educational administrators? Furthermore, would the greatest variance be between subjects in the target group or would these subjects tend to covary as a group on individual questionnaire items with subjects in the control group? Finally, could we develop a profile for the successful woman that differentiated between the female educational administrator and her static counterpart who had worked in the classroom for five years or more? To answer these and related questions, we must first hypothesize about probable correlates of success. What social-psychological factors, in other words, were likely correlates of success?

Locus of Control Theory

Proponents of social learning theory state that the determinants of human social behavior are reinforcement and expectancy arising out of perceived causality. Any specific behavior is viewed as an interaction between the valence of reinforcement and the expectancy that the behavior leads to the reinforcement (Phares, 1979).

Julian B. Rotter (1966) is a pioneer in clinical research in dealing with the role of perceived causality in behavior. Rotter (1966) offered a summary of his locus of control construct:

The effect of a reinforcement . . . is not a simple stamping-in process but depends upon whether or not the person perceives a causal relationship between his own behavior and the reward. . . . When a reinforcement is perceived by the subject as . . . not being entirely contingent upon his actions, then . . . it is typically perceived as the result of luck, chance, fate, as under the

control of powerful others, or as unpredictable. . . . When the event is interpreted in this way by an individual, we have labeled this a belief in external control. If the person perceives that the event is contingent upon his own behavior . . . we have termed this a belief in internal control (p. 1).

A bare bones description of locus of control theory is that the role of reinforcement on behavior depends on whether a person sees the reinforcement as contingent upon his own actions (internal) or whether he sees the reward as contingent upon forces outside himself (external). Rotter (1966) devised the I-E Scale to measure internal-external self-perceptions, wherein individuals are asked to choose between pairs of belief statements which deal with whether or not the individual sees himself as an active causal agent or as a passive recipient.

Research conducted by Phares (1962) and Lefcourt (1976) provided evidence that "internals" who view themselves as active agents in their own lives are different from "externals." They suggested an "internal" person takes more initiative and responsibility than an "external" person and that an "internal" person seeks out and utilizes more information than an "external." Several studies (Deaux & Emswiller, 1974; Feather, 1969; Simon & Feather, 1973) which utilized attribution theory to explain achievement oriented behavior have proposed that both females and males more often attribute female success to external causes and failure to internal causes.

In a study of achievement behavior, Crandall, Katkovsky, and Preston (1962) indicated that locus of control was associated with achievement activity, reporting that "the greater the girl's sense of

responsibility for her success, the more successful she is likely to be" (p. 658). Because locus of control theory deals with how people explain the causes of their success or failure, it is highly relevant to understanding the experiences of women who have and have not "made it" in male-dominated professions.

Role Models and Mentors as Significant Others

Research showed that a positive correlation existed between successful careers in a group of women and the amount of exposure they had to women role models who had succeeded and with whom they could relate. Vetter (1973) found a correlation between "career successful women" and the number of female faculty from the achiever's undergraduate institution, and concluded that the presence of professionally successful women influences in a positive direction the career aspirations of female students.

Further research (Mischel, 1970) indicated that women were more apt to engage in and repeat particular behaviors if they first observed women with whom they identified not only engaging in but also being rewarded for these same behaviors. The importance of modeling and sex role behavior has been reviewed by Mischel (1970), who confirmed that sex-role modeling occurred only as a result of both watching what others did and observing the consequences of their behavior.

Evidence existed to support the relationship between a woman's occupational choice and her mother's attitude toward work. Trieman and Terrell (1975) explored the effect of mother's occupation on

daughter's later attainments and reported that the mother's occupation was the single most important variable in determining the daughter's occupation. Rosenfeld (1978) conducted research concerned with families in which both parents worked outside the home when the daughter was 16, and found that the mother's occupational status was more important than the father's in later determining the daughter's occupational status.

Angrist (1972) conducted career orientation vs. family orientation research on college women over a four-year period and found that career-oriented women were likely to have mothers who worked. Further, Angrist (1972) pointed out that career-oriented women identified both faculty members and their working mothers as role models. Loring and Wells (1972) suggested that female role models were a necessity for "socializing" women into a traditional male occupation.

Larwood, Wood, and Davis (1978) researched the needs of women management students and reported the importance of women developing a mentor relationship with colleagues who could encourage their career choices. Adams (1979) studied and interviewed 60 successful women and pointed out the significance of a mentor in their lives. She reported that mentors helped these women navigate obstacles and dangers, helped them gain confidence in their abilities, and acted as sponsors, by making introductions and writing recommendations. In summary, research (Angrist, 1972; Mischel, 1970; Rosenfeld, 1978; Trieman & Terell, 1975; Vetter, 1973) pointed out that women who have succeeded in non-traditional managerial roles had other successful women role models with whom they could identify.

Autonomy and Achievement Activity

Since women have been socialized to be nurturers, a male-dominated career for a woman is most likely a matter of choice. In Atkinson and Feather's (1966) theory of achievement motivation, one's motive to achieve success is determined by the interaction between the strength of the motive to achieve success, the expectancy of probability of success, and the incentive value of success.

Prominent socialization practices have led women to hold the expectancy that success and achievement will subsequently cause negative consequences, such as social rejection. Maccoby (1963) observed that women who maintained an achievement orientation defied the conventions of sex appropriate behavior and paid the price through a loss in self-esteem and their sense of femininity. Thus, one might conclude that a woman's expectations of the consequences of achievement oriented behavior would tend to weaken these behaviors, and leave her disinclined to engage in them in the first place.

Research (Bardwick, 1971; Horner, 1970; Maccoby, 1966) suggested that women who have attained positions in a male-dominated career have high needs for achievement. Veroff (1969) suggested that for boys the achievement motive was determined by internal standards, but that external support was the critical determiner for girls.

Bardwick (1971), on the other hand, suggested that the achievement motive for women was complicated by the affiliation motive. She postulated that women developed an internalized motive to achieve, but that this happened many years later than it did in men. Bardwick (1971) stated:

It might be that in women the motive to achieve and achieving behaviors need the security of fulfillment of affiliation needs that reduce anxiety about achieving; a stable marital relationship may permit the development of a secure and independent sense of self and the motive to achieve. The young girl is rewarded for achievements--in school and in other areas that she shares with boys. But later she is rewarded for social success and all of the derivatives of affiliative achievement (p. 171).

Sears (1963) supported Bardwick's (1971) hypothesis of affiliation.

Horner (1970) suggested another complicating factor with regard to women's need to achieve, which she coined "fear of success." She pointed out that women who persisted in taking a career seriously would begin to feel that "success in an achievement situation would be followed by negative consequences, including social rejection and the sense of losing one's femininity" (p. 47).

Whether a woman holds to a traditional feminine image of herself or not is determined to a large degree by her need for autonomy. In regard to autonomy and a sense of self, the Fels study (Kagan & Moss, 1962) reported that the personal value placed upon intellectual attainment was the only significant correlate of achievement activity for girls. Tangri (1972) studied the achievement needs of 200 women and found that the characteristics which most strongly differentiated women choosing male-dominated careers from women choosing female-dominated careers were autonomy, individualism, and internal demands to perform to capacity. Bardwick (1971) found that the more women saw the need to be independent, the less importance they placed on influences which complicated the achievement motive. Research findings (Bardwick, 1971; Horner, 1970; Maccoby, 1963; Tangri, 1972), in

a word, indicated that women who pursue atypical careers possess a strong need to achieve and a strong drive for autonomy.

Support from Female Peers

Society has traditionally "cued" women to see each other as competitors for male attention. The Toder (1980) study investigated women's behavior toward the achievement of other women in the presence of men. Toder's (1980) results suggested that when men were present, women held a more negative image of other women. Studies by Megargee (1969) and Aires (1973) lend support to Toder's (1980) study. Megargee (1969) and Aires (1973) reported that in the presence of men, women tended to give them preferential treatment. This took the form of downgrading other women's accomplishments and deferring to men's leadership.

Tiger (1970) hypothesized that men have stronger bonds with other men than women have with other women. Booth's (1972) study dealing with gender and social participation, however, refuted Tiger's (1970) hypothesis that male bonds were stronger than women's.

McBride and Lao (1978) conducted research dealing with locus of control and coalition formation among college females. The results of the McBride and Lao Study (1978) suggested that the frequency and pattern of female coalition were significantly influenced by locus of control. In a discussion of their findings McBride and Lao (1978) reported, "External female subjects formed fewer coalitions than internal subjects, and those coalitions formed in external triads were mainly between the two weaker members" (p. 206).

Dellacana and Engel (1980) surveyed a group of professional women in New York City and reported that because of the "deviant" status of these women, they felt marginal to or estranged from other women. The researchers (Dellacana & Engel, 1980) offered two possible reasons for the estrangement: (1) their perception of success required over-conformity to the male professional model, and (2) their feelings of inadequacy and internal conflict resulting from rejection of the traditional female role model caused them to view themselves as special and unique. Hochschild (1962) supported these conclusions. We may conclude from available research (Dellacana & Engel, 1980; Hochschild, 1962; Toder, 1980) that women who persist in achieving professional status are often ostracized by other women, their most important reference group.

Career Commitment

Women usually chose careers that were consistent with their beliefs about themselves. Socialization factors, however, influenced women's self-perceptions which in turn inhibited their decisions to enter administrative careers. Korman (1970) reported that career choice was related to a person's self concept as well as a determinant of vocational preference.

Even though the last decade has brought an ever-increasing number of women into the labor force, females do not conceptualize work as central to their lives and are not expected to derive self-esteem and identity from such a role. Bardwick (1970) concluded:

It is fairly obvious that a woman's self-esteem and self-concept are more closely linked to the appearance

and functioning of her body than is true for the man. Whereas masculinity is at least partially defined by success in marketplace achievement, femininity is largely defined by success in establishing and maintaining love relationships and by maternity. A woman's attractiveness is clearly instrumental in attracting men, and her self-evaluation as a woman will largely depend on her sexual and maternal success (p. 4).

Bardwick (1971) also observed that women who have a strong career commitment . . .

have a feeling of independence, internalized criteria for esteem, and enough social alienation to be able to defer marriage until they have prepared themselves for their future vocations (p. 170).

Bardwick (1971) stated, "The crucial factor is the development of an independent self and an independent motive to achieve" (p. 170).

The word career usually refers to a professional occupation which requires much training and commitment. Epstein (1971) reported three factors which may determine whether a woman proceeds through a professional career sequence: (1) the environment minimizes obstacles; (2) the woman refuses to let environmental obstacles be barriers; and (3) the woman is able to filter out those responses to her sex status which intrude on the professional task.

Kanter's (1977) research pointed out that absence of opportunity for advancement, lack of power, low level of occupation, and tokenism were related to low career aspirations and commitment in women. Kanter's (1977) research analyzed the importance of having a sufficient number of women in work situations to combat negative consequences for women's performance and promote integration into a previous "all male" work group. She related this to the idea that

women are not viewed as powerful, and stated that people prefer powerful leaders.

Hennig and Jardim (1977) conducted research on women's attitudes toward work and found that women's ambivalence concerning marriage and careers caused them to make career decisions about the age of 30 to 31. Career decisions for men, on the other hand, were usually made while they were still in their 20's.

Several research studies (Atkinson & Raymar, 1974; McClelland, 1965) dealing with women's achievement motive have reported that a career orientation is more important than a family orientation in women's need to achieve. Baruch (1967) asserted that the need for achievement in women was associated with career persistence.

Kreps (1971) reported that the threat of discontinuity in a woman's worklife was the greatest barrier to career success. She stated:

The period of heaviest domestic responsibility occurs fairly early in a woman's worklife, when she is likely to be faced to make some quite long-range decisions; whether to acquire further job training, or additional formal education; how many children she will have; whether to continue working, at least part-time, during the childbearing period. Her immediate job choice is dictated in large measure by the time constraint imposed in the short run, and this choice in turn directs her subsequent career development (p. 43).

As Kreps (1971) pointed out children can, in a sense, be viewed as an obstacle to women's careers because they generally contribute to discontinuity in work history. A substantial number of women leave their jobs shortly before the birth of a child and sometimes do not return to the labor force until their child has

begun school. Some of these women, moreover, are forced to interrupt their careers for protracted periods because of a lack of dependable day-care services.

In studying the effects of career interruptions on 300 professional women, Bernard (1964) concluded:

The achievement level of women with interrupted work histories was far below that of women with uninterrupted work histories, fewer than a third as many showing a high achievement level (7 percent to 23 percent) and five times as many showing a low achievement level (36 percent to only 7 percent) (p. 184).

In summary, research (Bardwick, 1971; Bernard, 1964; Hennig & Jardim, 1977; Kreps, 1971) indicated that women's attitudes toward an orderly pattern of career development were different from men's. Women were much more likely to focus on short term career plans while men focused on and made decisions based on long term goals. The origin of this attitudinal difference lies in the bedrock of socialization. Women were conditioned to think of themselves as wives and mothers before all else. A career, conversely, was viewed as an alternative to marriage and secondary to it. Such a perception more often than not gave rise to women's view of career development in the short term.

Role Conflict

Much research (Forisha, 1978; Hall & Gordon, 1973; Hudis, 1976) has been conducted on the multiple role demands placed upon women by external forces such as husbands and families. In Terborg's (1977) review of relevant literature dealing with women and role related stress, all the research suggested that inter-role conflict

had a definite effect on women's work commitment and other positive affective outcomes pertaining to the job. O'Leary (1974) found that women who experienced role overload had lower-level occupational positions.

Hawley (1971) studied subtle psychological pressures present in the occupational choices of women. Hawley's (1971) research compared female math and science majors in terms of their feelings concerning what significant men in their lives thought about women's roles. Hawley's (1972) findings indicated that women in education, a traditionally feminine field, believed that men made sex-role distinctions, while women in science and math, traditionally unfeminine fields, believed the opposite, that is that men did not make sex-role distinctions. Lynch (1973) supported Hawley's (1972) findings and suggested that the lack of support from a "significant" male would retard the occupational aspirations of women.

Kaley (1971) found evidence that married professional women regarded their dual role of career and marriage positively while their married professional male counterparts viewed women's dual role in a negative light. This, Kaley (1971) concluded, placed women in a quandry. Because self perceptions could not be reconciled with the perceptions of influential others, women often avoided the dilemma altogether and refrained from pursuing professional careers. Steinmann (1968) conducted research on women and roles, concluding that females thought men wanted them to be more oriented toward family than toward self-actualization.

The Ginzberg (1966) study showed that women's career activities were contingent on their husbands and children. Bardwick & Douvan (1971) suggested that married women who pursued a career or profession assumed the responsibility for two major demanding roles, and when they undertook both they were likely to be uncertain about whether they were doing either very well. Existing research (Bardwick & Douvan, 1971; Hawley, 1971, 1972; Kayley, 1971; Lynch, 1973; Steinmann, 1968) indicated that external obstacles, such as the burden of house and child care that fall within woman's domain in the traditional family structure, caused tremendous role conflict for women.

