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Analysis of the role and characteristics of black female athletic administrators and their perceptions of job satisfaction at historically black colleges and universities

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ANALYSIS OF THE ROLE AND CHARACTERISTICS OF BLACK FEMALE
ATHLETIC ADMINISTRATORS AND THEIR PERCEPTIONS OF JOB
SATISFACTION AT HISTORICALLY BLACK COLLEGES AND UNIVERSITIES

Iowa State University

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Analysis of the role and characteristics of
black female athletic administrators
and their perceptions of job satisfaction
at historically black colleges and universities

by

Vivian L. Fuller

A Dissertation Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of the
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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

The purpose of this study was to examine how black female athletic administrators perceived their roles in athletic administration, and to investigate and identify characteristics related to job satisfaction of these women at historically black colleges and universities. As of 1984, a review of literature revealed no identifiable information about black women in athletic administration. Research in this area is important because of the continual changes in women's athletics, athletic administration and the changing roles of women in society. Women are being accepted more by society in leadership positions. Women, like athletics, are in a state of transition and this study will examine one segment of women in leadership positions.

Title IX, the Education Amendment Act of 1972, marked the beginning of large changes in women's athletics. This act required institutions to offer comparable athletic programs for men and women. In addition, compliance with Title IX included the addition of a women's athletic director to a majority of colleges and universities across the country. Title IX was designed to effect equality for women's sports (Bloomcamp, 1980).

The implementation of Title IX created opportunities for leadership positions in women's athletic programs. As with the expansion of women's athletic programs, there was

a demand for women to govern their own sporting events. These programs were growing in colleges and universities and there was a need for development of policies and guidelines to govern them (Bloomcamp, 1980). Because of this growth, a career path evolved for women in athletic administration. Administrative positions had been created for women to provide specific direction to new and expanding programs. Many women had assumed leadership positions in athletics with minimum experience and learned their responsibilities while on the job (Bloomcamp, 1980).

Naturally, these changes in women's athletics were occurring in both black and white colleges and universities. Traditionally, black colleges and universities have had a unique mission of educating blacks to assume leadership positions in society. These institutions serve as a motivational force for black youth, many of whom choose to enter black colleges and universities by obtaining scholarships in athletic programs. Athletic scholarships provided black female athletes the opportunity to assume leadership positions in administration after completion of their collegiate sports careers.

Information regarding the role and characteristics of black women athletic administrators is needed because it will (1) give instruction and guidance to the increasing number of black women aspiring to administrative positions in athletics,

(2) aid black women currently in athletic administration, and
(3) assist colleges and universities preparing black women administrators.

This study was concerned primarily with those colleges founded for Negroes that still had a predominantly black enrollment in 1984. These 105 colleges include 53 private and 32 public four-year colleges and 4 public and 16 private two-year colleges. For black public colleges in 1984, the range was from Southern University's 9,501 students and Elizabeth City State College's 1,486, Kolberg (1984). In private four-year colleges, enrollment ranged from Virginia Seminary College's 30 to Tuskegee Institute's 3,440 students. In 1984, the average enrollment for private colleges founded for Negroes was 1,977. Four-year colleges for blacks enrolled 213,302 students, whereas two-year private colleges enrolled 3,367 students (Grant and Synder, 1984).

The mission of historically black colleges and universities has been to prepare black students for service and leadership in American society (Hedgepeth, 1978). These institutions adhered to the universal mission of developing traits of adaptability, self-confidence, initiative, self-discipline, and leadership (Stewart, 1979). Predominantly black colleges and universities served as a motivational force for black youth by providing a socio-cultural milieu in which black role models were present in various capaci-

ties to provide the catalyst for academic success. These institutions served black youth who otherwise may not have had the opportunity to attend college. Butler (1975) stated that black colleges served youth with high ability and less preparation for college, as well as students from low income and disadvantaged families. These institutions were an avenue for obtaining occupational, economic, and social goals, while their faculties served as models for emulation. The Carnegie Commission (1971) reported that black colleges founded by Negroes were a source of hope to black families who wanted the benefit of higher learning for their children. These colleges initiated leadership in developing both academic and social educational opportunities for young blacks, and especially in the South, they are still regarded as key institutions for enhancing the general quality of life for black Americans.

Between the 1890s and 1955, a period when the legally sanctioned "separate but equal" doctrine kept black Americans out of many colleges with predominantly white enrollment, especially in the South, colleges founded for Negroes provided all but a small portion of the higher education available to them; in 1947, between 80 and 90 percent of all Negroes who graduated from colleges received their education from black institutions in Southern states (Bowles & DeCosta, 1971).

The Carnegie Commission (1971) reported that black colleges founded by Negroes had a unique mission. It was unique because these institutions served as centers for intellectual leadership and knowledge that would strengthen the Negro community as it adjusted to new levels of competition and equality. These institutions served as centers for the development of some measure of institutional strength in the black communities of the South (Browning and Williams, 1975). In this role, black colleges could (1) assume leadership in outreach programs of consultation and service to the black community, (2) develop and expand programs of education and occupational retraining for blacks, (3) assume leadership in the development of techniques for overcoming handicaps of the educationally disadvantaged, and (4) stimulate the interest of black youth in higher education.

Summary

The results of this study would increase the amount of information available about black women in athletic administration and their perception of job satisfaction at historically black colleges and universities. The mission of these institutions was to develop self-confidence, initiative, self-discipline, and leadership. The institutions served as a motivational force that enabled many black women to achieve academic success. Black females were able to

identify with faculties who served as models for emulation. Black women who attended these institutions also assumed the leadership roles of education other black youth. These women were able to serve as role models for others aspiring to positions in athletic administration.

As of 1984, the research in the area of black females in athletic administration was limited. Additional research would assist black female athletic administrators in examining their own roles and characteristics related to job satisfaction. With this knowledge, black women would have an increased awareness of job characteristics in athletic administration.

Statement of the Problem

Numerous studeies have addressed the problems that women and minorities face in higher education. However, as of 1984, information about black women in athletic administration was not identifiable. The purpose of this study was to investigate and identify characteristics of black women in athletic administration and their perception of job satisfaction at historically black colleges and universities, in relation to their institutional duties and responsibilities. The results obtained from this study will provide information about job satisfaction of black women in athletic administration, and gauge the degree to which institutional

factors affect whether these women will continue to work at black colleges and universities.

The target population identified in this study was black female athletic administrators at historically black colleges and universities. These administrators were identified by using the National Collegiate Athletic Association Directory, which listed colleges and universities that had female athletic programs. From this directory, a listing of black colleges and universities with female athletic programs were tested. The statistical analyses used in this study were chi-square, ANOVA and t-test. Chi-square was used to analyze data in categories or dichotomies rather than continuous scores or ranks. Chi-square was used to analyze data such as advanced degrees attained, type of institutions attended, major of degrees, divisions or conferences, athletic duties and career aspirations.

The t-test was used to analyze data that pertained to formal academic training, and the sex of the athletic director. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) was used to analyze data regarding parents' educational level, size of athletic staff, years participating in athletics, job satisfaction, age groups and salaries of administrators.

Objectives of this Study

1. To determine how black female athletic

administrators perceive job satisfaction at black colleges and universities;

2. To examine the perceptions of black female athletic administrator's and their attitudes toward job satisfaction at black colleges and universities;
3. To determine administrative positions held by black female athletic administrators within the organizational structure of athletic programs at black colleges and universities;
4. To determine ultimate career aspirations of black female athletic administrators at historically black colleges and universities;
5. To determine short-term career aspirations of women in athletic administration related to job satisfaction at black colleges and universities.

Within the department of athletics, the expectations, roles and functions of women in athletic administration are uniquely different because of the amount of time involved in athletics. These administrators are expected to coach and manage their own athletic programs for a specific sport. Women in these positions may be viewed as counselors, models for emulation, administrators or as an individual with a variety of roles. Additional factors such type of training and types of degrees may also enhance the different roles that may vary within an athletic department.