Present research trends (Rossi, 1969) indicated that role-interchangability would soon occur and that the husband would no longer be the sole provider nor would the wife be the sole homemaker. According to Rossi (1969), women will adopt "modern role behaviors" and will not work merely for money or to escape boredom. Rossi (1969) predicted that the future role behavior of women would reflect a desire for achievement and a firm career commitment.

Family Situation

Family situation may indeed place constraints on the career activities of women. Several longitudinal studies (Hoffman, 1963; Maas & Kuypers, 1974; Parnes & Jusenius, 1976) have shown that the constraints of marriage and children have strong negative effects on career patterns and career persistence. In general, these studies showed that women did not view work as the fulfillment of achievement needs.

Garland and Paloma (1971) interviewed 53 families in which the wife was a university professor, an attorney, or a physician. The results showed that almost all these professional women placed motherhood above their careers, at the same time admitting that children created a great strain on their careers. These women did not want the demands, commitments, and responsibilities of a full career.

Women's family roles shaped the career patterns of females, as evidenced by "female-typed" jobs such as teaching. One hypothesis was that jobs such as teaching offered scheduling advantages which could easily be combined with family responsibilities (Oaxaca, 1979). Cultural conditioning and personal desires caused women to remain in jobs traditionally reserved for females. Gimlin (1977) stated:

Because of their family responsibilities, many women prefer jobs that require little or no overtime work or traveling. One of the attractions of elementary school teaching for women is that they can coordinate their work with their children's activities (p. 29).

One-third of the women in today's labor force have children to care for. There are 6.5 million children under the age of six, and 18 million others six to 14, whose mothers work; yet day care is available to only one million children (Gimlin, 1972).

Scanzoni (1982) summed up women's forced options:

If day care facilities are not available, and if husbands refuse to share more of the duties of child care, then achievement-oriented women will probably decide to have fewer children. It could very well be that achievement-oriented women will remain single, but more of those who do marry will choose to have no children at all; and among those who want children, the greatest

majority may opt for one or two. The acid test of a woman's commitment will be her preference for occupational rewards rather than more children (p. 151).

One recent study (Van Dusen & Sheldon, 1976) showed that women were marrying later, had smaller families, and, in some cases, chose to remain childless. In 1976, Van Dusen studied a group of married women under 30 who planned to remain childless and reported their number had increased by 23 percent in three years.

Oppenheimer (1979) predicted that women would not withdraw from the labor force, and that the current re-entry of women into the labor force and postponement of childbearing would continue. In summary, research (Oppenheimer, 1979; Scanzoni, 1982; Van Dusen & Sheldon, 1976) indicated that women would continue to marry and have children at some point in their lives and would face role conflict when attempting to mesh work and family responsibilities, pointing out that the number of working women has grown and will continue to do so. It appeared that two recent trends--rising employment and continued family involvement--would create an integration of women's work roles and family roles.

CHAPTER III

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF DATA

Three specific research objectives were stated for this study:

1. To identify the social-psychological variables that served as correlates of success in the target group of women administrators; and as correlates of stasis in the control group of teachers.
2. To identify any trends in the data collected; and in so doing,
3. To develop a social-psychological profile of women administrators in deaf education in the United States.

The need for a data base concerning social-psychological factors which were correlates of success for women has been identified in Chapter I. In Chapter II, a review of literature and research which dealt with the nature and manifestations of social-psychological factors affecting a woman's career were presented. This chapter contains the presentation and analysis of data necessary to answer research questions which were presented in Chapter I.

1. What was the locus of control of the target group; and if it was different, how was it different from the control group?

- a. In this case, were these target women inner directed (internal locus of control) or did family attitudes and influences of "powerful others" (external locus of control) influence their successes? Was there variance here with the control group?

b. Did role models and mentors serve as "significant others" in career choices for the target population? Did the same hold true for the control group?

2. Were the women in the target group and the women in the control group able to function autonomously when the social environment was hostile (i.e., Did these women have high achievement needs?)?

3. Did the women in the target group and the women in the control group receive support from female peers?

4. Did the women in the target group and the women in the control group narrow broad academic interests into an orderly pattern of career development (i.e., Was continuity of work involvement a critical factor in success in the target group? Did lack of continuity bring about stasis in the control group?)?

5. Was there a fit or conflict between career pursuits and those of wife and/or mother in the women in the target group? Was there variance here with the control group?

6. Were professional qualifications and family situation dependent or independent variables in the target and the control groups?

7. Did these women resolve sexual identity and career identity within the same time frame? If not, which preceded, which followed? Did the findings vary with the control group?

Chapter III is divided into two sections: The first section contains a presentation and description of the demographic data obtained from the 278 women administrators and teachers in this

study. The second section contains a presentation and analysis of the hypotheses and research questions formulated for this study.

I. Personal Characteristics

In this section the researcher presents and describes the demographic data obtained from the 278 women administrators and teachers of the hearing impaired in this study. A number of the questions and subsequent hypotheses examined in this chapter are based on assumptions concerning demographic data, and it was necessary to determine if the available evidence obtained from the study supported them.

A total of 293 women teachers and administrators responded to the 350 questionnaires which were mailed out, for an initial return rate of 83.8 percent. However, 15 of the respondents were teachers who had not obtained the Master's degree, which was a requirement for inclusion in the control group, reducing the number of usable responses to 278 or 79.5 percent.

Geographic Location of Respondents

Table I presents frequency distributions on the number and percentage of administrators and teachers responding to the questionnaire categorized by their geographic location within the United States. A total of 47 or 33.3 percent of the administrators worked in the southern United States, 37 or 26.2 percent worked in the mid-western United States, 28 or 19.9 percent worked in the western United States, and 27 or 19.1 percent worked in the eastern United

Table I. Geographic Location of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Geographic Location	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
South	47	33.3	47	34.3
Midwest	37	26.2	37	27.0
West	28	19.9	18	13.1
East	27	19.1	35	25.5
No answer	2	1.4		
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

States. Two or 1.4 percent of the administrators declined to answer the question.

A total of 47 or 34.3 percent of the teachers responding to the questionnaire worked in the southern United States, 37 or 27 percent worked in the midwestern United States, 18 or 13.1 percent worked in the western United States, and 35 or 25.5 percent worked in the eastern United States.

Position Titles

The data in Table II show the number and percent of the women administrators and teachers responding to the questionnaire categorized by job position title. A total of 27 or 19.1 percent of the 141 administrators were employed as supervisors, 24 or 17 percent were employed as directors of programs, 23 or 16.3 percent were

Table II. Position Titles of Female Administrators and Teachers
(1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Position Title	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Supervisor	27	19.1		
Director	24	17.0		
Coordinator	23	16.3	1	0.7
Director of Special Education	21	14.9		
Teacher-Supervisor	10	7.1	7	5.1
Principal	9	6.4		
Superintendent	7	5.0		
Consultant	5	3.5	2	1.5
Administrator	4	2.8		
Supervisor of Curriculum	2	1.4		
Teacher	2	1.4	116	84.7
Assistant Superintendent	1	0.7		
Department Head	1	0.7		
No Answer	5	3.5	11	8.0
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

employed as coordinators of programs, and 21 or 14.9 percent were employed as directors of special education. A total of 95 or 67.3 percent of the administrators who responded fell into these four categories of position titles.

A total of 10 or 7.1 percent of the administrators were teacher-supervisors, 9 or 6.4 percent were principals, 7 or 5 percent were superintendents, 5 or 3.5 percent were consultants, 4 or 2.8 percent were administrators, 2 or 1.4 percent were supervisors of curriculum, 1 or 0.7 was an assistant superintendent, and 1 or 0.7 was a department head. A total of 5 or 3.5 percent of the administrators declined to answer this question.

A total of 116 or 84.7 percent of the teachers who responded were employed as classroom teachers, while 7 or 5.1 percent were employed as teacher/supervisors; 2 or 1.5 percent were employed as consultants; 1 or 0.7 percent was employed as a coordinator, and 11 teachers or 8 percent failed to indicate their position title.

Age

Distribution of the respondents by age groups is shown in Table III. The age groupings for the 278 women ranged from 20-29 years to 60 or more years of age. The 141 women in the sample of administrators were, on the average, older than the 137 women in the sample of teachers. The largest proportion of the administrators (37.6 percent) were 40-49 years of age, while the largest proportion of the teachers (53.5 percent) were 30-39 years of age.

Table III. Age Distribution of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Age	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
20-29	7	5.0	25	18.2
30-39	39	27.7	73	53.3
40-49	53	37.6	20	14.6
50-59	34	24.1	10	7.3
60-Over	7	5.0	7	5.1
No Answer	1	0.7	2	1.5
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

The number of teachers in all age ranges steadily declined after age 39, while the number of administrators steadily rose within this same age range. A comparison of the age distribution of the administrators and teachers points out this difference. A total of 95 or 66.7 percent of the administrators were 40 years of age or older, in contrast to only 37 or 27 percent of the teachers. Slightly more than two times the number of teachers (71.5 percent) as the number of administrators (32.7 percent) were 39 years of age or younger.

The age distribution for teachers in this study supported the work of Corbett and Jensema (1981), who compiled a descriptive profile of teachers of the hearing impaired in 1981. Of the 4,887

teachers in their study, more than 50 percent of the female teachers were under the age of 30. Corbett and Jensema (1981) concluded that there had been a sudden influx of female teachers in recent years who had decided to abandon teaching the hearing impaired as a permanent career. This led to a drop in age distribution after age 30.

Marital Status

Table IV presents frequencies and percentages on the current marital status of the administrators and teachers in this study. A total of 83 or 58.9 percent of the administrators were married and 88 or 64.2 percent of the teachers were married. A total of 32 or 22.7 percent of the administrators were single, while 39 or 28.5 percent of the teachers were single. More than twice the proportion of administrators as teachers (18.4 percent vs. 7.3 percent) indicated they were divorced or widowed. A sizeable proportion (25 percent) of the 278 women were single which might be expected in a population which had a large number of relatively young people, as previously shown in Table III.

Number of Children

Table V presents frequency distributions on the number of children of the administrators and teachers. A total of 49 or 34.8 percent of the administrators and 70 or 51.1 percent of the teachers had no children. One possible explanation for the large majority who had no children may be due to the fact that many of the 278 women administrators and teachers were single (25 percent) and many of the 137 teachers were between 20 and 39 years of age (71.5 percent).

Table IV. Marital Status of Female Administrators and Teachers
(1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Marital Status	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
Single	32	22.7	39	28.5
Married	83	58.9	88	64.2
Other	26	18.4	10	7.3
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

Table V. Distribution of Number of Children of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Number of Children	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
0	49	34.8	70	51.1
1	28	19.9	26	19.0
2	28	19.9	24	17.5
3	17	12.1	10	7.3
4	8	5.7	5	3.6
5	1	0.7	1	0.7
6	1	0.7		
7				
No answer	9	6.4	1	0.7
Total	141	100.4	137	100.0

Among those women who did have children, 1 or 2 children predominated. A total of 28 or 19.9 percent of the administrators had 1 child, as did 26 or 19 percent of the teachers. A total of 28 or 19.9 percent of the administrators had 2 children, as did 24 or 17.5 percent of the teachers. Slightly less than two times the number of administrators as teachers (12.1 percent vs. 7.3 percent) had 3 children. The number of children for both administrators and teachers declined sharply after 2 children. For both administrators and teachers, the median number of children was 1, and the mode was 0.

Highest Academic Degree Obtained

Table VI presents frequency distributions on the highest academic degrees obtained by the administrators and teachers. A total of 103 or 73 percent of the administrators had obtained a Master's degree, as had 132 or 96.4 percent of the teachers.

The most striking comparisons were among those who had received the specialist and doctoral degrees. A total of 16 or 11.3 percent of the administrators had received the specialist degree, while only 4 or 2.9 percent of the teachers had received the specialist degree. A total of 16 or 11.3 percent of the administrators had received the doctoral degree, while only 1 or 0.7 percent of the teachers had received the doctoral degree. One possible explanation for this difference is that an advanced graduate degree is considered to be a stepping-stone to a career in educational administration.

As Table VI indicates, however, 4 or 2.8 percent of the administrators had only received the Bachelor's degree and 1 or 0.7 percent of the administrators held only a teaching certificate. All of the teachers in the study had at least obtained a Master's degree. The explanation for this was that the sample of teachers was limited to those who had received at least the Master's degree.

Audiological Status of Respondents

Table VII presents the number and percentage of administrators and teachers categorized by audiological status. The majority of the administrators (127 or 90.1 percent) and teachers (114 or 83.2 percent) had no audiological handicaps.

Six or 4.3 percent of the administrators indicated they were hard of hearing, as did 6 or 4.4 percent of the teachers. However, 16 or 11.7 percent of the teachers indicated they were deaf, while none of the administrators fall into this category. There are several possible reasons for this finding. First, the majority of teachers in this sample, 117 or 85 percent, worked in residential schools for the deaf. Residential schools for the deaf tend to make every possible effort to recruit and hire qualified deaf teachers to serve as role models for deaf students. Secondly, deaf people who are interested in a teaching career find their opportunities are sharply limited except in residential schools for the deaf.

Table VI. Highest Academic Degrees Obtained for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Highest Degree	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
Certificate	1	0.7		
Bachelor	4	2.8		
Master	103	73.0	132	96.4
Specialist	16	11.3	4	2.9
Doctoral	16	11.3	1	0.7
No answer	1	0.7		
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

Table VII. Audiological Status of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Audiological Status	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
Deaf			16	11.7
Hard of Hearing	6	4.3	6	4.4
Hearing	127	90.1	114	83.2
No answer	8	5.7	1	0.7
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

II. Analysis of Data

Data from the questionnaire (Appendix) were keypunched on computer cards, and statistical analysis was performed by the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences Program (SPSS). The interval level of data in this study were analyzed by applying the t-test of mean differences, tested for significance at the .05 level. The ordinal and nominal levels of data were analyzed by applying the Chi-square test of association (χ^2), tested for significance at the .05 level.

Hypothesis Number One

The first hypothesis stated that there would be significant differences in locus of control between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers. In relation to hypothesis number one, research question one stated, "What was the locus of control of the target group; and if it was different, how was it different from the control group?" Sixteen items which dealt with social and personal control were extracted from the Rotter (1966) I. E. Scale and were included in the questionnaire (Appendix) to determine locus of control.

Table VIII shows frequency distributions for the administrators and teachers categorized by locus of control. The data in Table VIII show the 16 variables on the questionnaire (Appendix) dealing with social and personal control, grouped by the number of respondents' external answers. A total of 45 or 31.9 percent of the administrators and 53 or 38.6 percent of the teachers had 0 to 5

Table VIII. Distribution of Locus of Control Scores for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Locus of Control	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
Internal (0-5 external answers)	45	31.9	53	38.6
Middle (6-8 external answers)	44	31.2	40	29.2
External (9 or more external answers)	24	17.0	22	16.0
No Answer	28	19.9	22	16.1
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

external answers, and were classified as "internals." A total of 44 or 31.2 percent of the administrators and 40 or 29.2 percent of the teachers had 6 to 8 external answers and were classified as "middle," or neither internal nor external. A total of 24 or 17 percent of the administrators and 22 or 16 percent of the teachers had 9 or more external answers and were classified as "externals." A total of 28 or 19.9 percent of the administrators and 22 or 16.1 percent of the teachers did not respond to these 16 variables dealing with locus of control.