For the purpose of this study, a sample of female administrators was needed to gain an accurate picture of women in athletic administration. Women as well as athletic administrators reacted to their environment according to how they perceive their work environment, whether positive or supportive if the conditions presented in the environment meet their needs (Kuk, 1981). If individual needs are being met, they are productive and supportive of their work environment. In order to determine an accurate perception of job satisfaction and the work environment, the researcher has selected the following hypotheses to be tested.

Hypotheses to be Tested

The following hypotheses were tested in this study related to job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators at historically black colleges and universities.

Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to the following educational characteristics.

- a. mother's educational level
- b. father's educational level
- c. advanced degrees attained
- d. type of institution attended

- e. major of degree
- f. additional formal academic training

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to the following organizational characteristics.

- a. sex of director
- b. size of staff
- c. division or conference
- d. athletic duties

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their involvement in athletics as manifested by

- a. years of participation in athletics
- b. coaching experiences

Hypothesis Four

There is no significant differences in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to age group.

Hypothesis Five

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to short-term career aspirations.

Hypothesis Six

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their present salaries.

Hypothesis Seven

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their perception of their own influence in the decision-making process at present institutions.

The purpose of the hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis One was tested to determine if educational characteristics enhance how athletic administrators felt about their jobs. Such characteristics included: parent's educational level, advanced degrees attained, major of degree, and additional formal academic training.

Hypothesis Two was tested to examine the level of job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators that pertained to organizational characteristics, such as sex of

director, size of staff, division or conference, and athletic duties.

Hypothesis Three was tested to compare levels of job satisfaction among these administrators, in terms of years involved in athletics and athletic duties.

Hypothesis Four was tested to determine if there was a significant difference in job satisfaction that related to the age of the respondents.

Hypothesis Five was tested to determine if there was a significant difference in job satisfaction and how it related to short-term career aspirations.

Hypothesis Six was tested to determine if there was a significance related to job satisfaction and the current salaries of these administrators.

Hypothesis Seven was tested to determine if there was a significant difference as it relates to black female administrators' perception of their influence in the decision-making process at their present institutions.

The foregoing hypotheses were tested to investigate how female athletic administrators perceived job satisfaction at black colleges and universities. This information will educate women already in the field of athletic administration, colleges and universities preparing women, and women aspiring to careers in athletic administration at historically black colleges and universities.

Limitation of Study

The study was initially limited to black female athletic administrators. Subsequently, it was determined that some respondents were males, and as a result, comparisons were made between male and female athletic administrators on specific variables.

Definitions

Historically black colleges are institutions that were founded primarily for blacks. These are institutions serving or identified with service to black Americans for at least two decades, with most being 50 to 100 years old (National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities, 1980, p. 13).

Black female administrators include Afro-American women who were designated as holding administrative positions in their respective institutions as female athletic administration (Thomas, 1976).

Job satisfaction is a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences, Locke (1976).

The words "Negro" and "black" are used synonymously throughout this research report, reflecting popular usage during the time period under consideration.

CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

A review of literature was conducted to identify information regarding the role of black women in athletic administration and their perceptions of job satisfaction. Two computer bibliographic data base systems were used: (1) Library Automated Retrieval Services (LARS), and (2) Education Resource Information Center (ERIC). These data base systems were used to identify specific information related to black females in athletic administration. Dissertation Abstract Index (DAI) was searched manually to locate dissertation research that was conducted in relation to black women in athletic administration.

The following descriptors were used throughout the review: (1) black colleges and universities, (2) black women administrators, (3) black women in sports or athletics, and (4) athletic administration. After the articles, research papers, and books containing any of these descriptors had been identified, the materials were reviewed to find information pertinent to the research topic. Two computer bibliographic data bases were used: (1) Iowa State University's Library Automated Retrieval Service (LARS) was used to conduct a general search to locate information that contained the descriptors previously mentioned. LARS located 6,300 articles that mentioned at least one of the words "black", "athletics", "sports", or "colleges and

universities"; (2) Education Resource Information Center (ERIC). ERIC is a data base system, which identified more specifically the information about black women in athletics at black colleges and universities. The topic was minimized by interchanging the descriptors of black women, women, athletics, sports, colleges and universities to obtain articles pertaining to the topic. One thousand three hundred pertinent articles were located using this approach.

Upon completion of the computerized searches, Dissertation Abstract Index (DAI) was searched. The same descriptors were used, except that "Physical Education" was added to identify research in that area on women in administration. DAI is an index of dissertations that have been published at major colleges and universities located in North America. DAI lists dissertations dating from the middle 1800s to 1983. The researcher reviewed research that was conducted between 1974 and 1984.

In order to examine the roles and characteristics of black women in athletic administration at historically black colleges and universities, it was necessary first to understand the origin of black colleges and universities. With this understanding, it was then possible to examine black women in leadership roles, and their perceptions of job

satisfaction in athletic administration within these institutions. These three areas combined provided the background information for this study which examined the roles and characteristics of black women in athletic administration and their perception of job satisfaction at historically black colleges and universities.

Origin and Function of Black Colleges

Origin of Historically Black Colleges and Universities

The mission of historically black colleges and universities in America had been to educate blacks for service (e.g., teaching and extension), with the goal of training for leadership in a complex technological society, Hedgepeth (1978). Black colleges, with relatively small student bodies, therefore tended to be institutions oriented toward teaching, where student-teacher interaction was more common than at larger institutions. Black institutions prepared students who would provide services to their immediate communities. Mays (1978), in his study of the images of black colleges, found a strong emphasis on the service part of the institutional mission, because these colleges saw the community as an extension of the university. Mays indicated that open admissions and minimum costs were among the ways colleges responded to community needs.

Founded by benevolent societies such as the American

Missionary Association, black colleges trained their students for educational and religious leadership, as well as for agricultural and industrial pursuits. Organized attempts by missionary groups to provide education for blacks in the South began prior to the Civil War. Missionary groups during the pre-Civil War period took the first step toward a system of schools and colleges for blacks (Davis, 1938; Holmes, 1934).

The missionary groups were sent to the South to integrate with black communities for religious purposes. Slowly these groups started to mix social, economic and religious ideas in their dedication to the task of uplifting the freed men and women. There was consensus among these missionary groups that someone needed to demonstrate that former slaves could be remade into an ideal of a Yankee, Calvinist, American citizen. Their common goal was to save the souls, educate the minds, care for the bodies and prepare freed men and women for their responsibilities as new citizens of the South.

Prior to the Civil War, the black population was located in southern or border regions, where laws and strictly enforced social mores prohibited blacks from being taught to read and write. But in the North, at least two colleges for blacks existed, and in many northern states, blacks were permitted to attend white colleges in small numbers.

Lincoln University in Pennsylvania (1854) and Wilberforce University in Ohio (1856) were the first colleges for blacks, Holmes (1934). These institutions taught blacks the basic skills such as reading and writing and also trained them to be missionaries and teachers, Jencks & Riesman (1967); Holmes (1934).

Several religious societies sent missionaries into the South with the goal of helping the freed slaves through religious education and programs of physical assistance. The American Missionary Association organized seven black colleges by 1861 and thirteen normal schools between 1861 and 1870, as shown in Table 1, Carnegie Commission (1971).

The Freedman's Bureau, established in 1865, was an agency of the United States government charged with facilitating the reconstruction of the South after the Civil War. Its main function was to provide for the welfare of the former slaves. Perhaps its greatest single contribution was its support of education. The Freedman's Bureau helped pay for hundreds of schools for blacks staffed with teachers furnished by northern religious and benevolent organizations, Hedgepeth (1978). By the turn of the century, throughout the South, other missionary agencies and the Freedman's Bureau was promoting similar education programs for blacks.