The first hypothesis was tested by a t-test. Table IX presents a summary of the t-value between administrators and teachers on the locus of control variables. The t-value in Table IX yielded a locus of control t-score of 0.29 ($p > .05$).

Hypothesis number one stated that there would be significant differences in locus of control between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers. The t-value in Table IX shows that there were no significant differences between the mean scores of the administrators and teachers on locus of control. Hypothesis number one was rejected, and the null hypothesis was accepted.

Hypothesis Number Two

The second hypothesis stated that there would be significant differences in the lack of mentors between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers. In relation to hypothesis number two, research question 1b stated, "Did role models

Table IX. Summary of T-Value for Locus of Control Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Group	Number of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
Administrators	109	6.2294	2.955	0.29	222	0.773 (N/S)
Teachers	115	6.1130	3.063			

(N/S) = Not significant.

and mentors serve as 'significant others' in career choices for the target population? Did the same hold true for the control group?"

Participant responses to the questionnaire item, "Who acted as a mentor in your career?" yielded data for analysis to determine if there were significant differences in the lack of mentors between the administrators and teachers. Table X presents responses of the participants who reported either having or not having a mentor. The data in Table X were grouped into two categories. The first category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having no mentor. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having a mentor. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 5.26$, 1df, $p < .05$. It should be noted that a larger proportion of the teachers than administrators (29.2 percent vs. 16.7 percent) reported having no mentor.

Table X. Distribution of Mentor Relationships for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Mentorship	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
No Mentor	22	16.7	40	29.2
Mentor	110	83.3	97	70.8
Total	132	100.0	137	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 5.26, 1df, p < .05.$$

In an effort to determine if there were significant differences between administrators and teachers who reported having a female in an administrative position who served as a mentor and those who reported having a female in a non-administrative position who served as a mentor, participant responses were analyzed at the .05 level of significance (Table XI). The data in Table XI were grouped into two categories. The first category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having a female in an administrative position who served as a mentor. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having a female in a non-administrative position who served as a mentor. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 20.55, 1df, p < .05$. As indicated in Table XI, a striking difference existed between the proportion of administrators and teachers (58.1 percent vs. 15.1 percent) who reported having a female in an administrative position who served as a mentor.

Table XI. Distribution of Female Administrators Who Served as Mentors for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Mentor	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Female Administrator	36	58.1	8	15.1
Female Non-administrator	26	41.9	45	84.9
Total	62	100.0	53	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 20.55, 1df, p < .05.$$

In an effort to determine if there were significant differences between administrators and teachers who reported having either a male or female in an administrative position who served as a mentor and those who reported having either a male or female in a non-administrative position who served as a mentor, participant responses were analyzed at the .05 level of significance (Table XII). The data in Table XII were grouped into two categories. The first category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having either a male or female in an administrative position who served as a mentor. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having either a male or female in a non-administrative position who served as a mentor. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 22.08, 1df, p < .05$. As indicated in Table XII, a striking difference existed between the proportion of administrators

Table XII. Distribution of Male and Female Administrators Who Served as Mentors for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Mentor	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Administrative	58	54.2	19	20.7
Non-administrative	49	45.8	73	79.3
Total	107	100.0	92	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 22.08, 1df, p < .05.$$

and teachers (54.2 percent vs. 20.7 percent) who reported having a male or female in an administrative position who served as mentor.

Hypothesis number two stated that there would be significant differences in the lack of mentors between the administrators and teachers. The data analyses in Tables X, XI, and XII show that there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on a lack of mentors in general, a lack of female mentors in administrative positions, and a lack of both female and male mentors in administrative positions. Hypothesis number two was accepted.

Hypothesis Number Three

The third hypothesis stated that there would be significant differences in the scarcity of role models between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers. In response to the question, "Who served as a role model for your present position?" Table XIII presents a summary of the 278 respondents who

Table XIII. Distribution of Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Role Model	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
No Role Model	24	18.5 (N/S)	31	22.6 (N/S)
Role Model	106	81.5	106	77.4
Total	130	100.0	137	100.0

(N/S) = Not significant.

reported having no role model for their present position. The data in Table XIII were grouped into two categories. The first category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having no role models. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having role models. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 0.47$, $df = 1$, $p > .05$.

As Table XIII indicates, 24 or 18.5 percent of the administrators and 31 or 22.6 percent of the teachers reported having no role model. A total of 106 or 81.5 percent of the administrators and 106 or 77.4 percent of the teachers reported having role models. Results of the data in Table XIII indicated there were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on the lack of role models.

Female parent as role model. In an effort to determine if female parents could have served as significant role models for the

278 women administrators and teachers in this study their responses to the question, "Who served as a role model for your present position," were grouped into two categories (Table XIV).

The first category in Table XIV was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported a female parent served as a role model for their present position. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported other individuals as role models and no role model. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 12.62$, 1 df, $p < .05$.

As Table XIV indicates, none of the administrators reported a female parent as a role model for their present position. However, 14 or 10.2 percent of the teachers reported a female parent served as a role model for their present position. Results in Table XIV indicated there were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on a female parent who served as a role model.

Table XV presents a summary of the administrators and teachers who reported their mother's occupation. As shown in Table XV, 81 or 57.4 percent of the mothers of the administrators and 71 or 51.8 percent of the mothers of the teachers were housewives. A slightly higher proportion of the mothers of the teachers as the mothers of administrators (11.7 percent vs. 7.1 percent) were employed as teachers.

Table XVI presents data on the administrators and teachers who reported their mothers worked outside the home. The first category in Table XVI was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported their mother was a housewife and those who reported their

Table XIV. Distribution of Female Parents Who Served as Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Role Model	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Female Parent			14	10.2
All Other Role Models	136	100	123	89.8
Total	136	100	137	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 12.62, 1 \text{ df}, p < .05.$$

Table XV. Distribution of the Occupations of the Mothers of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Occupation	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Housewife	81	57.4	71	51.8
Retired	25	17.7	11	8.0
Office Worker	16	11.3	12	8.8
Machine Operator			6	4.4
Educator	10	7.1	16	11.7
Salesperson	3	2.1	3	2.2
Service Person			3	2.2
Professional	3	2.1	4	2.9
Managerial	1	0.7	3	2.2
Unemployed			3	2.2
Other	2	1.4	5	3.6
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

Table XVI. Distribution of the Occupational Status of the Mothers of Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Occupational Status	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Mother Stayed Home	102	75.0	83	60.6
Mother Worker	34	25.0	54	39.4
Total	136	100.0	137	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 5.85, 1 \text{ df}, p < .05.$$

mother was retired. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported their mother was employed outside the home. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 5.85, 1 \text{ df}, p < .05$.

As Table XVI indicates, 102 or 75 percent of the administrators and 83 or 60.6 percent of the teachers reported their mothers did not work outside the home. A larger proportion of the teachers than the administrators (39.4 percent vs. 25 percent) reported their mothers were employed outside the home. Results in Table XVI indicated significant differences between the administrators and teachers on whether or not the mothers of the respondents worked or stayed home.

Females within the educational system as role models. Participant responses to the question, "Who served as a role model for your present position?" yielded data analyses to determine if there were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on a female role model who worked outside the educational system and a

female role model who worked within the educational system (Table XVII). The data in Table XVII were grouped into two categories. The first category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having a female role model who worked within the educational system. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported having a female role model who worked outside the educational system. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 5.00$, 1 df, $p < .05$. As Table XVII indicates, slightly more than twice the number of teachers as administrators (35.8 percent vs. 17.9 percent) reported having a female role model who worked outside the educational system. Results in Table XVII indicated there were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on a female role model within the educational system vs. a female role model outside the educational system.

Female college professors as role models. To determine if there were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on female college professors who served as role models, their responses to the question concerning who served as a role model for their present position were grouped into two categories (Table XVIII). The first category in Table XVIII was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported a female college professor served as a role model. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported other individuals as role models and no role model. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 0.23$, 1 df, $p > .05$.

Table XVII. Distribution of Females Within the Educational System Who Served as Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Role Model	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Female Within Educational System	55	82.1	52	64.2
Female Outside Educational System	12	17.9	29	35.8
Total	67	100.0	81	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 5.00, 1 \text{ df}, p < .05.$$

Table XVIII. Distribution of Female College Professors Who Served As Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Role Model	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Female College Professor	7	5.1 (N/S)	10	7.3 (N/S)
All Other Role Models	129	94.9	127	92.7
Total	136	100.0	137	100.0

(N/S) = Not significant.

As Table XVIII indicates, 7 or 5.1 percent of the administrators and 10 or 7.3 percent of the teachers reported a female college professor served as a role model. Results in Table XVIII indicated there were no statistically significant differences between administrators and teachers on female college professors who served as role models.

Administrators as role models. Participant responses yielded data for analyses to determine if there were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on administrators who served as role models and non-administrators who served as role models (Table XIX). The responses were grouped into two categories: The first category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported either a male or female administrator as role model. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported either a male or female non-administrator as a role model. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 65.09$, 1 df, $p < .05$. As Table XIX indicates, a striking difference existed between the administrators and teachers on administrators vs. non-administrators who served as role models. A total of 72 or 68.6 percent of the administrators reported either a male or female administrator as a role model, while only 13 or 12.6 percent of the teachers reported this. Slightly less than three times the proportion of teachers as administrators (87.4 percent vs. 31.4 percent) reported either a male or female non-administrator as a role model. Results in Table XIX indicated there were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on administrators and non-administrators as role models.

Table XIX. Distribution of Administrators Who Served as Role Models for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Role Model	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Administrator (male and female)	72	68.6	13	12.6
Non-administrator (male and female)	33	31.4	90	87.4
Total	105	100.0	103	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 65.09, 1 \text{ df}, p < .05.$$

Hypothesis number three stated that there would be significant differences in the scarcity of role models between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers. Table XIII, p. 57, indicated that there were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on the lack of role models. Table XVIII indicated there were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on female professors who served as role models. However, an analysis of the results in Tables XV and XVI, pp. 59-60, indicated there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on female parents as role models. Table XVII indicated there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on other females within the educational system as role models. Table XIX indicated there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on another administrator, either male or female, as a

role model. The data suggest that females who work in educational administration need other successful women role models with whom they can identify. Hypothesis number three was accepted.

Hypothesis Number Four

Hypothesis number four stated that there would be significant differences between the administrators and teachers on operating autonomously in a hostile environment (i.e., significant differences on achievement needs as measured by intellectual attainment and highest degree obtained, on external sources of support, and on a lowering of self-esteem and a loss of femininity in a society which negatively reinforces women's success and achievements). The fourth hypothesis was analyzed on the following variables: (1) quality of academic work at the college level; (2) highest degree obtained; (3) conflict associated with a lack of self-esteem and confidence in self; (4) conflict associated with a fear of becoming unfeminine; (5) external sources of influence; and (6) external sources of discouragement.

On the assumption that the consequences of achievement oriented behaviors in women would weaken the value they placed on intellectual attainments, the administrators and teachers were asked to report the quality of their academic work at the college level and their highest degree obtained.

Table XX shows frequency distributions on the quality of academic work at the college level reported by the administrators and teachers. The data in Table XX show that the majority of both

Table XX. Distribution of College Level Quality of Academic Work for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Quality	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Far Above Average	39	27.7	35	25.5
Above Average	87	61.7	80	58.4
Average	13	9.2	22	16.1
Below Average				
No Answer	2	1.4		
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

administrators and teachers reported the quality of their academic work at the college level was above average. A total of 39 or 27.7 percent of the administrators and 35 or 25.5 percent of the teachers reported the quality of their academic work was far above average. A larger proportion of teachers than administrators (16.1 percent vs. 9.2 percent) reported the quality of their academic work was average.

As previously shown in Table VI, page 49, 73 percent of the administrators and 96.4 percent of the teachers had received the Master's degree, 11.3 percent of the administrators and 2.9 percent of the teachers had received the specialist degree, and 11.3 percent of the administrators and 0.7 of the teachers had received the doctoral degree. One possible explanation for the difference between

teachers and administrators on specialist and doctoral degrees is that an advanced graduate degree is considered to be a stepping-stone to a career in educational administration.

On the assumption that achievement oriented women had defied the conventions of sex appropriate behavior which could be associated with a lowering of their self-esteem, participant responses on conflict associated with a lack of confidence and attitude toward self were analyzed to determine if there were significant differences between the mean scores of the administrators and teachers (Table XXI). The t -value in Table XXI yielded a conflict associated with a lack of confidence and attitude toward self t -score of 1.24 ($p > .05$). An examination of the means indicated that both the administrators and teachers disagreed that they had experienced conflict associated with a lack of confidence or attitude toward self, resulting in no significant differences between the two groups.

On the assumption that achievement oriented women had defied the conventions of sex appropriate behavior which had caused them to lose their sense of femininity, participant responses on conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine" were analyzed to determine if there were significant differences between the administrators and teachers at the .05 level (Table XXII). The t -value in Table XXII yielded a conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine" t -score of -2.74 ($p < .05$). An examination of the mean scores shows that the mean score for teachers was higher than the mean score for administrators. A higher mean score for teachers

Table XXI. Summary of T-Value for Lack of Confidence and Attitude Toward Self Variable for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Group	Number of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
Administrators	136	3.9632	1.226	1.24	271	0.218 (N/S)
Teachers	137	3.7810	1.211			

(N/S) = Not significant.

Table XXII. Summary of T-Value for Conflict Associated with a Fear of Becoming Unfeminine Variable for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Group	Number of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
Administrators	129	3.9632	1.226	-2.74	255	0.007*
Teachers	128	3.7810	1.211			

*p < .05

indicates teachers disagreed more strongly than administrators that they had experienced conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine."

Table XXIII shows frequency distributions for the variable concerning role conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine." Two major differences between administrators and teachers are shown in Table XXIII. First, a larger proportion of administrators than teachers (8.5 percent vs. 2.2 percent) agreed they had experienced conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine." Second, a larger proportion of teachers than administrators (56.2 percent vs. 43.3 percent) strongly disagreed they had experienced dual role conflict or stress associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine." Results in Tables XXII and XXIII indicate there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on autonomy and a fear of becoming "unfeminine."