The American Missionary Association was a non-denominational society whose mission was to improve human relations, primarily by providing educational opportunities

Table 1. Private four-year colleges and universities founded for Negroes in the United States, 1969

Location	Institution	Year founded ^a	Support and control ^b
<u>Alabama</u>			
Birmingham	Daniel Payne College	1889	AME
Birmingham	Miles College	1902	CME
Huntsville	Oakwood College	1896	SDA
Tuscaloosa	Stillman College	1876	Preb. U.S.
Talladega	Talladega College	1867	AMA-Ind.
Tuskegee	Tuskegee Institute	1881	Independent
<u>Arkansas</u>			
Little Rock	Arkansas Baptist College	1884	NBC
Little Rock	Philander Smith College	1877	Methodist
<u>District of Columbia</u>			
Washington	Howard University	1867	Independent
<u>Florida</u>			
Daytona Beach	Bethune-Cookman College	1904	Methodist
Jacksonville	Edward Waters College	1883	AME
Miami	Florida Memorial College	1892	ABC
<u>Georgia</u>			
Atlanta	Atlanta University	1865	Independent
Atlanta	Clark College	1869	Methodist
Atlanta	Interdenominational Theological Center	1958	Independent
Atlanta	Morehouse College	1867	Independent
Atlanta	Morris Brown College	1881	AME
Augusta	Paine College	1881	Methodist and CME
Atlanta	Spelman College	1881	Independent

^aThe year of founding for several institutions is the year of founding of their progenitors.

^bCME=Christian Methodist Episcopal, SDA=Seventh Day Adventist, MBC=Methodist, AMA=American Missionary Association, Preb. U.S.=Presbyterian, AMA-Ind.=American Missionary Association-Independent, NBC=Northern Baptist Convention, AME=African Methodist Episcopal, ABC=Baptist, RC=Roman Catholic, UCMS=United Church, AMEZ=African Methodist Episcopal Zion, SBC=State Baptist Convention.

Table 1. (continued)

Location	Institution	Year founded ^a	Support and control ^b
<u>Kentucky</u>			
Louisville	Simmons University	1879	NBC
<u>Louisiana</u>			
New Orleans	Dillard University	1868	Independent
New Orleans	Xavier University	1925	RC
<u>Mississippi</u>			
Holly Springs	Mississippi Industrial College	1905	CME
Holly Springs	Rust College	1866	Methodist
Tougaloo	Tougaloo College	1869	AMA and UCMS
<u>North Carolina</u>			
Concord	Barber-Scotia College	1867	Presbyterian
Greensboro	Bennett College	1873	Methodist
Charlotte	Johnson C. Smith University	1867	Presbyterian
Salisbury	Livingstone College	1879	AMEZ
Raleigh	Saint Augustine's College	1867	Prot. Episcopal
Raleigh	Shaw University	1865	ABC
<u>Ohio</u>			
Wilberforce	Wilberforce University	1856	AME
<u>Pennsylvania</u>			
Lincoln University	Lincoln University	1854	Independent
<u>South Carolina</u>			
Columbia	Allen University	1870	AME
Columbia	Benedict College	1870	ABC
Orangeburg	Claflin College	1869	Methodist
Sumter	Morris College	1905	SBC
Denmark	Voorhees College	1897	Prot. Episcopal
<u>Tennessee</u>			
Nashville	Fisk University	1866	Independent
Knoxville	Knoxville College	1875	United Presb.
Jackson	Lane College	1882	CME
Memphis	LeMoyne-Owen College	1870	AMA
Nashville	Meharry Medical College	1876	Independent

Table 1. (continued)

Location	Institution	Year founded ^a	Support and control ^b
<u>Texas</u>			
Dallas	Bishop College	1881	ABC
Austin	Huston-Tillotson College	1877	Methodist and United Church of Christ
Hawkins	Jarvis-Christian College	1912	Disc. of Christ
Waco	Paul Quinn College	1872	AME
Tyler	Texas College	1894	CME
Marshall	Wiley College	1873	Methodist
<u>Virginia</u>			
Hampton	Hampton Institute	1868	Independent
Lawrenceville	St. Paul's College	1888	Prot. Episcopal
Lynchburg	Virginia Seminary and College	1888	Baptist
Richmond	Virginia Union University	1865	ABC

for members of minority groups. It helped establish ten predominantly black institutions, six of which are still in existence. The American Missionary Association and the Freedman's Bureau were actively involved in providing funds to educate blacks.

There were other organizations that influenced and supported the education of blacks following the Civil War. These were the Peabody Fund, Society of Friends, the American Baptist Home Missionary Society, Board of Freedman's Mission of the United Presbyterian Church, Division of Mission for Colored People of the Presbyterian Church in USA, Board of Lutheran Evangelical Syndical Conference in North America, Board of Education of Methodist Episcopal Church, and the Miner Fund (Davis, 1938; Holmes, 1934). These organizations paid teachers' salaries and provided funds for maintenance of facilities.

The Peabody Fund is an example of how these organizations assisted black institutions. Established in 1867, it gave major attention to the establishment of a permanent system of public education in the South for Blacks. It gave scholarships to students whose college education prepared them for teaching, and it donated \$350,000 to be used for the industrial and scientific education of blacks in the country's training schools (Bowles & DeCosta, 1971).

During the Civil War, a total of 18 colleges of a philanthropic and missionary nature were established. Most of

these institutions were still in existence in 1984, supported by existing church-related organizations.

After the Civil War, black colleges and universities were established to conform with the guidelines of federal legislation. The Morrill Act of 1862 was passed which provided for agricultural and mechanical art colleges in all states. The Morrill Act of 1862 did not provide for the division of federal funds. Funds received were used for the development of white institutions from which blacks were excluded. Because blacks were being excluded Congress pushed for an amendment of the first Morrill Act. On August 30, 1890, Congress passed the Second Morrill Act, specifying that land-grant funds be equitably divided where separate schools for two races were maintained. States with a significant black population opened separate institutions. The Morrill Acts extended to southern states the opportunity to found colleges based upon the industrial model of education for blacks as well as for whites. These institutions were often developed by changing normal (teacher-training) schools into agricultural and industry-oriented schools, so that each institution could receive federal support (Jencks & Riesman, 1967; Anderson, 1976). The impetus behind both acts was the need to increase the country's productivity in agriculture and farm goods and to educate the rural population as the country extended westward (Willie & Edmonds, 1978).

The Morrill Act of 1862 provided for agriculture and mechanical arts colleges in all states. One provision of the Act was, "There is to be granted to the several states the amount of public land, to be apportioned to each state a quantity equal to thirty thousand acres." The Morrill Act of 1862 did not provide for divisions of federal funds. Funds received were used for development of white institutions from which blacks were excluded. Because blacks were being excluded from white institutions that were receiving federal funds, Congress pushed for an amendment of the first Morrill Act. On August 30, 1890, Congress passed the Second Morrill Act, specifying that the land-grant funds be equitably divided where separate schools for the two races were maintained (Davis, 1938; Holmes, 1934; James, 1910).

After the Civil War and before the Second Morrill Act was passed, three states (Mississippi, Virginia, and South Carolina) set aside a portion of the funds intended for support of land-grant institutions to serve their black populations. Each state with a significant black population chose to open an institution for the black population. These institutions (in Mississippi, Virginia, and South Carolina) were developed by changing normal, or teacher-training, schools into agriculture and industrial-oriented institutions so they would be eligible for federal funds (Jencks & Riesman, 1967; Anderson, 1976).

In 1871, the State of Mississippi received \$1,888,928

for its scrip under the first Morrill Act. It gave three-fifths of this amount to Alcorn University. In 1972, Virginia sold its scrip for \$285,000. After much debate, the legislature decided to grant one-half of the income from this sale to Hampton Institute. The third state to establish a black land-grant college was South Carolina. In 1872, the scrip granted to the State by the federal government was sold for \$191,800. The legislature granted the income of this fund to Claflin University (Davis, 1938).

Other institutions came into existence as a result of the Morrill Act of 1890. The State of Georgia gave one-third of its funds to Georgia State College, the first land-grant institution under this Act. In 1892, the State of West Virginia gave one-third of its funds to West Virginia State College. In 1894, the State of North Carolina gave one-third of its funds to North Carolina State College. A total of 17 separate land-grant institutions were established for blacks. As of 1984, all institutions were still in existence.

Function of Historically Black Colleges and Universities

The mission of historically black colleges and universities had been to prepare black students to function successfully in the black community and society in general (Crayton, 1980). These colleges and universities were a formal source of education for blacks who aspired to learn.

These institutions adhered to the universal mission of developing traits of adaptability, self-confidence, initiative, self-discipline, and leadership, Stewart (1979). A study by Crayton (1980) indicated that the manner in which black institutions achieved leadership made their mission unique. The uniqueness of their mission was its emphasis on preparing black students to function in dual leadership roles within society--black and non-black. As opportunities became available to blacks to participate in white communities, black students were also exposed to skills and attitudes necessary for their participation in either a predominantly white culture or an integrated one.

The National Advisory Committee on Black Higher Education and Black Colleges and Universities (1980) reported that these colleges not only served intellectual needs of students, but more significantly, functioned as an inspiration and creative energy for appreciating and preserving the heritage of a double culture which contributes to the richness of the "interwoven tapestry" of American society.

The role of historically black colleges and universities had been preparing black youth for service and leadership in society, Hedgepeth (1978). These institutions served as a motivational force for black youth by providing a socio-cultural milieu where black role models were present in various capacities to provide a catalyst for academic success. The motivation suggested was manifested in two

ways. First, there was socio-cultural environment found at these schools that was apparently not found at non-black schools. Bowles and DeCosta (1971) reported that historically black colleges and universities reinforced their identities. These identities were reinforced by exposure to blacks in leadership positions during the often difficult period of life when an adolescent becomes an adult and is in need of support. Second, these institutions were seen as occupational, economic, and social goals, while their faculties served as role models.

These institutions served black youth who might not otherwise have had the opportunity to attend college. Butler (1975) stated that the black college educated youth with high ability and less preparation for college, as well as students from low-income and disadvantaged families. An analysis of the Council on Education's (1978) most recent survey of freshman students indicated that the median family income of students at all non-black colleges and universities was \$11,000, while at colleges founded by Negroes, the median family income was only \$7,300. As mentioned above, colleges founded by Negroes historically have rendered service to students from low-income families and about 38 percent of their entering freshmen in 1968 came from families with less than \$4,000 annual income.

Low family resources not only impeded or postponed the entry of many black students into institutions of higher

education but also restricted their choice of college to one close to home with low student fees and living expenses. The Carnegie Commission (1971) reported that colleges founded for Negroes were a source of hope to black families who wanted the benefit of higher education for their children. Although parents had little education themselves, they often extended encouragement and support to their children who entered higher education.

Only 13 percent of the 1964 graduates of black colleges came from families in which both parents had either attended or finished college, and the parents of a high percentage of these 1964 graduates had no education beyond the eighth-grade level (Bayer & Boruch, 1969). Mays (1978) findings pertaining to the dual role of black colleges and universities, supported the notion that these institutions helped to motivate black students to "aim high and aspire nobly."

Jaffe (1968), in a study of ethnic education, reported that "three quarters of blacks entering historically black colleges and universities were in the top half of their high school classes." Three quarters of the students were in the bottom half of the national (all white plus non-white students) test score distributions. Jaffe concluded that the secondary education of many of these students was of poor quality. Many black colleges have traditionally accepted students regardless of their socio-economic status

and their varying high school records (Thompson, 1978). These institutions originated open admission in the belief that every black youth should have the opportunity to develop his or her talents for service in the community and in the nation. Because of the low socio-economic background of black colleges' students and their students' limited exposure to higher education, the faculties of black colleges dedicated themselves to a highly personalized approach to teaching (Hedgepeth et al., 1978).

Bowles and DeCosta (1971) indicated that the historically black colleges and universities were able to accept poorly prepared students into college programs, concentrate on their needs, and in time graduate them into professional roles within the black community or into permanent positions with a reasonable future in the white community. While predominantly black institutions serve youth, they also play a significant role in the community. As a symbol of self-determination and leadership, the predominantly black community can be exposed to cultural events such as opera, classical music, drama, and lectures by well-known personalities (Willie & Edmonds, 1978). In addition, these institutions serve as a source of employment for the surrounding communities (Gurin & Epps, 1975; Henderson, 1970).

These institutions were founded to serve a minority who were economically poorer than the American majority. One

finding of the Carnegie Commission (1971) supported this notion; they reported, "Colleges founded for Negroes historically rendered service to students of low-income families."

Mays (1978) suggested that students and faculties of these colleges and universities, being both close to the black poor and members of a suppressed minority, would be more likely to press for change. These institutions were seen as a means for obtaining occupational, economic, and social goals, while their faculties served as models for emulation.

Black colleges and universities had fewer economic resources: they served low-income students and also received lesser amounts from government and other resources than did non-black institutions (Mays, 1978). The findings of the Carnegie Commission (1971) were that colleges founded for Negroes tended to be of the general liberal arts variety, with courses leading ultimately to such occupations as teaching and secretarial work, and a few professional and technical fields.

Although these institutions historically have been troubled by unstable financial bases, relatively poor facilities, and competition from white institutions for students and faculty, as of 1981 they still produced 50% of the black graduates who received baccalaureate degrees (Smith, 1981). The proportion of college-age blacks attending institutions of higher education has increased

since the early 1900s. According to the Census Bureau, 12 percent of the young black adults eighteen to twenty-four years of age were enrolled in college in 1975. In the past 20 years, these colleges have produced a quarter of a million graduates and continue to produce 30,000 graduates per year. Black colleges and universities "are accepting the challenges of educating both the valedictorians and the rejected with equal concerns," Smith (1981).

Black colleges and universities have a unique mission in promoting the growth and development of black youth. Black colleges provide black youth the opportunity for educational success. These institutions were created to develop leadership for emancipation and involvement of blacks in American society.

With this understanding of the origin and function of historically black colleges and universities, an understanding of black women in leadership roles was needed in order to assess job satisfaction among black women in athletic administration.

Black Women

Black Women in Leadership Roles

According to (Sheftall, 1982), the history of higher education for black women has been grossly ignored by those documenting the history of education for women in America, despite increased interest during the past decade in a

number of topics relating to women, including women in education. The history of black women's contributions to education in general remains to be written, despite the numerous primary and secondary sources available in 1982. Although the majority of black women have been educated in co-educational institutions, single-sex colleges for black women (all of which have been located in the South) have provided them with unique educational experiences. Since it is more economical for blacks to educate men and women together, and because of a limited amount of resources for the establishment of black institutions after the Emancipation, single-sex institutions were not typical in the black community.

Bennett College was founded by Lyman Bennett as a co-educational school in 1873 in the basement of St. Matthews Methodist Episcopal Church in Greensboro, North Carolina. It became a college for women in 1926, mainly as a result of the Women's Home Missionary Society's desire to increase its educational programs for women. Spelman, founded in 1881 by Sophia Packard and Harnet Giles, in the basement of the Friendship Baptist Church in Atlanta, Georgia, has always been for women only. Barber-Scotia and Tillotson were initially for women but later became co-educational. The education of black women in leadership roles was a priority of these institutions, as evidenced by their acceptance of the training of teachers as their earliest mission.

These institutions believed that black women needed to be nurtured in an environment that stressed the importance of black women serving their communities and the nation. Many of the graduates of Spelman and Bennett College have assumed leadership roles. They include Selena Sloan Butler, who established and founded the National Congress for Colored Parents and Teachers; Dwelle Rooks, founder of Dwelle Infirmary, and Obstetrical Hospital in Atlanta, which was the first of its kind for black women in the South; and Dr. Eleanor Ison Franklin, the first woman to obtain a top-level administration position at Howard University School of Medicine (Sheftall, 1982).

Colleges founded by women were willing to place women in administrative positions, yet, black female college presidents were scarce. It was not until the mid-seventies that a woman became a dean of a college at Bennett or Spelman, even though females constituted over half the faculty. Two historically black co-educational colleges have been headed by black women--Bethune-Cookman (founded by Mary Bethune, who was President from 1930-1942) and Frelinghuysen University of Washington, D. C. (where Anne J. Cooper was President from 1930-1941). In 1955, Dr. Willa Player was the first black woman to become president of a black college for women. In the mid-seventies, women assumed leadership roles in athletics because of the implementation of the Educational Amendment Act of 1973 (Title IX required the

provision of equal opportunities in athletics for women.)