On the assumption that for women the achievement motive was correlated with external support, the women in this study were asked to respond to the question: "Which persons, excluding your present business contacts, influenced your present career decision the most?" Table XXIV shows their responses to this question. Their responses indicated that the individuals who influenced the administrators and teachers differed in two major respects. First, a larger proportion of the teachers than the administrators (91.9 percent vs. 83.6 percent) reported their family and friends had influenced their present career decision. As Table XXIV indicates, a larger proportion of teachers than administrators (27.7 percent vs. 17 percent)

Table XXIII. Distribution of Answers for Conflict Associated with a Fear of Becoming Unfeminine Variable for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Conflict Caused by Fear of Becoming Unfeminine	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Strongly Agree				
Agree	12	8.5	3	2.2
Neither Agree nor Disagree	6	4.3	7	5.1
Disagree	55	39.0	41	29.9
Strongly Disagree	61	43.3	77	56.2
Not Applicable	7	5.0	9	6.6
Total	141	100.0	137	100.9

Table XXIV. Distribution of Sources of Influence for Present Job for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Sources of Influence	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
Family and Friends				
Husband	25	17.7	23	16.8
Female parent	24	17.0	38	27.7
Male parent	22	15.6	22	16.1
Children	7	5.0	5	3.6
Boyfriend	4	2.8	1	0.7
Female friend	21	14.9	21	15.3
Male friend	5	3.5	9	6.6
Female outside school system	10	7.1	6	4.4
Male outside school system	12	8.5	1	0.7
Total	130 ^a	83.6 ^b	126 ^a	91.9 ^b
Professionals				
Male professor	29	20.6	18	13.1
Female professor	18	12.8	20	14.6
Female teacher	24	17.0	31	22.6
Male teacher	11	7.8	10	7.3
Female supervisor	21	14.9	4	2.9
Male supervisor	17	12.1	3	2.2
Female principal	9	6.4	2	1.5
Male principal	13	9.2	9	6.6
Female superintendent	4	2.8	1	0.7
Male superintendent	19	13.5	7	5.1
Other female administrator	16	11.3	3	2.2
Other male administrator	21	14.9	8	5.8
Total	202 ^a	143.3 ^b	116 ^a	84.6 ^b

^aResponses total more than number in sample since some respondents mentioned more than one source of influence.

^bResponses total more than 100 percent since some respondents mentioned more than one source of influence.

indicated a female parent as a source of influence. However, a larger proportion of administrators than teachers (8.5 percent vs. 0.7 percent) indicated a male outside the school system had influenced their present career decision. Second, the findings in Table XXIV indicated a larger proportion of the administrators than teachers (143.3 percent vs. 84.6 percent) reported that professionals influenced their present career decision. As Table XXIV indicates, a larger proportion of the administrators than teachers reported they were influenced by professionals in all categories, with the exception of two-- a larger proportion of teachers than administrators (14.6 percent vs. 12.8 percent) reported they were influenced by female professors, and a larger proportion of teachers than administrators (22.6 percent vs. 17 percent) reported they were influenced by female teachers.

On the assumption that "significant or powerful others" could have influenced the career decisions of the 278 women in a negative manner, the respondents were asked, "Which persons, excluding your present business contacts, discouraged your present career decision the most?" Table XXV shows the percentage of women administrators and teachers who reported being discouraged in their present career decisions. As shown in Table XXV, a large proportion of the administrators (31.2 percent) and teachers (32.1 percent) reported being discouraged in their present career decision. However, both the administrators and teachers answered proportionately the same. Results in Table XXV indicate there were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on the amount of reported discouragement in their present career decisions.

Table XXV. Distribution of Reported Discouragement for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Reported Being Discouraged	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
Yes	44	31.2	44	32.1
No	97	68.8	93	67.9
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

Table XXVI presents the sources of discouragement for the 44 (31.2 percent) administrators and 44 (32.1 percent) teachers who reported being discouraged. Their responses in Table XXVI indicated that the sources of discouragement for the administrators and teachers differed in three respects. First, a larger proportion of the administrators than teachers (15.6 percent vs. 10.1 percent) reported their family had discouraged their present career decision. Second, a larger proportion of teachers than administrators (9.5 percent vs. 4.2 percent) indicated their friends had discouraged their present career decision. Third, a larger proportion of teachers than administrators (19 percent vs. 14.7 percent) reported that professionals had discouraged their present career decision.

Hypothesis number four stated that there would be significant differences between administrators and teachers on operating autonomously in a hostile environment (i.e., significant differences on

Table XXVI. Distribution of Sources of Discouragement for Present Job for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Sources of Discouragement	Administrators		Teachers	
	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)	Absolute Frequency	Relative Frequency (Pct.)
Family				
Husband	4	2.8	1	0.7
Female parent	6	4.3	5	3.6
Male parent	11	7.8	8	5.8
Children	1	0.7		
Total	22	15.6	14	10.1
Friends				
Boyfriend			3	2.2
Female friend	3	2.1	2	1.5
Male friend			2	1.5
Female outside school system			1	0.7
Male outside school system	3	2.1	5	3.6
Total	6 ^a	4.2	13 ^a	9.5
Professionals				
Male professor	2	1.4	7	5.1
Female professor			1	0.7
Female teacher	4	2.8	6	4.4
Male teacher	1	0.7		
Female supervisor	4	2.8	4	2.9
Male supervisor	2	1.4	2	1.5
Female principal	3	2.1		
Male principal	1	0.7	2	1.5
Female superintendent				
Male superintendent				
Other female administrator	1	0.7	1	0.7
Other male administrator	3	2.1	3	2.2
Total	21 ^a	14.7	26 ^a	19.0

^aSome respondents reported more than one source of discouragement.

achievement needs as measured by intellectual attainment and highest degree obtained, on external sources of support, and on a lowering of self-esteem and a loss of femininity in a society which negatively reinforces women's success and achievements). Although there were no differences on conflict associated with a lack of self-esteem and confidence in self, there were differences in conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine." On the assumption that higher levels of intellectual attainment can be tied to a loss of femininity, this may be a possible explanation for the differences between administrators and teachers, since a higher proportion of administrators than teachers had received advanced graduate degrees (Table VI, page 49).

Hypothesis Number Five

The fifth hypothesis stated that there would be significant differences in the lack of female peer support between the target group of administrators and the control group of teachers. Participant responses to three questionnaire items (Appendix) dealing with female peer support yielded data for analyses to determine if there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on female peer support.

The fifth hypothesis was tested by a t-test on the following variables: (1) amount of support teachers received from female peers; (2) amount of support educational administrators received from female peers; and (3) the role conflict caused by lack of support from female peers in the case of both teachers and educational

administrators. Table XXVII presents the t-score for responses to these two statements: "As an educational administrator, rate the amount of support you received from female peers. As a teacher, rate the amount of support you received from female peers." Table XXVII presents a summary of the t-value between administrators and teachers on the female peer support variables. The t-value in Table XXVII yielded a female peer support t-score of -0.28 ($p > .05$). An examination of the means indicated that female peers were generally supportive of the career endeavors of both administrators and teachers.

Table XXVIII presents a summary of the t-value between administrators and teachers on the variable dealing with role conflict associated with a lack of support from female peers. The t-value in Table XXVIII yielded a role conflict associated with a lack of support from female peers t-score of $-.38$ ($p > .05$). An examination of the means indicated that administrators and teachers both generally disagreed that lack of female peer support was associated with their experiencing dual role conflict or stress.

Hypothesis number five stated that there would be significant differences in the lack of female peer support between administrators and teachers. The t-values in Tables XXVII and XXVIII showed that there were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on lack of female peer support. Hypothesis number five was rejected, and the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table XXVII. Summary of T-Value for Peer Support Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Group	Number of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
Administrators	127	1.7559	0.823			
				-0.28	260	0.783 (N/S)
Teachers	135	1.7852	0.893			

(N/S) = Not significant.

Table XXVIII. Summary of T-Value for Role Conflict Caused by Lack of Support from Female Peers Variable for Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Group	Number of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-Tail Probability
Administrators	124	3.9194	0.880			
				-0.38	250	0.702 (N/S)
Teachers	128	3.9609	0.846			

(N/S) = Not significant.

Hypothesis Number Six

Hypothesis number six stated that there would be significant differences between administrators and teachers on an orderly pattern of career development and commitment. Participant responses to the following variables: (1) age, (2) total years teaching experience, (3) age at first appointment to teaching position, (4) age at first appointment to administrative position, (5) conflict associated with a lack of professional qualifications, (6) conflict associated with a lack of motivation or interest, and (7) conflict associated with a lack of career commitment, provided data for analysis to determine significant differences between the two groups.

Table III, page 43, shows that the 141 administrators were, on the average, older than the 137 teachers. The number of teachers in all age groupings steadily declined after age 39, while the number of administrators steadily rose within this same age group. A total of 94 or 66.7 percent of the administrators were 40 years of age or older, in contrast to only 37 or 27 percent of the teachers. Data in Table III, page 43, suggest that teachers of the hearing impaired abandon teaching careers after age 39.

On the assumption that career persistence was associated with achievement needs of women, the administrators and teachers were asked to report their total number of years teaching experience (Table XXIX). The majority of administrators (38.3 percent) and teachers (32.1 percent) reported 6 to 10 years of teaching experience. The data in Table XXIX show that the total years of teaching experience steadily declined after 11 to 15 years in the classroom.

Table XXIX. Total Years of Teaching Experience for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Number of Years Teaching Experience	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
1-5	34	24.1	30	21.9
6-10	54	38.3	44	32.1
11-15	24	17.0	37	27.0
16-20	13	9.2	11	8.0
21-25	7	5.0	5	3.6
26 or More	5	3.5	10	7.3
Never Taught	4	2.8		
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

The administrators and teachers were asked to report their age at the time of their first appointment to a teaching position (Table XXX). The majority of teachers (91.2 percent) and administrators (89.4 percent) were between the ages of 18 and 29 at the time of their first appointment to a teaching position.

On the assumption that women's ambivalence concerning marriage and careers caused them to make career decisions about the age of 30 to 33, the administrators were asked to report their age at the time of their first appointment to an administrative position (Table XXXI). The data in Table XXXI show that the majority of the administrators (64 or 45.4 percent) were between 30 and 39 years of age at the time of their first appointment to an administrative position. Furthermore, 40 or 28.4 percent of the administrators were 29 years of age or younger at the time of their first appointment to an administrative position. It should also be noted that of the 11 teachers who indicated they had been appointed to an administrative position, 7 reported they were between the ages of 30 to 39.

Table XXXII shows the number of years administrators and teachers had served in an administrative position. The majority of administrators (36.9 percent) reported they had served in an administrative position from 6 to 10 years, while 29.1 percent had served in an administrative position from 11 to 15 years, and 29.1 percent had served as administrators from 1 to 5 years. It should be noted that 14 teachers reported they had served as administrators for a number of years, but at the time of this study were employed as teachers.

Table XXX. Distribution of Ages at First Appointment to Teaching Position for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Age	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
18-29	126	89.4	125	91.2
30-39	9	6.4	8	5.8
40-49	4	2.8	3	2.2
50-59			1	0.7
Never Taught	2	1.4		
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

Table XXXI. Distribution of Ages at First Appointment to Administrative Position for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Age	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
18-29	40	28.4	2	1.5
30-39	64	45.4	7	5.1
40-49	31	22.0	1	0.7
50-59	6	4.3	1	0.7
Not Applicable			126	91.9
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

Table XXXII. Total Number of Years Served in an Administrative Position for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Number of Years in Administrative Position	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
1-5	41	29.1	10	7.3
6-10	52	36.9	2	1.5
11-15	33	23.4		
16-20	10	7.1		
21-25	4	2.8	1	0.7
26 or More	1	0.7	1	0.7
Not Applicable			123	89.7
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0

On the assumption that a career in educational administration required much training and commitment, it was expected there would be significant differences between administrators and teachers on conflict associated with a lack of professional qualifications, conflict associated with a lack of motivation or interest, and conflict associated with a lack of career commitment. Table XXXIII presents t-scores for these three variables. The t-scores in Table XXXIII yielded significant differences between the mean scores of administrators and teachers on the three variables pertaining to career training and commitment. A higher mean score for administrators on all three variables indicates that administrators disagreed more strongly than teachers that they had experienced conflict associated with a lack of training, motivation, or commitment.

Table III, page 43, and Tables XXIX, XXXI, XXXII, and XXXIII show significant differences between administrators and teachers on an orderly pattern of career development, and suggest that teachers of the hearing impaired abandon careers after age 39 because of a lack of career commitment. Hypothesis number six was accepted.

Hypothesis Number Seven

The seventh hypothesis stated that there would be significant differences between the administrators and teachers on role conflict associated with combining the dual role of worker and the traditional role of wife/mother. Participant responses to the 15 questionnaire items (Appendix) dealing with dual role conflict yielded data analyses to determine if there were significant differences between the

Table XXXIII. Summary of T-Values for Career Commitment Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Conflict Caused By	Group	Number Of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Lack of professional qualifications	Administrators	112	4.1250	0.950			
	Teachers	113	3.8230	1.120	2.18	223	0.030*

Limited career commitment	Administrators	124	4.1613	0.850			
	Teachers	129	3.8062	1.054	2.96	243	0.003*

Lack of motivation or interest	Administrators	123	4.5203	0.670			
	Teachers	128	3.9766	1.053	4.90	216	0.000*

*p < .05.

mean scores of the administrators and teachers on dual role conflict. Table XXXIV contains the summary of t-values for the 15 variables concerning dual role conflict. An analysis of the t-values concerning dual role conflict (Table XXXIV) yielded significant differences between the mean scores of administrators and teachers on the following variables:

Conflict associated with a lack of professional qualifications.

An analysis of the t-scores in Table XXXIV yielded a role conflict associated with a lack of professional qualifications t-score of 2.18 ($p < .05$). Examination of the means indicated that the mean score for administrators was higher than the mean score for teachers. A higher mean score indicates that administrators generally disagreed that a lack of professional qualifications was associated with their experiencing dual role conflict or stress.

Conflict associated with a lack of motivation or interest.

Data analyses in Table XXXIV established that the mean scores of administrators and teachers differed significantly on their responses to role conflict associated with a lack of motivation or interest. Data analyses of role conflict associated with a lack of motivation or interest yielded a t-score of 4.90 ($p < .05$). A higher mean score for administrators indicates administrators disagreed that a lack of motivation or interest was associated with their experiencing dual role conflict.

Table XXXIV. Summary of t-Values for Dual Role Conflict Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Conflict Caused By	Group	Number Of Cases	Mean	S.D.	<u>t</u> -Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Family responsibilities	Administrators	115	2.5304	0.958			
	Teachers	116	2.4483	1.129	0.60	229	0.552
Children	Administrators	85	2.4353	0.892			
	Teachers	71	2.2676	1.082	1.06	154	0.290
Lack of professional qualifications	Administrators	112	4.1250	0.950			
	Teachers	113	3.8230	1.120	2.18	223	0.030*
Lack of motivation/ interest	Administrators	123	4.5203	0.670			
	Teachers	128	3.9766	1.053	4.90	216	0.000*

Table XXXIV (Continued)

Conflict Caused By	Group	Number Of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Lack of money	Administrators	124	3.3710	1.115			
	Teachers	129	2.8682	1.234	3.40	251	0.0021*
Lack of experience and opportunity	Administrators	123	3.5935	1.070	0.67	252	0.506
	Teachers	131	3.5038	1.077			
Limited career commitment	Administrators	124	4.1613	0.850	2.96	243	0.003*
	Teachers	129	3.8062	1.054			
Gaps in technical knowledge	Administrators	136	3.7426	1.366	0.88	271	0.380
	Teachers	137	3.5985	1.342			

Table XXXIV (Continued)

Conflict Caused By	Group	Number Of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Lack of confidence and attitude	Administrators	136	3.9632	1.226			
toward self	Teachers	137	3.7810	1.211	1.24	271	0.218
Hiring and promotion	Administrators	136	3.5935	1.346	-0.17	271	0.868
practices	Teachers	137	3.5038	1.335			
Lack of advanced education and training	Administrators	136	4.1471	1.092			
	Teachers	137	4.0292	1.091	0.89	271	0.373
Unwillingness to take on added responsibilities	Administrators	126	4.2698	0.889			
	Teachers	130	3.8308	1.013	3.68	254	0.000*

Table XXXIV (Continued)

Conflict Caused By	Group	Number Of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Lack of general management	Administrators	130	3.7077	1.137			
skills	Teachers	117	3.5812	1.019	0.92	245	0.360
Lack of support from	Administrators	124	3.9194	0.880			
female peers	Teachers	128	3.9609	0.846	-0.38	250	0.702
Fear of becoming "unfeminine"	Administrators	129	4.2326	0.888			
	Teachers	128	4.5078	0.710	-2.74	255	0.007*

*p < .05.

Conflict associated with a lack of money. Data analyses of t-scores in Table XXXIV established that there were significant differences between the mean scores of the administrators and teachers on role conflict associated with a lack of money. Role conflict associated with a lack of money yielded a t-score of 3.40 ($p < .05$). A higher mean score for administrators indicates administrators generally disagreed that a lack of money was associated with their experiencing dual role conflict.

Conflict associated with a limited career commitment. Data analyses of t-scores in Table XXIV, page 86, indicated there were significant differences in the mean scores of the administrators and teachers on role conflict associated with a limited career commitment. Role conflict associated with a limited career commitment yielded a t-score of 2.96 ($p < .05$). A higher mean score for administrators indicated administrators disagreed that a limited career commitment was associated with their experiencing dual role conflict.

Conflict associated with an unwillingness to take on added responsibility. Data analyses of t-scores in Table XXIV, page 86, indicated that there were significant differences between the mean scores of the administrators and teachers on conflict associated with an unwillingness to take on added responsibility. Role conflict associated with an unwillingness to take on added responsibility yielded a t-score of 3.68 ($p < .05$). A higher mean score for administrators indicates administrators disagreed that they had experienced

role conflict associated with an unwillingness to take on added responsibility.

Conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine."

Data analyses of t-scores in Table XXIV, page 71, indicated there were significant differences between the mean scores of administrators and teachers on role conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine." Role conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine" yielded a t-score of -2.74 ($p < .05$). A higher mean score for teachers indicated teachers disagreed that a fear of becoming "unfeminine" was associated with their experiencing dual role conflict.

The data show that of the six role conflict variables on which there were significant differences between the mean scores of the administrators and teachers, an examination of the means showed the mean score was lower for administrators on only one variable--role conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine"--indicating achievement needs in a male-dominated career can be associated with a feeling of a loss of femininity.

I-values outlined in Table XXIV, page 71, indicated there were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on dual role conflict associated with: (1) family responsibilities (t-score of .60, $p > .05$); (2) conflict associated with children (t-score of 1.06, $p > .05$); (3) conflict associated with a lack of experience or opportunity (t-score of .67, $p > .05$); (4) conflict associated with gaps in technical knowledge (t-score of .88, $p > .05$);

(5) conflict associated with hiring and promotion practices ($\underline{t}$ -score of $-.17$, $p > .05$); (6) conflict associated with a lack of confidence and attitude toward self ($\underline{t}$ -score of 1.24 , $p > .05$); (7) conflict associated with a lack of advanced education and training ($\underline{t}$ -score of $.89$, $p > .05$); (8) conflict associated with a lack of general management skills ($\underline{t}$ -score of $.92$, $p > .05$); and (9) conflict associated with a lack of support from female peers ($\underline{t}$ -score of $-.38$, $p > .05$). It should be noted that both administrators and teachers agreed that family responsibilities and children were associated with the greatest amount of role conflict, as indicated by lower mean scores on these two variables in comparison to the other role conflict variables.

Results in Table XXXIV showed that there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on dual role conflict associated with combining the role of worker and the traditional role of wife and mother. It should be noted that the variables on role conflict which showed significant differences between administrators and teachers pertained to work commitment. Hypothesis number seven was accepted.

Hypothesis Number Eight

The eighth hypothesis stated that there would be significant differences between administrators and teachers on the relationship between family situation and professional qualifications. The eighth hypothesis was analyzed on the following relationships between variables: (1) the relationship between highest academic degree and number of children of both administrators and teachers; and (2) the

relationship between highest academic degree and marital status of the administrators and teachers.

Table XXXV shows frequency distributions on the highest degree obtained by the administrators and teachers, categorized by the number of children each group had. Chi-square statistics were not computed due to a lack of sufficient expected frequencies in the specialist and doctoral categories. Table XXXV shows that the largest proportion of administrators (34.7 percent) and teachers (51.1 percent) who held Master's degrees had no children, and that the largest proportion of administrators (41.4 percent) and teachers (60 percent) who held specialist and doctoral degrees had no children. However, a large number of the administrators (22.1 percent) and teachers (12.2 percent) who held Master's degrees had 3 or more children. It should be noted that the proportion of administrators and teachers who held Master's degrees was similar for 1, 2, and 3 or more children.

Table III, page 43, shows striking differences in age distribution between the administrators and teachers. Slightly more than two times the number of teachers (71.5 percent) as the number of administrators (32.7 percent) were 39 years of age or younger. Further, more than three times the number of teachers (18.2 percent) as the number of administrators (5 percent) were 29 years of age or younger. Thus, the differences in age distribution between the administrators and teachers may account for the number of children.

Table XXXVI shows frequency distributions for the administrators on highest degree obtained and marital status. Table XXXVI

Table XXXV. Distribution of Degrees Obtained for Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf by Number of Children.

Number of Children	Master's Degree				Specialist And Doctoral Degrees			
	Administrators		Teachers		Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
0	33	34.7	67	51.1	12	41.4	3	60
1	19	20.0	26	19.8	7	24.1		
2	22	23.2	22	16.8	5	17.2	2	40
3 or More	21	22.1	16	12.2	5	17.2		
Total	95	100.0	131	100.0	29	100.0	5	100

Table XXXVI. Distribution of Degrees Obtained for Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf by Marital Status.

Marital Status	Master's Degree		Specialist And Doctoral Degrees	
	Administrators N	Teachers N (Pct.)	Administrators N (Pct.)	Teachers N (Pct.)
Single	25	38 29.1	6 25.0	1 33.3
Married	61	86 70.9	18 75.0	2 66.7
Total	86	124 100.0	24 100.0	3 100.0

shows no significant differences between administrators and teachers on marital status and highest degree obtained. Hypothesis number eight was accepted.

Hypothesis Number Nine

The ninth hypothesis stated that there would be significant differences between the administrators and teachers on commitment to uninterrupted careers. Participant responses to the nine questionnaire items (Appendix) dealing with career interruptions yielded data for analyses to determine if there were significant differences in the mean scores of the administrators and teachers on career interruptions.

Table XXXVII contains the summary of t-values for the nine variables concerning career interruptions. An analysis of the t-values in Table XXXVII yielded significant differences between the mean scores of the administrators and teachers on one variable dealing with career interruptions: There were significant differences in the mean scores of the administrators and teachers on career interruptions associated with a lack of motivation.

Results of the analyses of t-scores in Table XXXVII revealed highly similar mean scores and no significant differences. Hypothesis number nine stated there would be significant differences between administrators and teachers on commitment to uninterrupted careers. Hypothesis number nine was rejected, and the null hypothesis was accepted.

Table XXXVII. Summary of $\bar{t}$ -Values for Commitment to Uninterrupted Careers Variables for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Interruptions Caused By	Group	Number Of Cases	Mean	S.D.	$\bar{t}$ -Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Birth of a Child	Administrators	61	2.1967	1.014			
	Teachers	59	2.0339	1.231	0.79	118	0.430
Returning to school	Administrators	73	3.0685	1.240			
	Teachers	76	3.1184	1.336	0.24	147	0.814
Illness	Administrators	53	3.7170	1.116			
	Teachers	63	3.4762	1.229	1.10	114	0.276
Lack of motivation	Administrators	83	4.4096	0.766			
	Teachers	87	4.0115	0.958	3.00	163.03	0.003*

Table XXXVII (Continued)

Interruptions Caused By	Group	Number Of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Marriage	Administrators	69	3.8696	1.083			
	Teachers	75	3.8000	1.230	0.36	142	0.720
Pre-school age	Administrators	60	2.8167	1.242	-0.53	113	0.596
children	Teachers	55	2.9455	1.353			
Lack of available or dependable day care	Administrators	55	3.5273	1.274			
	Teachers	50	3.4600	1.281	0.27	103	0.788

Table XXXVII (Continued)

Interruptions Caused By	Group	Number Of Cases	Mean	S.D.	t-Value	Degrees of Freedom	2-tail Probability
Husband being transferred	Administrators	42	3.3810	1.229			
	Teachers	46	3.2609	1.307	0.44	86	0.659

Indecision	Administrators	70	3.9571	1.042			
	Teachers	79	3.8228	0.958	0.82	147	0.413

*p < .05.

Hypothesis Number Ten

The tenth hypothesis stated that there would be significant differences between administrators and teachers on whether their sexual identity evolved before their career identity (i.e., career identity refers to the extent to which women view an occupation as central to their life and sexual identity refers to the extent to which women view their role as wife/mother as central to their life). On the assumption that "female typed" jobs, such as teaching, offered scheduling advantages which could easily be combined with family responsibilities (sexual identity) and "male typed" jobs, such as educational administration, could not easily be combined with family responsibilities (career identity), the women in this study were asked to report the time they initially considered teaching as a career and the time they initially considered educational administration as a career.

Table XXXVIII shows frequency distributions for the administrators and teachers on the timing of the initial decision to enter teaching as a career and the timing of the initial decision to enter educational administration as a career. The majority of the administrators (58.2 percent) and teachers (51.1 percent) made the initial decision to teach before entering college. Further, a large proportion of the administrators (27.7 percent) and teachers (22.6 percent) made the initial decision to teach while still in grammar school. It should be noted that 41 of the teachers reported they did, in fact, initially consider educational administration as a career. A total of 2 of these 41 teachers made the initial decision to enter

Table XXXVIII. Distribution of Time Periods on Initial Decision to Enter Teaching or Educational Administration for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Time of Decision	Initial Decision to Enter Teaching		Initial Decision to Enter Educational Administration	
	Administrators	Teachers	Administrators	Teachers
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Grammar school	39	27.7	31	22.6
High school	43	30.5	39	28.5
College freshman or sophomore	26	18.4	31	22.6
College junior or senior	21	14.9	17	12.4
Graduate school	2	1.4	5	3.6
After college	6	4.3	9	6.6
Never considered	4	2.8	5	3.6
No answer				
Total	141	100.0	137	100.0
			141	100.0
			137	100.0

educational administration when they were freshmen or sophomores in college; 3 made the initial decision when they were juniors or seniors in college; 15 made the initial decision when they were in graduate school; and 21 made the initial decision after graduate school. It should also be noted that none of the 278 women in this study reported they considered educational administration as a career while in either grammar school or high school. Only 9 of the 278 women reported they initially considered educational administration as a career before graduate school.

Table XXXIX shows participant responses to the question, "When did you initially consider teaching as a career?" The data in Table XXXIX were grouped into two categories. The first category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported they initially considered teaching as a career in either grammar school or high school. The second category was formed by those administrators and teachers who reported they initially considered teaching as a career during or after college. Results indicated a $\chi^2 = 0.84$, 1 df, $p > .05$. There were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on the timing of their initial decision to enter teaching as a career.

On the assumption that a career in teaching could be closely tied to sexual identity and that a career in educational administration could be closely tied to career identity, the administrators and teachers were asked to respond to the question, "When did you initially consider educational administration as a career?" (Table XXXX). The data in Table XXXX show that the majority of the 141

Table XXXIX. Distribution of Time Periods on Initial Decision to Enter Teaching as a Career for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Time of Decision	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Before College	79	58.1 (N/S)	71	51.8 (N/S)
During or After College	57	41.9	66	48.2
Total	136	100.0	137	100.0

(N/S) = Not significant.

Table XXXX. Distribution of Time Periods on Initial Decision to Enter Educational Administration as a Career for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Time of Decision	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Through Graduate School	39	28.7	20	15.0
After Graduate School	72	52.9	21	15.8
Never Considered Educational Administration	25	18.4	92	69.2
Total	136	100.0	133	100.0

$\chi^2 = 72.42$, 2 df, $p < .05$.

administrators (52.9 percent) did not initially consider educational administration as a career until they had finished graduate school.

A total of 41 of the 133 teachers who participated in this study reported they initially considered educational administration as a career. Results in Table XXXX indicate a $\chi^2 = 72.42$, 2 df, $p < .05$. Table XXXX shows there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on the timing of the initial decision to enter educational administration as a career.

On the assumption that women's ambivalence concerning marriage and careers caused their sexual identity to evolve before their career identity, the participants in this study were asked to respond to the questions, "When did you make the final decision to become a teacher?" "When did you make the final decision to become an educational administrator?" Table XXXXI shows participant responses on the timing of the final decision to become a teacher.

Results in Table XXXXI indicate a $\chi^2 = 6.13$, 1 df, $p < .05$. There were significant differences between administrators and teachers on the timing of the final decision to become a teacher.

Table XXXXII shows participant responses on the timing of the final decision to become educational administrators. The largest proportion of administrators (67.4 percent) and teachers (12.2 percent) who reported they considered educational administration made the final decision after graduate school.

Results in Table XXXX indicated a $\chi^2 = 123.0$, 2 df, $p < .05$. There were significant differences between administrators and

Table XXXXI. Distribution of Time Periods on Final Decision to Become a Teacher for Female Administrators and Teachers in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Time of Decision	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Before College	47	34.6	28	20.4
During or After College	89	65.4	109	79.6
Total	136	100.0	137	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 6.13, 1 \text{ df}, p < .05.$$

Table XXXXII. Distribution of Time Periods on Final Decision to Become an Educational Administrator for Female Administrators and Teachers (1982) in U. S. Programs Serving the Deaf.

Time of Decision	Administrators		Teachers	
	N	(Pct.)	N	(Pct.)
Through Graduate School	30	22.2	12	9.8
After Graduate School	91	67.4	15	12.2
Never Considered Educational Administration	14	10.4	96	78.0
Total	135	100.0	123	100.0

$$\chi^2 = 123.0, 2 \text{ df}, p < .05.$$

teachers on the timing of the final decision to become an educational administrator.