Assuming leadership roles is not a new phenomenon for black women in the United States. Swann and Witty (1980) reported that black women were required to enter the world of work out of economic needs rather than a need for self-fulfillment. Smith's (1981) findings on educational, career, and psychological development of black female adolescents indicated that black female adolescents grew up realizing that they would assume the dual role of mother and worker when they entered adulthood. This realization was based on three factors: (1) economic need and their perceptions of future economic needs, (2) their historical exposure to female work role models in the home, (3) the relative egalitarian relationship between the sexes within the black race (Pettigrew, 1964; Billingsley, 1968; Turner & Turner, 1975). A black female adolescent may be affected by a number of influences, including family background, socio-economic status, role models, and the extent to which she incorporated the values of both mainstream and black culture.

Approximately 30% of the black households in the United States are headed by women (Price, 1969; Hill, 1971). Although this figure is nearly three times as great for blacks as it is for whites, female-headed households are still a minority for blacks. Although 70% of black households were not headed by women, the popular conception of

the female-headed household, with its assumed pathology, persisted as a stereotype of the black family even in 1970, (Kriesberg, 1970). Two distinct perspectives of the black female household head were popularly portrayed: (1) she was a dominant matriarch who assumed responsibilities for managing and maintaining the family; (2) she was characterized as the strength of the black family, functioning well in the difficult circumstances in which she had to act as a homemaker and child rearer and in assuming the leadership role of the household (Heroz & Sudia, 1970; Hill, (1971).

According to Bock (1969), black parents had higher educational and career aspirations for their daughters than for their sons. A study regarding the black matriarchy stereotype and parental influences of black educational and career achievement was conducted by Heaston (1975). He found that the majority of women responded that they had been influenced to continue their education or pursue their professional aspirations by their mothers.

Black Women in Higher Education

In 1973, Catherine Ferguson, an ex-slave who purchased her freedom, opened the Cathy Ferguson School for the Poor in New York, with 48 children, and became the first known black female teacher and administrator, Lerner (1972). The first black woman to receive a college degree, Mary Jane

Patterson, attended a co-educational institution, Oberlin College, and graduated in 1862. (Oberlin College was not a black college nor located in a southern state.) Since that time, black women have been providing education for black and white people, even though historical references offer little information about their role. Theodore (1971) stated that insufficient information was available about black professionals in general, and specifically, even less was known about black female professionals. Swann and Witty, (1980) indicated that although there have been studies of women in academe since the 1970s, very little empirical data were available on the status, problems, and prospects of either these women or black women who aspired to leadership positions.

To assume that the situation for black women is the same as it is for white women is to overlook the research that indicates that black women started their work roles as young adolescents (Smith, 1981). Black women held dual roles in the households, and took on the same responsibilities as the man. Although black women experienced the difficulties of institutional sexism faced by white women, black women seemed not to experience certain psychological barriers to the extent they were experienced by white women, (Swann & Witty, 1980). Black women were both competent and secure in dealing with men as equals, because they had been working precariously for so long (Harris, 1974).

Even though there are black women in positions of leadership, they are not highly visible, because of the small number. In 1973, Carroll described the status of black women when she offered her opinion that "no calculator is necessary to count the number of black women holding positions in the NAACP, Urban League, black colleges, and minorities programs in institutions of higher education." Where these women were found, they tended to be at lower salaries and waited longer for promotions when compared to men and other minority groups.

The study had identified the origin and function of black colleges and universities. It has identified the uniqueness of their mission and how it relates to the black women in society. Examining job satisfaction among women in leadership positions will analyze relationships between selected characteristics and perceived work satisfaction.

Job Satisfaction Among Women

Since the Civil Rights Act of 1964 made it unlawful to discriminate on the basis of sex in public institutions and private organizations involved in interstate trade or which received federal funds, the concept of equal opportunity for women has been a significant issue in our society. In 1979, more than half of all American women aged 18-64 were employed outside the home, and this percentage was expected to increase in the future. Yet, women remained in the lower

paying, less skilled areas of employment ("The Earning Gap between Women and Men," 1979). Lack of education and training were the key components that kept women in low-level jobs, even though federal educational programs had offered occupational training for women.

In the 1950s, two different reviews of literature on job satisfaction were conducted. The first was by Brayfield and Crockett (1955), and the second was by Herzberg, Mausner, Peterson and Capwell (1957). Brayfield and Crockett (1955) concluded that there was no relationship between job satisfaction and performance. Herzberg et al. (1957) concluded that there was a systematic relationship between job satisfaction and certain work behavior, as well as between dissatisfaction and other work behavior. Herzberg's conclusions have been more widely accepted and have resulted in a proliferation of research in the area of job satisfaction.

The review of Herzberg et al. (1957) concluded that males tended to be more satisfied than females with employment. Hulin and Smith (1964) reported men to be generally more satisfied than women with their work environment. Factors to consider is Hulin's and Smith's study investigates predominantly a white population. In this study, race was not discussed as it relates to job satisfaction. Manhardt (1972), however, concluded from a study of male and female college graduates who joined Prudential Insurance that there were differences in the importance of various job

characteristics. Some of the findings were (1) long-range career objectives are significantly more important for men than for women; (2) comfortable working conditions and interpersonal relationships were significantly more important for women than for men; (3) there were no differences between men and women concerning the importance of factors such as autonomy. Hulin and Smith (1964) concluded that sex was not a critical variable that led to high and low job satisfaction; rather, it was those variables which were related to sex, such as pay, job level, promotion opportunities, and societal expectations, that actually created the differences.

Studies of job satisfaction among women academic administrators in higher education, Reeves (1975), Haren (1975), Soldwedel (1977), Handley and Sedlacek (1977) revealed information regarding women in traditional female fields. Women have traditionally held leadership positions in women's physical education departments. Until the last decade, men and women's physical education departments were two separate entities. Reeves (1975) interviewed 96 women academic administrators, all in traditionally female areas (e.g., allied health and social work). Of the total population, 70 women were single. Two-thirds had experienced upward mobility. Sixty-five percent were not working in their original career choice, 5 percent were working at lower levels than they had planned, and approximately one third were working at a higher level than they

had expected. More than 70 percent of the married women, but only 56 percent of the single women, were satisfied with their jobs. All women with master's degrees were very satisfied, while those with baccalaureates and more than half of those with doctorates were dissatisfied.

A study by Handley and Sedlacek (1977) supported the theory that job dissatisfaction is related to perceptions of sex bias in the work environment. All groups in the study perceived sex bias in their work environments, but professionals perceived it more intensely, especially related to the opportunity for advancement. The findings supported the premise that there are differences among various subcategories of women regarding their perceptions of opportunity and environmental variables.

Reif, Newstrom and Monezha (1975), in a study of perceived differences between male and female managers regarding formal and informal aspects of work organizations, found results that supported women's roles as managers. A questionnaire was administered to 286 men and 55 women who participated in a management development program. These individuals represented 164 organizations in government and business. Formal aspects included in the study were organizational objectives, authority, policies, performance appraisal, supervisor controls, chain of command, and job description: while the informal aspects included personal influence, voluntary teamwork, group cohesion, social group

membership, grapevine, co-worker evaluation, social interaction, and cliques.

Formal organizational concepts were perceived by both men and women to be more valuable and more influential than informal concepts. Men viewed the formal organization as being more valuable in satisfying needs and more influential in affecting behavior. Women did not make such a distinction between formal and informal organization. Women viewed influence, social group membership, and co-worker evaluation as more valuable in satisfying needs. This result is consistent with other research which supported the position that women place high value on interpersonal relations, McClelland (1964), Hoffman (1974), Rossi (1973), Coldenwood et al. (1973), Ellman (1978). Reif et al. (1975) concluded that men and women managers are actually more similar in their feelings about organizational climates, both groups believing their environment to be supportive and satisfying. The differences that did exist supported the probability that women will function well as managers.

Richardson (1974), in a study comparing women who are career pioneers (women who were the first of their sex in a given career) with women who have selected more traditional female careers, found that career pioneers were more interested in the intrinsic aspects of their anticipated careers-- challenge and opportunity. Women in traditional occupations were more interested in extrinsic factors, such as pay and

working conditions. These results suggested that women in non-traditional fields had work needs that were more like those of their male counterparts than those of traditional career-oriented women.