Hypothesis number ten stated that there would be significant differences between administrators and teachers on the evolvement of sexual identity and career identity. Table XXXIX showed there were no significant differences between the two groups on their initial decision to enter teaching. Table XXXX showed there were significant differences between the two groups on their initial decision to enter educational administration. Tables XXXXI and XXXXII showed there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on their final decision to become a teacher and on their final decision to become an educational administrator. Hypothesis number ten was accepted.

III. Summary

The data collected for this study were presented and analyzed in this chapter. Data analyses supported six of the hypotheses. Significant differences between the administrators and teachers were found on the following variables:

1. Lack of mentors
2. Scarcity of role models
3. Ability of the women to operate autonomously
4. Career commitment
5. Dual role conflict
6. Evolvement of sexual identity and career identity.

There were no significant differences between the administrators and teachers on the following variables:

1. Locus of control
2. Lack of support from female peers
3. Commitment to uninterrupted careers
4. Relationship between number of children and professional qualifications and marital status and professional qualifications.

CHAPTER IV

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, AND CONCLUSIONS

In Chapter III the data generated by this study were presented and, where practicable, analyzed. In this chapter the findings are reviewed and examined in terms of the original hypotheses. When the hypotheses were found to be valid (that is, when significant differences existed between administrators and teachers) or when the results and/or conclusions ran counter to those in similar studies, the findings were referenced to the literature on the subject.

I. Summary

This study was concerned with identifying and analyzing the social-psychological factors influencing the career choices of women in educational administration in residential and day school programs for the deaf in the United States. To this end, three specific research objectives were formulated:

1. To identify the social-psychological variables that served as correlates of success in the target group of women administrators; and as correlates of stasis in the control group of teachers.
2. To identify any trends in the data collected; and in so doing,
3. To develop a social-psychological profile of women administrators in deaf education in the United States.

The participants in this study consisted of two groups. The first group, the target group, was 141 top-level women administrators in 141 United States residential and day school programs serving the deaf who were identified in the April, 1982 issue of American Annals of the Deaf (Craig and Craig, 1982). The second group, the control group, was 137 women teachers in 7 residential school programs and 23 day school programs serving the deaf from a cross section of the United States who had obtained Master's degrees and had remained in a teaching position for at least five years and who had not attained top-level administrative positions.

The data in this study were obtained via questionnaire survey (Appendix). The questionnaire was designed to obtain demographic data, social-psychological data, and data on subject attribution, the latter to determine external-internal locus of control. Portions of the Rotter I. E. Scale (Rotter, 1966) which deal with social and personal control were included to determine internal-external locus of control.

. The returned questionnaires were grouped into the categories of teacher and administrator, keypunched, and analyzed using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Data obtained were subjected to frequency distributions, cross-tabulations, and the Chi-square and t-test of mean differences. Nominal and ordinal levels of data generated frequencies and percentages which were cross-tabulated with the two groups--administrators and teachers--and tested for significance at the .05 level with the Chi-square (χ^2) test of association. Interval levels of data generated frequency

responses and mean scores. T-scores were computed which yielded mean scores, tested for significance at the .05 level.

II. Findings and Conclusions

Data analyses for the 141 administrators and 137 teachers in this study were presented in Chapter III. The following discussion of the data synthesizes the results and relates the findings, where appropriate, to those garnered in other applicable studies in the literature. This format is followed in the order that the hypotheses were originally presented.

Comparative Demographic Data

Demographic data generated from the 278 female administrators and teachers who participated in this study showed that 67.3 percent of the administrators were employed in 1982 as supervisors, coordinators, directors, and directors of special education in United States residential and day school programs which served the deaf. A total of 29.2 percent of the 141 administrators were employed in 1982 as teachers/supervisors, principals, superintendents, assistant superintendents, consultants, administrators, department heads, and supervisors of curriculum.

Of the 137 teachers who participated in this study, 84.7 percent were employed as classroom teachers. Another 7.3 percent were employed as teacher/coordinator, teacher/supervisor, and teacher/consultant.

The age groupings for the 278 women ranged from 20-29 years to 60 or more years of age. The 141 women administrators were, on the average, older than the 137 women teachers. The largest proportion of the administrators were in the 40-49 year age range (37.6 percent), while the largest proportion of the teachers were in the 30-39 year age range (53.3 percent). A total of 95 or 66.7 percent of the administrators were 40 years of age or older, in contrast to only 37 or 27 percent of the teachers.

A total of 83 or 58.9 percent of the 141 administrators were married, as were 88 or 64.2 percent of the 137 teachers. A total of 32 or 22.7 percent of the administrators were single, as were 39 or 28.5 percent of the teachers. More than twice the number of administrators as teachers (18.4 percent vs. 7.3 percent) were divorced or widowed.

A total of 49 or 34.8 percent of the 141 administrators and 70 or 51.1 percent of the 137 teachers had no children. Among those women who did have children, 1 or 2 children predominated. A total of 28 or 19.9 percent of the administrators had 1 child, as did 26 or 19 percent of the teachers. A total of 28 or 19.9 percent of the administrators had 2 children, as did 24 or 17.5 percent of the teachers. For both administrators and teachers, the median number of children was 1, and the mode was 0.

Of the 278 women administrators and teachers who participated in this study, 103 or 73 percent of the administrators had obtained a Master's degree, as had 132 or 96.4 percent of the teachers. A total of 16 or 11.3 percent of the administrators had received the

specialist degree, while only 4 or 2.9 percent of the teachers had received the specialist degree. A total of 16 or 11.3 percent of the administrators had received the doctoral degree, while only 1 or 0.7 percent of the teachers had received the doctoral degree.

The majority of the 141 administrators (127 or 90.1 percent) and teachers (114 or 83.2 percent) had no audiological handicaps. A total of 6 or 4.3 percent of the administrators indicated they were hard of hearing, as did 6 or 4.4 percent of the teachers. However, 16 or 11.7 percent of the teachers indicated they were deaf, while none of the administrators fell into this category.

The Target Group: Supplemental Demographics

The focus of this study was on the 141 women participants who were administrators in U. S. residential and day school programs which served the deaf. Demographic data provided by their responses resulted in these findings:

1. The largest number of administrators in this study were employed as supervisors, coordinators, directors, and directors of special education.
2. The largest number of administrators were 40-49 years of age.
3. Marital status of the administrators varied; however, 83 were married, 32 were single, and 26 were widowed or divorced.
4. The largest number of administrators (49) had no children; however, 28 had 1 child, 28 had 2 children, and 27 had 3 or more children.

5. The largest number of administrators (103) had received a Master's degree, while 16 had received the specialist degree, and 16 had received the doctoral degree.

6. A total of 127 of the administrators had no audiological handicaps, 6 were hard of hearing, and none were deaf.

7. The largest number of administrators (126) were between the ages of 18 and 29 at the time of their first appointment to a teaching position.

8. The largest number of administrators (54) had a total of 6 to 10 years of teaching experience before moving into an administrative position. A total of 34 administrators had 1 to 5 years of teaching experience before moving into an administrative position; 24 had 11 to 15 years of teaching experience; 25 had 16 or more years of teaching experience.

9. The largest number of administrators (64) were between 30 and 39 years of age at the time of their first appointment to an administrative position. A total of 40 of the administrators were between 18 and 29 years of age at the time of their first appointment to an administrative position, and 31 were between the ages of 40 and 49.

10. The largest number of administrators (52) had served in an administrative position from 6 to 10 years. A total of 41 of the administrators had served in an administrative position from 1 to 5 years; 33 had served in an administrative position from 11 to 15 years; and 15 had served in an administrative position for 16 or more years.

Results and Conclusions from Hypotheses

Ten hypotheses were put forth for testing in Chapter I to enable the researcher to identify the social-psychological factors influencing success in the target group of women administrators. All of these hypotheses took the form of statements of anticipated differentiation between the target group of women administrators and the control group of women teachers. For a hypothesis to be adjudged valid, a significant difference at the .05 level between the administrators and the teachers had to be found. The results of the data generated from participant responses and presented in Chapter III follow along with a discussion of how these results, when found to be significant, related to those achieved in other studies.

1. There were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on locus of control. Sixteen items which dealt with social and personal control were extracted from the Rotter (1966) I. E. Scale and were included in the questionnaire (Appendix) to determine locus of control. Rotter (1966) devised the I. E. Scale to measure internal-external self-perceptions, wherein individuals were asked to choose between pairs of belief statements which dealt with whether or not the individual saw himself as an active causal agent or as a passive recipient.

A total of 45 or 31.9 percent of the administrators and 53 or 38.6 percent of the teachers were "internals." A total of 44 or 31.2 percent of the administrators and 40 or 29.2 percent of the teachers were "middle," or neither internal nor external. A total of 24 or

17 percent of the administrators and 22 or 16 percent of the teachers were "externals."

The data suggest that, essentially, the administrators and teachers were indistinguishable from each other with regard to locus of control. Both the target group, the administrators, and the control group, the teachers, showed similar distribution in the I. E. Scale. The hypothesis that held that administrators would prove to be internal and the teachers external, in conclusion, was unsubstantiated by the data.

2. There were significant differences between administrators and teachers on a lack of mentors. A larger proportion of the teachers than administrators (29.2 percent vs. 16.7 percent) reported having no mentor. A striking difference existed between the proportion of administrators and teachers (58.1 percent vs. 15.1 percent) who reported having a female in an administrative position who served as a mentor. Furthermore, a striking difference existed between the proportion of administrators and teachers (54.2 percent vs. 20.7 percent) who reported having a male or female in an administrative position who served as a mentor.

The data indicate that a positive correlation existed between women in male dominated positions and mentor relationships with other colleagues who encouraged their career choices. This finding lends support to the research of Larwood, Wood, and Davis (1978), who reported the importance of women developing mentor relationships. Jane Adams' (1979) studies of 60 successful women concluded that mentors helped these women navigate obstacles and dangers, helped

them gain confidence in their abilities, and acted as "sponsors," by making introductions and writing recommendations. The data suggest and the researcher concludes that the women in this study who had advanced to administrative positions had mentor relationships with other colleagues who influenced, encouraged, and supported their careers.

3. There were significant differences between administrators and teachers on the scarcity of role models. None of the administrators reported a female parent as a role model for their present position. However, 14 or 10.2 percent of the teachers reported a female parent served as a role model for their present position. Results indicate that there were differences between the administrators and teachers on a female parent as role model.

A total of 102 or 75.0 percent of the administrators and 83 or 60.6 percent of the teachers reported their mothers did not work outside the home. A larger proportion of the teachers than the administrators (39.4 percent vs. 25 percent) reported their mothers were employed outside the home. A total of 81 or 57.4 percent of the mothers of the administrators and 71 or 51.8 percent of the mothers of the teachers were housewives. A slightly higher proportion of the mothers of the teachers as the mothers of administrators (11.7 percent vs. 7.1 percent) were employed as teachers.

The results for the administrators were not congruent with the findings of Angrist (1972), who conducted career orientation vs. family orientation research on college women over a four-year period and found that career-oriented women were likely to have mothers who

worked. The results for the administrators also refuted the work of Trieman and Terrell (1975), who explored the effect of mother's occupation on daughter's later attainments and reported that the mother's occupation was the single most important variable in determining the daughter's occupation. Rosenfeld (1978) also conducted research concerned with families in which both parents worked outside the home when the daughter was 16 and found that the mother's occupational status was more important than the father's in later determining the daughter's occupational status.

The results for the administrators in this study with regard to female parents as role models suggest that there was no relationship between their mother's attitude toward work, which is at variance with findings in the literature. The data suggest and the writer concludes that female parents did not serve as "positive influential others" in the career choices of the administrators in this study.

There were no statistically significant differences between administrators and teachers on female college professors who served as role models. Seven or 5.1 percent of the administrators and 10 or 7.3 percent of the teachers reported that a female college professor had served as a role model. The results for the administrators in this study refute the work of Vetter (1973), who found a correlation between "career successful women" and the number of female faculty from the achiever's undergraduate institution and concluded that the presence of professionally successful women influenced in a positive direction the career aspirations of female students.

Recent research by Angrist (1972) pointed out that career-oriented women identified both faculty members and their working mothers as role models. The data suggest and the writer concludes that there was no relationship between female college professors as role models and career choices of the administrators in this study.

Even though female parents and college professors did not serve as role models for the administrators in this study, only 24 or 18.5 percent of the administrators and 31 or 22.6 percent of the teachers reported having no role model. A total of 106 or 81.5 percent of the administrators and 106 or 77.4 percent of the teachers reported having role models. There were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on the lack of role models.

Research by Loring and Wells (1972) suggested that female role models were a necessity for "socializing" women into a traditional male occupation. There were significant differences between the administrators and teachers on administrators and non-administrators as role models. Striking differences existed between the administrators and teachers on administrators vs. non-administrators who served as role models. A total of 72 or 68.6 percent of the administrators reported either a male or female administrator as a role model, while only 13 or 12.6 percent of the teachers reported this result. Slightly less than three times the proportion of teachers as administrators (87.4 percent vs. 31.4 percent) reported either a male or female non-administrator as a role model.

There were also significant differences between the administrators and teachers on a female within the educational system vs. a

female outside the educational system who served as a role model. Slightly more than twice the number of teachers as administrators (35.8 percent vs. 17.9 percent) reported having a female role model who worked outside the educational system.

The results of this data confirm the research of Loring and Wells (1972), who suggested that female role models were a necessity for women who were employed in traditional "male" occupations. Mischel (1970) reviewed the importance of modeling and sex-role behavior and confirmed that sex-role modeling occurred only as a result of both watching what others did and observing the consequences of their behavior. The data suggest and the researcher concludes a positive correlation existed between the administrators in this study and the amount of exposure they had to other administrative role models who had succeeded and with whom they could relate.

4. Significant differences were found to exist between administrators and teachers on some of the sub-issues of operating autonomously in a hostile environment. In this case, the focal point of the study was on achievement needs as measured by intellectual attainment and in terms of highest degree obtained, on external sources of support, and on a lowering of self-esteem and a loss of femininity in a society which can often negatively reinforce women's success in the work place.

Both the administrators and the teachers disagreed, however, that they had experienced conflict arising from a lack of confidence or a poor attitude toward self. This agreement of disagreement

between the two groups resulted in no significant differences on the lack of self-confidence sub-issue.

There were significant differences between the two groups, though, on the issue of autonomy and a fear of becoming "unfeminine." A higher percentage of teachers than administrators disagreed with the statement that they had experienced conflict brought about by a fear of becoming "unfeminine." The finding that the administrators in this study experienced conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine" supports the work of Maccoby (1963), who suggested that women who maintained an achievement orientation defied the conventions of sex appropriate behavior and paid the price through a loss in self-esteem and their sense of femininity. Martina Horner (1970) also pointed out that women who persist in taking a career seriously will begin to feel that "success in an achievement situation will be followed by negative consequences, including social rejection and the sense of losing one's femininity" (p. 47). The data suggest and the writer concludes that women's expectations of the consequences of achievement oriented behavior can be associated with a fear of social rejection. One should not infer from this, however, that this fear served as an impediment to advancement and success. The findings indicate just the contrary. The administrators experienced the conflict associated with the fear of being "unfeminine" to a far greater extent than did the teachers, yet within the parameters of the study, the administrators were the successful group. Both the findings of this study and those of other studies supported one

conclusion, though: the greater the achievement, the greater the risk of femininity conflict.

The majority of significant findings relative to autonomy and the achievement motive were based on internal demands to achieve in male dominated careers, even in the face of negative reinforcement. Veroff (1969) conducted research on the achievement motive and concluded that for boys the achievement motive was determined by internal standards, but that external support was the critical determiner for girls.

The study at hand looked at external influences both in terms of encouragement and discouragement. There were some differences between administrators and teachers, but they could hardly be considered noteworthy. First, a larger proportion of the administrators than teachers (15.6 percent vs. 10.1 percent) reported their family had discouraged their present career decision. Second, a larger proportion of teachers than administrators (9.5 percent vs. 4.2 percent) indicated their friends had discouraged their present career decision. Third, a larger proportion of teachers than administrators (19 percent vs. 14.7 percent) reported that professionals had discouraged their present career decision.

The results of the positive influence questions are similarly mixed. First, a larger proportion of the teachers than the administrators reported their family and friends had influenced their present career decision. A larger proportion of teachers than administrators indicated a female parent as a source of influence. However, a larger proportion of administrators than teachers indicated

a male outside the school system had influenced their present career decision. A larger proportion of the administrators than teachers, too, reported they were influenced by professionals in all categories, with the exception of two: A larger proportion of teachers than administrators reported they were influenced by female professors, and a larger proportion of teachers than administrators likewise reported they were influenced by female teachers.

The data point out no significant differences in regard to administrators and teachers on the issue of external influences, though some of the trends in the data were rather interesting. For example, administrators were more often influenced in a positive way by males. Teachers on the other hand, were more often guided and reinforced by other females. The data also suggest that external support from professionals was a correlate in the career choices of administrators and, conversely, that support from family and friends was not a correlate. This last finding supports the research of Bardwick (1971) who found that the more women saw the need to be independent, the less importance they placed on influences which complicated the achievement motive. Family and friends clearly pose an influence capable of complicating the achievement motive, professionals do not; as a group they would tend to reinforce the achievement motive and shape and support the administrators decisions with regard to it. Tangri (1972) corroborated Bardwick's findings and by inference those of this study when she studied the achievement needs of 200 women and found that the characteristics which most strongly differentiated women choosing male-dominated careers from

women choosing female-dominated careers were autonomy, individualism, and internal demands to perform to capacity.

Kagan and Moss (1962) reported that the personal value placed upon intellectual attainment was the only significant correlate of achievement activity for girls. In this study, a total of 73 percent of the administrators and 96.4 percent of the teachers had received the Master's degree, 11.3 percent of the administrators and 2.9 percent of the teachers had received the specialist degree, and 11.3 percent of the administrators and 0.7 percent of the teachers had received the doctoral degree.

The majority of both administrators and teachers reported the quality of their academic work at the college level was above average. A total of 39 or 27.7 percent of the administrators and 35 or 25.5 percent of the teachers reported the quality of their academic work was far above average. A larger proportion of teachers than administrators (16.1 percent vs. 9.2 percent) reported the quality of their academic work was average. The academic achievements results are not significant as they are roughly the same for the two groups.

In contrast, there were no significant differences between the administrators and teachers on conflict associated with a lack of self-esteem nor in the area of academic achievement. Some differences did exist in the role played by external influences associated with career choice and success. The most pronounced differences, however, occurred in the area of conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine."

5. There were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on a lack of female peer support. The findings showed that female peers were supportive of the career endeavors of both administrators and teachers.

The findings refute the work of Dellacana and Engel (1980), who surveyed a group of professional women in New York City and reported that because of the "deviant" status of these women, they felt marginal to or estranged from other women. The researchers offered two possible reasons for the estrangement: (1) their perception of success required over-conformity to the male professional model, and (2) their feelings of inadequacy and internal conflict resulting from rejection of the traditional female role model caused them to view themselves as special and unique. Hochschild (1962) also supported these conclusions. The data suggest and the writer concludes that the administrators in this study who persisted in achieving professional status were not ostracized by other women.

6. There were significant differences between administrators and teachers on an orderly pattern of career development. The findings show that the majority of teachers (91.2 percent) and administrators (89.4 percent) were between the ages of 18 and 22 at the time of their first appointment to a teaching position. The largest proportion of administrators (38.3 percent) and teachers (32.1 percent) reported 6 to 10 years of teaching experience. The total years of teaching experience for both administrators and teachers steadily declined after 11 to 15 years in the classroom. The administrators had apparently moved into administrative positions after this period

of time while the teachers had either not exceeded this period as yet or had moved on to other things. The largest proportion of the administrators (45.4 percent) were between 30 and 39 years of age at the time of their first appointment to an administrative position. The largest proportion of administrators (36.9 percent) had served in an administrative position from 6 to 10 years, while 29.1 percent had served in an administrative position from 11 to 15 years.

The idea that a low level of occupation was related to low career aspirations and commitment in women was researched by Kanter (1977), who suggested that the absence of women in previous "all male" work groups was a negative influence which caused low career commitment in women. The effects Kanter observed were not in evidence in this study. Fourteen of the teachers had served as administrators for a number of years, but at the time of this study were employed as teachers. A total of 66.7 percent of the administrators in this study were 40 years of age or older, in contrast to only 27 percent of the teachers. The number of teachers in all age groupings steadily declined after age 39, while the number of administrators steadily rose within this same age group. The data suggest that teachers of the hearing impaired abandon teaching careers after the age of 39. This finding supports the work of Corbett and Jensema (1981), who compiled a descriptive profile of teachers of the hearing impaired. Of the 4,887 teachers in their study, more than 50 percent of the female teachers were under the age of 30. Corbett and Jensema concluded that there had been a sudden influx of female teachers in

recent years who had decided to abandon teaching the hearing impaired as a permanent career, leading to the drop in age distribution after age 30.

There were significant differences between administrators and teachers on conflict associated with a lack of professional qualifications, conflict associated with a lack of motivation or interest, and conflict associated with a lack of career commitment. These findings support the work of Baruch (1967), who asserted that the need for achievement in women was associated with career persistence. Bardwick (1970) also observed that women who have a strong career commitment "have a feeling of independence, internalized criteria for esteem, and enough social alienation to be able to defer marriage until they have prepared themselves for their future vocations." She stated that "the crucial factor is the development of an independent self and an independent motive to achieve" (p. 3).

The data suggest and the writer concludes that a positive correlation exists between the administrators in this study and their commitment to a professional occupation. The data also suggest and the writer concludes that teachers of the hearing impaired abandon teaching careers after age 39 because of a lack of career commitment.

7. There were significant differences between administrators and teachers on dual role conflict associated with combining the role of worker and the traditional role of wife and mother. It should be noted that three of the variables on role conflict which showed significant differences between administrators and teachers pertained to work commitment. The findings from the data show that these

differences between administrators and teachers were on role conflict associated with a limited career commitment, role conflict associated with an unwillingness to take on added responsibility, role conflict associated with a lack of professional qualifications, role conflict associated with a lack of motivation or interest, role conflict associated with a lack of money, and role conflict associated with a fear of becoming "unfeminine."

The data show that administrators disagreed more strongly than teachers that a limited career commitment, a lack of motivation or interest, or an unwillingness to take on added responsibilities were associated with their experiencing dual role conflict. These findings reinforced previous research by Terborg (1977), who reviewed pertinent literature dealing with women and role related stress and suggested that inter-role conflict had a definite effect on women's work commitment and other positive affective outcomes pertaining to the job. These findings also supported the work of O'Leary (1974), who found that women who experienced role overload had lower-level occupational positions.

Although there were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on dual role conflict associated with family responsibilities or children, both administrators and teachers agreed that family responsibilities and children were associated with the greatest amount of role conflict. These findings are congruent with the Ginzberg (1966) study which showed that women's career activities were contingent on their husbands and children. Judith Bardwick (1971) stated that married women who pursued a career or profession

assumed the responsibility for two major demanding roles, and when they undertook both they were likely to be uncertain about whether they were doing either very well.

Previous research studies (Forisha, 1978; Hall and Gordon, 1973; Hudis, 1976; Steinmann, 1968) concluded that women had multiple role demands placed upon them by external forces such as husbands and families. The data suggest and the writer concludes that the administrators in this study were able to reconcile dual role conflict by combining the role of wife/mother with that of worker.

The findings for the administrators refute previous research by Garland and Paloma (1971), who interviewed 53 families in which the wife was a university professor, an attorney, or a physician and concluded that almost all these professional women placed motherhood above their careers, at the same time admitting that children created a great strain on their careers. These women did not want the demands, commitments, and responsibilities of a full career. The findings for the administrators in this study also refute previous longitudinal studies (Hoffman, 1963; Maas and Kuypers, 1974; Parnes and Jusenius, 1976) which showed that the constraints of marriage and children had strong negative effects on career patterns and career persistence.

A curious finding in this study was that teachers experienced role conflict associated with a lack of money. The writer can only infer from the data that perhaps the teachers were not committed to careers but worked outside the home because of the need for two incomes to maintain the household. The data suggest and the writer

concludes that even though dual role conflict placed burdens on the administrators in this study, a positive correlation existed between meshing family responsibilities with a firm career commitment, career persistence, and career success.

8. There were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on family situation and professional qualifications. The largest proportion of administrators (34.7 percent) and teachers (51.1 percent) who held Master's degrees had no children, and the largest number of administrators (12) and teachers (3) who held specialist and doctoral degrees had no children. The proportion of administrators and teachers who held Master's degrees was similar for 1, 2, and 3 or more children. The largest number of administrators (49) and teachers (70) had no children. Among those women who did have children, 1 or 2 children predominated. There were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on marital status and highest degree obtained. The findings for the administrators in this study are not congruent with the research of Hoffman (1963), who found that the constraints of marriage and children had negative effects on career patterns. The data suggest and the writer concludes that the professional qualifications of the administrators in this study were not limited because of the number of children or marital status of the respondents.

9. There were no significant differences between the administrators and teachers on commitment to uninterrupted careers, with the exception of interruptions caused by a lack of motivation. The

administrators disagreed more strongly than teachers that a lack of motivation had caused interruptions in their careers.

This finding together with some demographic data mirrors the findings of Corbett and Jensema (1981) who surveyed 4000 teachers of the hearing impaired. The largest number of teachers in this study were 30-39 years of age. According to Corbett and Jensema, more than 50 percent of their subjects were under the age of 30. They attributed this phenomenon to an influx of new teachers entering the field and to many women abandoning teaching after age 30, a move, they said, that led to a drop in age distribution. Could the observation made by teachers in this study regarding lack of motivation contribute to the abandonment of teaching by age 30? Perhaps there's a correlation. Unfortunately, the data necessary to verify a correlation is lacking in the present study.

10. Although the statistical analysis revealed significant differences between administrators and teachers on certain sub-issues of the question of whether sexual identity evolved before career identity (career identity here refers to the extent to which women view an occupation as central to their life and sexual identity refers to the extent to which women view their role as wife/mother as central to their life), this result is subject to interpretation.

To understand the results of the analysis, one must first understand the hypothesis. The notion that females did not conceptualize work as central to their lives and were not expected to derive self-esteem and identify from such a role was propounded by Bardwick (1970), who concluded that femininity was largely defined

by success in establishing and maintaining love relationships and by maternity. Oaxaca (1979) went one step farther, finding that family roles to a great extent shaped the career patterns of women. He spoke of "female-typed" jobs such as teaching, and hypothesized that jobs such as teaching offered scheduling advantages which could easily be combined with family responsibilities. Gimlin (1977) concluded, similarly, that women were attracted to elementary school teaching because teaching permitted them to coordinate their work with their children's activities.

For purposes of this study, it was assumed, based on the studies just quoted, that a woman choosing a teaching career would be one in whom sexual identity preceded career identity. Conversely, if a woman chose a career in educational administration, especially early on, this choice would probably be indicative of one in whom career identity preceded sexual identity. Of interest to the researcher, then, was the choice of career made by administrators and teachers and the age or point in life at which these choices were made.

The findings show that the largest proportion of the administrators (58.2 percent) and teachers (51.1 percent) made the initial decision to teach before entering college. Further, nearly half of this group of administrators (27.7 percent) and teachers (22.6 percent) made the initial decision to teach while still in grammar school. There were no significant differences between administrators and teachers on the sub-issue of the timing of their initial decision to enter teaching as a career.

However, there were significant differences between administrators and teachers on the timing of the initial decision to enter educational administration as a career. None of the 278 women in this study, it should be noted, considered educational administration as a career while in either grammar school or high school. Only 9 of the 278 women, in fact, initially considered educational administration as a career before graduate school. The majority of the 141 administrators (52.9 percent) did not initially consider educational administration as a career until they had finished graduate school. A total of 76 of the administrators initially considered educational administration as a career after graduate school, 35 made the initial decision during graduate school, and 4 made the initial decision during undergraduate school. But how does this compare with teachers? A total of 41 teachers in this study also initially considered educational administration as a career. Of these 41 teachers, 21 made the initial decision after graduate school, 15 made the initial decision during graduate school, and 5 made the initial decision during undergraduate school. The upshot of all this is this: a χ^2 analysis of the data revealed significant differences between administrators and teachers on the timing of their initial decision to enter educational administration, but this is misleading. A total of 92 teachers or 69.2 percent of the total indicated that they never considered educational administration, and, surprisingly, 25 of the educational administrators or 18.4 percent gave the same response. The χ^2 data were accurate in revealing a significant difference, but the result is of limited value reflecting as it does a limitation of the question

and the research design. The question is flawed because it asks the control group respondents to identify at what point they decided to enter a career they are not even in, thus presenting an internal inconsistency.

The only important statistic is one that has already been quoted: only 9 of the 278 women questioned initially considered educational administration as a career before graduate school, and more than half of those who did consider it did not do so until after graduate school.

In conclusion, despite statistical evidence to the contrary, there were no significant differences found between administrators and teachers on the which came first, sexual identity or career identity, question. This data suggest that both the administrators and teachers in this study first opted for their sexual identity, as evidenced by their initial preference for entering teaching as a career even before they entered college. Many, as was noted, made their initial decision to teach while still in grammar school. Reinforcing this finding is the obverse data on when administrators and teachers first decided to enter educational administration. Unfortunately, the response "after graduate school" was not broken down further on the questionnaire. Still the results found complement those of Hennig and Jardim (1977) who conducted research on women's attitudes toward work and found that women's ambivalence concerning marriage and careers caused them to make career decisions about the age of 30 to 33.