In 1976, a survey of National Association of Women Deans, Administrators, and Counselors (NAWDAC) membership was conducted, with 1,259 responses, Soldwedel (1977) purpose of the study was to provide a profile of the organization's membership. Although membership was not limited to women in higher education, the results provided a profile of a population which includes Student Affairs-higher education administrators (87 percent of total NAWDAC membership). Forty-four percent of the NAWDAC survey respondents indicated that they were satisfied with their present job, 35 percent were very satisfied, 16 percent were ambivalent, and five percent were dissatisfied. Although the results of the survey provided descriptive information, they also presented a description of the way in which women in student personnel perceived their work environments. The research is limited by the lack of comparative data, but it represents a profile that is fairly consistent with other research on women administrators.

Kanter (1978) concluded that job satisfaction is narrow and time-restricted. Job satisfaction studies traditionally have centered on the evaluation of one's own job in a time-limited focus, and they did not relate satisfaction to the

larger organizational structure. In her book, Men and Women in Corporation (1972), Kanter explored the interrelationships and dynamics of three variables of human behavior at Indsco, a multinational corporation. The variables used in the study were opportunity, specific groups in organization, and power. According to Kanter, the structure of opportunity, power, and relative numbers of specific groups in the organization are the three variables that form the basis of an integrated structure model of human behavior in organizations. She related the effects of these variables to current situations in which men and minorities found themselves in such organizations. The model was developed from research within an industrial setting; it was readily applicable to educational administration settings, Kanter (1978).

Opportunity was defined as the expectations, future prospects for growth, and mobility within a particular organization or profession. Kuk (1981) reported that although it is defined only partly in terms of advancement or promotion, opportunity also involved challenges and increased influence, skill, and pay. Because of the nature of hierarchical organizations, of which higher education is an example, opportunity is structured through paths and tracks. In higher education institutions, these paths are structured, and it is possible to move from one position to another. It is difficult for individuals to have a sense of growth, challenge, more pay, influence, and mobility without somehow

climbing the professional ladder. Jobs can be viewed as having opportunities depending upon their growth prospects.

Murningham, Wheatley and Kanter (1978) surveyed 400 female academic administrators and found that these women perceived their career progress in terms of institutional opportunity. Kuk (1981) reported that the presence or lack of opportunity had an impact on behavior and attitude. Women and men who visualize only imperceptible opportunities for advancement tend to limit their aspirations. Therefore, aspiration is influenced by the individual's perception of his or her organization or profession.

Epstein (1974) stated that stress coming from role and value conflicts were major factors in the career progress of women. As women moved into the work force, the societal and biological demands on them as wives and mothers remained very consistent. Kuk (1981) stated that women's careers were often interrupted by marriage and family. Ginzberg (1966) also found that women often modified their career objectives in order to give precedence to their husbands' careers. Pope (1979) observed a relationship between marriage and administrative career mobility among women. Regardless of their marital status, women planned their careers later than their male counterparts, Harmon (1970) Hennings and Jordin (1977).

Kuk (1981) stated that another factor contributing to male and female career choices was the need for working with people and the need for affiliation. See's research (1977) supported the idea that this need may be related to other aspects of interpersonal relationships, such as marital status. A vast majority of women in careers have tended to be single, while their male counterparts were married; this variable may have been more closely related to the social factors present in our social structure than to a psychological deficiency in women.

Summary

Although a review of literature indicated there was information on black women in leadership roles, black women in higher education, and women's perception of job satisfaction, there was limited information available about black women in athletic administration and their perceptions of job satisfaction.

Black colleges assumed the responsibility of educating youth from low-income families. In 1973, black families median income was \$7,300 and black parents were instructing their children to attend colleges near home to accommodate living expenses. Even though parents were instructing their children to attend a black college or university, Bayer and Boruch (1969) indicated that only 13% of these youth had educated parents. Jaffe's study of ethnic education reported

that only three-fourths of blacks attending college were in the top half of their high school class. When comparisons were done between blacks and whites attending college, blacks scored in the bottom half of their class on test scores nationally, Thompson (1978).

Because of the low socio-economic background of students attending black colleges and universities, the faculties of these institutions dedicated themselves to a highly personalized approach to teaching. Black colleges accepted students and concentrated on their needs, and worked toward preparing them to function in society. Students and faculties of these institutions, as indicated by Mays (1978), would be more likely to press for changes within institutions.

The contributions of black colleges and black women remain to be written. Black women entered the world of work out of economic necessity. Even though both parents were working to maintain a household, they had higher career aspirations for their daughters than sons, Bock (1969). Black women started their work roles as young adolescents. They assumed the responsibilities of taking care of younger family members while maintaining domestic responsibilities. Black women were competent and secure in dealing with men as co-equal reports Harris (1974), because these women had dual roles in households and the same responsibilities as men. To enter the world of work was not an issue for these women because of the early age they entered the working force as young

adolescents.

In 1979, more than half of all American women age 18-64 were employed outside the home, and women remained in the lower paying, less skilled area of employment. A study conducted by Hulin and Smith (1964) concluded men to be generally more satisfied than women. However, Manhardt (1972) reported that satisfaction varied by specific type of job held by men and women. Several studies conducted by Reeves (1975), Haren (1975), Soldwedel (1977), and Handley and Sedlacek (1977) pertained to job satisfaction of women revealed that two-thirds had experienced upward mobility. Five percent were at lower levels than planned, seventy percent were married and satisfied with job, fifty-six percent were single and satisfied, women with master's degrees were satisfied, while women with baccalaureates and Ph.D. degrees were dissatisfied. Job dissatisfaction is also related to perceptions of sex bias in the work environment, Handley and Sedlacek (1977).

Women made no distinction between organizational concepts as being influential when it pertained to formal and informal organizations. They did view influence, social group membership, and co-worker evaluation as more apparent in satisfying needs indicated Reif, Newstrom and Monezha (1975). Career pioneers (women who were the first of their sex in given career) were more interested in intrinsic aspects of work while traditional women were more interested in pay and working conditions. According to Murningham, Wheatley and Kanter

(1978) female administrators' career opportunity was defined as institutional opportunity. As women are mainstreamed into the world of work, their roles and values conflict with the role of wives versus worker. Another factor contributing to female career choices was the need to work with people and need for affiliation (See, 1977 Kuk, 1981).

Even though achievement needs and work interest of women in non-traditional careers may be more similar to men than they are to traditional women, there seems to be some personal dynamics between personal and environmental factors and their effect on the career aspirations and job satisfaction of women.

CHAPTER III. METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study was to examine how black female athletic administrators perceived their roles in athletic administration and to investigate and identify characteristics related to job satisfaction fo these women at historically black colleges and universities.

Construction and Administration of Questionnaire

A questionnaire was constructed because the area of black women in athletic administration was relatively new, and more information needed to be obtained. Existing instruments constructed would not answer the researcher's question on job satisfaction of these administrators.

The section on job satisfaction was developed by constructing an eighteen-item rating scale. Specific questions were designed to find out how these women felt about their current employment. A Likert type scale was used for the section called "Attitude Toward Current Employment" -- which was question 39 in the questionnaire. The highest rating was five (strongly agree) and one being the lowest rating (strongly disagree). The researcher compiled a list of 27 topics that were related to job responsibilities.

A sample questionnaire developed by the College of Education Committee on Women at Iowa State University was also used. It was used as a guide for information about types of

questions that were being asked of women related to job satisfaction. This questionnaire was used because it was directly related to job satisfaction among women employed at Iowa State University and had been recently developed. The researcher used this questionnaire as a guide and adapted the questions for the 27 topics related to women in athletic administration. The questionnaire was used to survey black female athletic administrators about their attitudes toward their jobs.

The variables selected for the questionnaires related to information obtained in the review of literature such as employment satisfaction. Based on the list of items that were used to develop the questionnaire, the questionnaire was developed in five sections. The questionnaire consisted of 44 items divided into 5 categories: (1) demographic information--information about the respondent such as age, racial or ethnic identification, marital status, background information about family, and colleges degrees attained; (2) athletic information--information about respondent's participation in elementary school, junior high school, high school and college sports; awards received, coaching experience; (3) professional experience--information about respondent's salary, title of supervisor, sex of athletic director, years in athletic administration, athletic conference, division, men's and women's athletic scholarships additional academic preparation,

duties; (4) attitude toward current employment--information that identified how respondents felt about their employment: Likert type rating scale was employed, respondents were asked to respond by circling a number that would indicate their perceptions of job satisfaction (specific words were used, such as "I am," "I feel," which would allow the respondent to respond according to their own feelings); (5) future plans--professional plans within the next five years (e.g., "If you left your current job, what would be the reason?"), level of university administration, type of institution, and ultimate career aspirations.

The questionnaire was developed by using as a guide D. Dillman's, Mail and Telephone Surveys: The Total Design Method (1978). This provided information on methods of making the instrument attractive to the respondents, words to avoid that would be insulting to the respondent, and how to conduct telephone interviews that would be done as a follow-up.

The questionnaire was printed on 8½" x 11" buff-colored paper. Dillman (1978) suggested that any color but white be used, because subjects would be more likely to pay attention to colors that did not blend with desk paperwork. Added to the cover was a picture based on Leonardo da Vinci's "Well-Proportioned Man"--which was altered to give "The Proportional Woman in Sports" (see Appendix). This was an attempt to

attract the subjects' attention, so that they would return the questionnaire.

Materials from the 1978-80 census report were reviewed to identify the method by which the Census Bureau collected background information on parents, salary scales, and years of education attained by families. The categories on parents' education were adapted for this study by dividing them into elementary, high school and college, in order to obtain more specific information pertaining to educational accomplishments.

Most research on job satisfaction has been conducted in the private sector such as business and industry. It is believed that job satisfaction can be related to different types of working environments even the university setting. The instrument used can serve as a model for colleges and universities (Muchinsky, 1983).

A pilot study was conducted with a group of administrators at ISU because there was no population of black female athletic administrators at ISU that could be surveyed. The pilot study provided the researcher with ideas, approaches and clues not thought of prior to the pilot study such as, if questions were clear, approximation of how long it would take administrators to complete the instrument, sentence structure, coding procedures and if instrument actually measured what researcher wanted.

To accompany the questionnaire, a cover letter was written that held both the major professor's and researcher's signatures. Before it was mailed to prospective black colleges and universities, the questionnaire was presented to and provided by the Human Subjects Committee at Iowa State University. This committee examines all research procedures and materials that involve people, and attempts to identify research that might be harmful to subjects.

A total of 300 questionnaires were printed for the first and second mailings. Prior to the second mailing, a 5½" x 3½" post card was sent as a reminder and to inform subjects that a second mailing would be sent out in one week. This was done in an attempt to increase the response rate. A telephone interview was conducted two weeks after the second mailing, to further increase the response rate from the subjects.

Questionnaires were mailed to all black colleges and universities that were recognized as historically black colleges that had women's athletic programs. This information was obtained from the Dictionary of American Colleges with Black Heritage, which gave a listing of all historically black institutions. The National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) was contacted to identify black colleges and universities that had women's athletic programs listed in The National Directory of College Athletics (Women's

Edition). Questionnaires were mailed to all black colleges and universities listed in the directory. They were addressed to black colleges and university administrators who held the position of women's athletic directors. The names of both male and female athletic directors were listed in the publication.

Statistical Analysis

Three statistical methods were used to analyze data regarding black female athletic administrators. These methods were (1) t-test, (2) analysis of variance, and (3) chi-square. The t-test was used to measure the difference between two means: the t-test makes three assumptions: (1) scores from an interval or ratio scale, (2) scores in the population under study are normally distributed, and (3) score variances for populations under study are equal. The t-test was used to analyze information about additional formal academic training of the respondent and information regarding sex of athletic director.

The analysis of variance (ANOVA) is an inferential technique used with many applications. Hinkle et al. (1979) states that it is used to determine whether three or more means are significantly different from one another. ANOVA yields an F-value, which if statistically significant, would allow the conclusion that the samples are likely to be drawn from different populations. ANOVA was used to analyze

data regarding educational level of the mothers and fathers of black female administrators, size of athletic staff, years participating in athletics, job satisfaction and different age groups, and female athletic director's salaries.

Chi square was used to analyze data that was in the form of categories or dichotomies rather than continuous scores or ranks. The chi-square statistic provides a measure of the discrepancy between expected and obtained frequencies. Although the chi-square test is conducted in terms of frequencies, it is best viewed conceptually as a test of proportions. To conduct the test, the researcher must generate expected frequencies, and these are obtained for each category by multiplying the proportion hypothesized to characterize that category in the population size. The chi-square statistic was used to analyze data dealing with advanced degrees attained, type of institution attended, major of degrees, division or conference, athletic duties, coaching experiences, and career aspirations.

All hypotheses were tested at a .05 level of significance. The dependent variable tested was job satisfaction and the independent variables were other characteristics such as, athletic duties, sex of director, educational background, etc.

Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to the following educational characteristics.

- a. mother's educational level
- b. father's educational level
- c. advanced degrees attained
- d. type of institution attended
- e. major of degree
- f. additional formal academic training

The needed information about job satisfaction was obtained from Question 39 of the questionnaire. Scheffe' technique was used as a follow-up method. The test was recommended when there was a significant F-ratio and when there was both equal and unequal group sizes. The test was used to determine which means differ significantly after a significant F-ratio had been found.

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to the following organizational characteristics.

- a. sex of director
- b. size of staff
- c. division or conference
- d. athletic duties

Statistical procedures used to test these findings were t-test, ANOVA, and chi-square. This information was obtained from Questions 29, 30, 31 and 37.

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their involvement in athletics as manifested by

- a. years of participation in athletics
- b. coaching experience

Statistical procedures used to test these findings were chi-square and ANOVA. This information was found in Questions 21 and 22.

Hypothesis Four

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to age group. The t-test was used to test this hypothesis and the needed information came from Question 1.

Hypothesis Five

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their perceptions of short-term career aspirations. The statistical procedure used to analyze data was chi-square. These questions were found in Section E of the questionnaire.

Hypothesis Six

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their present salaries. The statistical procedure used to analyze information was an ANOVA. Information was found in Question 27.

Hypothesis Seven

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their perception of their influence in the decision-making process at present institution. Statistical analysis used to test this hypothesis was an ANOVA and information needed came from Question 30.

Summary

Results of this study examined how female athletic administrators perceived job satisfaction at black colleges and universities. A questionnaire was developed to obtain

specific information about these women and various statistical analyses were used depending on information that was obtained from the respondents.

CHAPTER IV. RESEARCH FINDINGS AND ANALYSIS

Introduction

The purpose of this study was to examine how black female athletic administrators perceived their roles in athletic administration and to investigate and identify characteristics of these women related to job satisfaction at historically black colleges and universities. In March 1984, questionnaires were mailed to 105 black colleges and universities throughout the United States. Sixty-four questionnaires were received, giving a response rate of sixty-one percent. Of the sixty-four questionnaires received, forty-nine were from females and fifteen were from males. Frequencies were calculated for both male and female athletic directors, after it was discovered that some men held the position of women's athletic director.

West Virginia State indicated that because its enrollment is eighty percent non-black, it is not considered an all-black institution. Friendship Junior College reported that because of financial problems, the institution decided to forfeit its athletic department, and it will not continue providing these athletic services. These two questionnaires were not included in the study.

Description of Respondents

The respondents ranged in age from 23 to 63, with the majority (53%) being younger than 40 years of age.

Approximately half (53%) were married, with a significant majority (97%) being black Americans. These results appear in Tables 2, 3, and 4.

The majority (58%) of the respondents came from families where the mothers had at least one year of high school education. Their fathers' education varied, with the largest percentage (27%) having a high school education and 16% having completed at least one year of college (see Tables 5 and 6).

In relation to advanced degrees attained, most of the respondents (91%) had a master's degree, while 86% had a bachelor's degree, and 16% had a doctoral degree (Table 7).

Over three-fourths of the respondents had majors in physical education for both their bachelor's and master's degrees. Eight percent of the respondents majored in higher education administration for the doctoral degree. Less than two percent majored in chemistry, sociology, and psychology (Tables 8 and 9).