Limitations

For the sake of comparison a dichotomy was drawn between the teachers and administrators in this study. The dichotomy had to be made in order to facilitate a research design which utilized a target and a control group. The researcher recognizes the dichotomy represents a limitation of this study. An inference that was drawn from this study, on face value, was that the teachers were equally as qualified as the administrators and had served in their current positions for a five-year period, but had not moved into administrative roles. It was not the researcher's intention to imply that the teachers in this study were "unsuccessful" because they had not advanced to administrative positions. Moreover, the researcher recognizes that many teachers take great pride in what they do and do not aspire to administrative positions. Again, for the sake of the research design, the dichotomy had to be made.

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LIST OF REFERENCES

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

COVER LETTER MAILED TO PARTICIPANTS

COVER LETTER MAILED TO PARTICIPANTS



TENNESSEE SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF
and
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCE CENTER FOR THE HEARING IMPAIRED
P.O. Box 886
Knoxville, Tennessee 37901

Dear Colleague:

Have a coffee break on me! I am asking you and 350 other women administrators and teachers who work with the hearing impaired to participate in a national survey in order to obtain certain descriptive information about this population of female teachers and administrators. Your responses on the enclosed questionnaire are extremely important to the study's validity. The information will be used for statistical analysis only, and no individual person will be identified. Confidentiality of your answers is absolutely guaranteed.

I sincerely hope you will agree to participate. The more people who respond, the more accurate the information will be and ultimately, the more the study will benefit those of us who work with the hearing impaired. The questionnaire takes about 15 minutes to complete.

When this study is completed, a summary of the findings and recommendations will be mailed to you.

Please answer all questions to the best of your ability. Please fill out the questionnaire as soon as possible and no later than March 24, 1983. Return it directly to me in the attached self-addressed, postage paid envelope.

Sincerely,

Lana R. Doncaster
Supervisor of Curriculum
(Doctoral Candidate)

Doctoral Committee:

Dr. John Lovell
Dept. of Educational Administration
& Supervision
University of Tennessee

Dr. Charles H. Hargis
Dept. of Special Education
University of Tennessee

Dr. Dewey Stollar
Dept. of Educ. Administration
& Supervision
University of Tennessee

Dr. Michael Rush
Dept. of Industrial Management
University of Tennessee

APPENDIX B

FOLLOW-UP LETTER MAILED TO PARTICIPANTS

FOLLOW-UP LETTER MAILED TO PARTICIPANTS



TENNESSEE SCHOOL FOR THE DEAF
and
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCE CENTER FOR THE HEARING IMPAIRED
P.O. Box 886
Knoxville, Tennessee 37901

April 15, 1983

Dear Colleague:

Have another coffee break on me! Recently I asked you and 350 other women administrators and teachers who work with the hearing impaired to participate in a national survey in order to obtain certain descriptive information about this population of female teachers and administrators. Your responses on the enclosed questionnaire are extremely important to the study's validity. The information will be used for statistical analysis only, and no individual person will be identified. CONFIDENTIALITY of your answers is ABSOLUTELY GUARANTEED.

I sincerely hope you will agree to participate. I know you are extremely busy and perhaps overlooked the last questionnaire. The more people who respond, the more accurate the information will be and ultimately, the more the study will benefit those of us who work with the hearing impaired. The questionnaire takes about 15 minutes to complete.

Upon completion of this study, a summary of the findings and recommendations will be mailed to you.

Please answer all questions to the best of your ability. Please fill out the questionnaire as soon as possible and no later than April 25, 1983. Return it directly to me in the attached self-addressed, postage paid envelope.

Sincerely,

Lana R. Doncaster
Supervisor of Curriculum
(Doctoral Candidate)

Doctoral Committee:

Dr. John Lovell
Dept. of Educational Administration
& Supervision
University of Tennessee

Dr. Charles H. Hargis
Dept. of Special Education
University of Tennessee

Dr. Dewey Stollar
Dept. of Educ. Administration
& Supervision
University of Tennessee

Dr. Michael Rush
Dept. of Industrial Management
University of Tennessee

APPENDIX C

QUESTIONNAIRE

A STUDY OF FEMALE TEACHERS AND ADMINISTRATORS
OF THE HEARING IMPAIRED IN THE UNITED STATES

DIRECTIONS: This study is being conducted to obtain demographic information about female teachers and administrators in the education of the hearing impaired. YOUR ANSWERS WILL BE KEPT CONFIDENTIAL. The information will be used for statistical analysis only, and NO INDIVIDUAL PERSON WILL BE IDENTIFIED. Please answer all questions to the best of your ability.

Think back to the times you made important career considerations and decisions. Questions 1 - 4 focus on these considerations and decisions. For each question, check the one category that best describes your situation.

1. When did you **INITIALLY** consider teaching as a career?

☐ Grammar School	☐ High School	☐ College Freshman or Sophomore	☐ College Junior or Senior	☐ Graduate School	☐ After College	☐ Never Considered Teaching
---	--------------------------------------	--	---	--	--	--

2. When did you **INITIALLY** consider educational administration as a career?

☐ Grammar School	☐ High School	☐ College Freshman or Sophomore	☐ College Junior or Senior	☐ Graduate School	☐ After College	☐ Never Considered Educational Administration
---	--------------------------------------	--	---	--	--	--

3. When did you make the **FINAL DECISION** to become a teacher?

☐ Grammar School	☐ High School	☐ College Freshman or Sophomore	☐ College Junior or Senior	☐ Graduate School	☐ After College	☐ Never Considered Teaching
---	--------------------------------------	--	---	--	--	--

4. When did you make the **FINAL DECISION** to become an educational administrator?

☐ Grammar School	☐ High School	☐ College Freshman or Sophomore	☐ College Junior or Senior	☐ Graduate School	☐ After College	☐ Never Considered Educational Administration
---	--------------------------------------	--	---	--	--	--

Think back to your first job in education. Questions 5 - 8 focus on your first appointment to an educational position and the length of time you spent in this position. For each question, check the one category that best describes you.

5. How old were you when you were appointed to your **FIRST** teaching position?

☐ 18 - 29	☐ 30 - 39	☐ 40 - 49	☐ 50 - 59	☐ 60 - 69	☐ Have Never Taught
----------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	--

6. How old were you when you were appointed to your **FIRST** administrative position in education?

☐ 18 - 29	☐ 30 - 39	☐ 40 - 49	☐ 50 - 59	☐ 60 - 69	☐ Have Never Held Administrative Position
----------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	--

7. How many years have you served as a classroom teacher?

☐ 1 - 5	☐ 6 - 10	☐ 11 - 15	☐ 16 - 20	☐ 21 - 25	☐ 26 or more	☐ Have Never Taught
--------------------------------	---------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	-------------------------------------	--

8. How many years have you served as an educational administrator?

☐ 1 - 5	☐ 6 - 10	☐ 11 - 15	☐ 16 - 20	☐ 21 - 25	☐ 26 or more	☐ Have Never Held Administrative Position
--------------------------------	---------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	----------------------------------	-------------------------------------	--

Think back to those persons who had an influence on your career decisions. Questions 9 - 13 focus on persons who might have had an influence on your career.

9. WHICH PERSONS, excluding your present business contacts, INFLUENCED your present career decision the MOST? (Check the appropriate boxes to indicate if these persons were male or female).

M		F		M		F		M		F	
☐ Husband				College Professor	☐	☐			Other Administrator Within School System	☐	☐
☐ Children				Other Teacher	☐	☐					
☐ Boyfriend				Principal	☐	☐			Person Outside School System	☐	☐
Parent	☐	☐		Supervisor	☐	☐					
Friend	☐	☐		Superintendent	☐	☐			☐ Not Influenced		

10. WHICH PERSONS, excluding your present business contacts, DISCOURAGED your present career decision the MOST? (Check the appropriate boxes to indicate if these persons were male or female).

M		F		M		F		M		F	
☐ Husband				College Professor	☐	☐			Other Administrator Within School System	☐	☐
☐ Children				Other Teacher	☐	☐					
☐ Boyfriend				Principal	☐	☐			Person Outside School System	☐	☐
Parent	☐	☐		Supervisor	☐	☐					
Friend	☐	☐		Superintendent	☐	☐			☐ Not Discouraged		

11. WHO served as a ROLE MODEL for your present position? (Check ONLY ONE BOX to indicate if this person was a male or female).

	M	F		M	F
Parent	☐	☐	Principal	☐	☐
Other Teacher	☐	☐	Superintendent	☐	☐
College Professor	☐	☐	Other Administrator	☐	☐
Person Outside School System	☐	☐	Other	☐	☐
Supervisor	☐	☐	☐ No Role Model		

12. WHO acted as a MENTOR in your career? (Check ONLY ONE BOX to indicate if this person was a male or female).

	M	F		M	F
College Professor	☐	☐	Supervisor	☐	☐
Friend	☐	☐	Superintendent	☐	☐
Person Outside School System	☐	☐	Asst. Superintendent	☐	☐
Other Teacher	☐	☐	Other Administrator	☐	☐
School Board Member	☐	☐	Other	☐	☐
Principal	☐	☐	☐ No Mentor		

13. As a TEACHER, rate the amount of support you received from Female Peers.

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Very Supportive	Supportive	Indifferent	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Not Applicable

14. As an EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATOR, rate the amount of support you received from Female Peers.

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Very Supportive	Supportive	Indifferent	Unsupportive	Unsupportive	Not Applicable

Think about any conflict or stress you have experienced in the dual role of handling your responsibilities at work and at home. Below are some possible reasons for conflict or stress experienced in a working woman's dual role. Read each item and check the category that best describes your situation.

15. As a working woman, I have experienced conflict or stress caused by:

a. FAMILY RESPONSIBILITIES:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

b. CHILDREN:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

c. LACK OF PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

d. LACK OF MOTIVATION/INTEREST:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

e. LACK OF MONEY:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

f. LACK OF EXPERIENCE/OPPORTUNITY:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

g. LIMITED CAREER COMMITMENT:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

h. GAPS IN TECHNICAL KNOWLEDGE:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

i. LACK OF CONFIDENCE AND ATTITUDE TOWARD SELF:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

j. HIRING AND PROMOTION PRACTICES:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

k. LACK OF ADVANCED EDUCATION AND TRAINING:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

l. UNWILLINGNESS TO TAKE ON ADDED RESPONSIBILITY:

☐	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Strongly Agree	Agree	Neither Agree Nor Disagree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree	Not Applicable

m. LACK OF GENERAL MANAGEMENT SKILLS:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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n. LACK OF SUPPORT FROM FEMALE PEERS:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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o. FEAR OF BECOMING "UNFEMININE":

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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Think about any interruptions you may have had in your career. Below are possible reasons for these interruptions. Read each item and check the category that best describes your situation.

16. If there have been interruptions in your career, they were caused by:

a. BIRTH OF A CHILD:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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b. RETURNING TO SCHOOL:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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c. ILLNESS:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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d. LACK OF MOTIVATION:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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e. MARRIAGE:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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f. PRE-SCHOOL AGE CHILDREN:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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g. LACK OF AVAILABLE OR DEPENDABLE DAY CARE SERVICES:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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h. HUSBAND BEING TRANSFERRED:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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i. INDECISION:

☐ Strongly Agree	☐ Agree	☐ Neither Agree Nor Disagree	☐ Disagree	☐ Strongly Disagree	☐ Not Applicable
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Please answer the following items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item. This is a measure of personal belief. THERE ARE NO RIGHT OR WRONG ANSWERS. For each numbered question, check either a or b, whichever you choose as the statement most true.

In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Also, try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

17. I more strongly believe that:

1. ☐ a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck.
☐ b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make.
2. ☐ a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world.
☐ b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries.
3. ☐ a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense.
☐ b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings.
4. ☐ a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader.
☐ b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities.
5. ☐ a. No matter how hard you try, some people just don't like you.
☐ b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others.
6. ☐ a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen.
☐ b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action.
7. ☐ a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
☐ b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time.
8. ☐ a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work.
☐ b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow.
9. ☐ a. In my case, getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck.
☐ b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin.
10. ☐ a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first.
☐ b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it.
11. ☐ a. Most people don't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings.
☐ b. There really is no such thing as "luck."
12. ☐ a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you.
☐ b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are.
13. ☐ a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones.
☐ b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three.
14. ☐ a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me.
☐ b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life.
15. ☐ a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly.
☐ b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people; if they like you, they like you.
16. ☐ a. What happens to me is my own doing.
☐ b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking.

18. Your Age:
☐ 20 - 29
☐ 30 - 39
☐ 40 - 49
☐ 50 - 59
☐ 60 - over
19. Your Hearing Status:
☐ Deaf
☐ Hard of Hearing
☐ Hearing
20. Your Marital Status:
☐ Single
☐ Married
☐ Other
21. Number of Children:
☐ 0 ☐ 4
☐ 1 ☐ 5
☐ 2 ☐ 6
☐ 3 ☐ 7 or more
22. Your Current Job Status:
☐ Administrator
☐ Teacher
23. Your Current Position Title:
☐ Teacher
☐ Teacher/Supervisor
☐ Superintendent
☐ Assistant Superintendent
☐ Principal
☐ Supervisor
☐ Supervisor of Curriculum
☐ Director
☐ Director of Special Education
☐ Coordinator
☐ Consultant
☐ Department Head
☐ Administrator
☐ Other
24. Section of the Country Where You Presently Work:
☐ East
☐ Midwest
☐ South
☐ West
25. Your Highest Academic Degree Obtained:
☐ Certificate
☐ Bachelor (B.S., B.A.)
☐ Master (M.S., M.A.)
☐ Specialist (Ed.S.)
☐ Doctoral
26. Mother's Highest Educational Level:
☐ Grammar School
☐ 1 - 3 Years High School
☐ High School Graduate
☐ 1 - 3 Years College
☐ College Graduate
☐ Bachelor's Degree
☐ Master's Degree
☐ Specialist Degree
☐ Doctoral Degree
27. Which of the phrases below best describes the quality of your academic work at the college level?
☐ Far Above Average
☐ Above Average
☐ Average
☐ Somewhat Below Average
28. Mother's Occupation:
☐ Housewife ☐ Educator ☐ Manager
☐ Retired ☐ Salesperson ☐ Unemployed
☐ Clerical/Office Worker ☐ Serviceworker ☐ Other
☐ Machine Operator ☐ Professional

VITA

Lana Robeson Doncaster was born in Knoxville, Tennessee on December 1, 1944. She attended elementary school there and was graduated from Holston High School in June 1962. In 1964 she entered The University of Tennessee, Knoxville and in March 1968 she received a Bachelor of Science degree in Business Administration. After working from 1966 through 1970 at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville she taught a deaf class in the Chattanooga City School System for a year. In 1971 she joined the staff of Tennessee School for the Deaf and began study towards a Master's degree in Special Education at The University of Tennessee, Knoxville. This degree was awarded in March 1973.

Continuing on the staff of the Tennessee School for the Deaf, she reentered The Graduate School of The University of Tennessee, Knoxville in September 1978. She received the Doctor of Education degree with a major in Educational Administration and Supervision in December 1983.

Ms. Doncaster remains on the staff of the Tennessee School for the Deaf where she currently holds the position of Supervisor of Curriculum.

She is the mother of a thirteen year old child, Heather Rene Doncaster.