The majority of the respondents (86%) had attended a black college or university, while thirteen percent attended a non-black college or university (Table 10).

A majority of respondents (70%) indicated coaching experience prior to present job. Thirty percent indicated no coaching experience prior to present job (Table 11). Approximately 53% of respondents had less than ten years of involvement in athletic administration. Forty-two percent

Table 2. Age of female and male athletic administrators at historically black colleges and universities

Age Groups	Number	Percent
23-29	10	15.8
30-39	24	37.6
40-49	15	23.5
50-59	14	21.9
60-69	1	1.2
Total	64	100.0

Table 3. Marital status of female and male athletic administrators

Marital Status	Number	Percent
Single	22	34.4
Married	34	53.1
Divorced	3	4.7
Separated	5	7.8
Total	64	100.0

Table 4. Ethnic background of female and male athletic administrators

Ethnic Background	Number	Percent
Black	62	96.9
Caucasian	2	3.1
Total	64	100.0

Table 5. Mothers' educational level of female and male athletic administrators

Educational Levels	Number	Percent
Elementary	12	18.8
High School	37	57.8
College	15	23.4
Total	64	100.0

Table 6. Father's educational level of female and male athletic administrators

Educational Levels	Number	Percent
Elementary	18	28.1
High School	27	42.2
College	17	26.5
No Response	2	****
Total	64	100.0

Table 7. Advanced degrees obtained by female and male athletic administrators

Degree	Frequency	Percent
BACHELORS		
Physical Education	54	84.4
Non-Physical Education	9	14.1
No Response	1	****
Total	64	100.0
MASTER'S		
Physical Education	57	89.1
Non-Physical Education	6	9.4
No Response	1	****
Total	64	100.0
DOCTORAL		
Physical Education	11	17.2
Non-Physical Education	52	81.3
No Response	1	****
Total	64	100.0

Table 8. Majors of Bachelor's degree of female and male athletic administrators

Major	Number	Percent
Health and Physical Education	48	75.0
Guidance and Counseling	1	1.9
Physical Sciences	2	3.8
Social Sciences	2	3.8
Not applicable	8	****
No Response	3	****
Total	64	100.0

Table 9. Majors of Master's degree of female and male athletic administrators

Major	Number	Percent
Health and Physical Education	48	87.3
Guidance and Counseling	3	5.5
Physical Sciences	1	1.8
Social Sciences	2	3.6
Higher Education Administration	1	1.8
Not Applicable	6	****
No Response	3	****
Total	64	100.0

Table 10. Type of college or university attended by female and male athletic administrators

College	Number	Percent
Black	55	87.3
Non-Black	8	12.7
No Response	1	****
Total	64	100.0

Table 11. Prior coaching experience of female and male athletic administrators

Prior Experience	Number	Percent
Experience	45	70.3
No Experience	19	29.7

indicated more than ten years involvement in athletic administration (Table 12).

A majority (70%) obtained jobs in athletic administration before the age of 30. Thirty percent obtained a job after the age of thirty (Table 13). In terms of salary, seventy-five percent of respondents earned less than \$30,999 dollars a year, whereas twenty percent of respondent's salaries ranged from \$31,000 to \$45,999 (Table 14).

Hypotheses--Statistical Findings

Hypothesis One

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to (a) mother's educational level, (b) father's educational level, (c) advanced degrees attained, (d) type of institution attended, (e) major of degree, and (f) additional formal academic training.

Mother's Educational Level

There was no significant difference at the .05 level of significance in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators whose mothers had an elementary education, those whose mothers had a high school education, and those whose mothers had a college education (Table 14).

Father's Educational Level

There was a significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators whose fathers

Table 12. Years of involvement in athletic administration of female and male athletic administrators

Years of Experience	Number	Percent
1-19	34	55.7
10-23	27	44.3
No Response	3	****
Total	64	100.0

Table 13. Age at which jobs were obtained by female and male athletic administrators

Age Job Obtained	Number	Percent
21-29	42	70.0
30-39	10	16.2
40-49	7	12.8
50-59	1	1.0
No Response	4	****
Total	64	100.0

had an elementary education, those whose fathers had a high school education, and those whose fathers had a college education. A follow-up test employing the Scheffé test technique indicated that administrators whose fathers had a college education were significantly more satisfied with their current position than were those whose fathers had only an elementary education (Table 15).

Advanced Degrees Attained

There was no significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators with bachelor's degrees and those with master's degrees. The majority of the administrators with both bachelor's and master's degrees were satisfied with their current positions. Approximately 67% of the administrators with bachelor's degrees were satisfied, and approximately 65% with master's degrees were satisfied (Table 16).

Type of Institution Attended

No significant difference was found in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who attended predominantly black colleges and universities and those who attended non-black colleges and universities (Table 17).

Major of Degree (Bachelor's)

There was no significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who majored in

Table 14. One-way analysis of variance of job satisfaction among male athletic administrators whose mothers had an elementary, high school or college education

Source	Number	Job Satisfaction Mean	F Ratio
Elementary	6	3.57	1.08
High School	29	3.54	
College	12	3.78	

Table 15. One-way analysis of variance of job satisfaction among female athletic administrators whose fathers had an elementary, high school or college education

Source	Number	Job Satisfaction Mean	F Ratio
Elementary	14	3.43	3.46*
High School	18	3.58	
College	14	3.87	

* Significant at .05 level

Table 16. Distribution of job satisfaction by degree of female athletic administrators

Job Satisfaction	Bachelors Number (Percent)	Masters Number (Percent)	Total
Dissatisfied and Neutral	1 (33.3)	13 (35.1)	14 (35.0)
Satisfied	2 (66.7)	24 (64.9)	26 (65.0)
Total	3 (100.0)	37 (100.0)	40 (100.0)
Chi-square = 0.00			

Table 17. Distribution of job satisfaction of female athletic administrators by college

Job Satisfaction	Black Number (Percent)	Non-Black Number (Percent)	Total
Dissatisfied	9 (23.1)	2 (50.0)	11 (25.6)
Neutral	8 (20.5)	1 (25.0)	9 (20.9)
Satisfied	22 (56.4)	1 (25.0)	23 (53.5)
Total	39 (100)	4 (100)	43 (100)
Chi-square = 1.73			

physical education and those who majored in other academic areas (Table 18).

Major of Degree (Master's)

There was no significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who majored in physical education and those who majored in other academic areas (Table 19).

Additional Formal Academic Training

Additional formal academic preparation was acquired by individuals who had taken courses leading toward a graduate degree (master's or doctorate) or had taken courses but not toward a specific degree, for example, some type of certification. Other categories included individuals who had not taken courses leading toward a graduate degree.

There was no significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who have had additional academic preparation and those who have not had additional academic preparation (Table 20).

Results of Hypothesis One indicated that all variables concerning black female athletic administrators were not related to job satisfaction except the father's educational level. Female athletic administrators whose fathers had attained a college education tended to be more satisfied with their current employment.

Table 18. Distribution of job satisfaction of female by major of bachelor's degree

Job Satisfaction	Physical Education (Percent)	Non-Physical Education (Percent)	Total
Dissatisfied and Neutral	12 (34.3)	2 (50.0)	14 (35.9)
Satisfied	23 (65.7)	2 (50.0)	25 (64.1)
Total	35 (100)	4 (100)	39 (100)
Chi-Square = 0.00			

Table 19. Distribution of job satisfaction of female athletic administrators by major of master's degree

Job Satisfaction	Physical Education (Percent)	Non-Physical Education (Percent)	Total
Dissatisfied and Neutral	13 (36.1)	3 (50.0)	16 (38.1)
Satisfied	23 (63.9)	3 (50.0)	26 (61.9)
Total	36 (100)	6 (100)	42 (100)
Chi-Square = 0.00			

Tabel 20. Analysis of job satisfaction of female athletic administrators by additional academic preparation

Additional Academic Preparation	Number	Job Satisfaction Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value
Yes	22	3.53	0.46	0.75
No	23	3.64	0.49	

Table 21. Analysis of job satisfaction of female athletic administrators by sex of athletic director

Sex	Number	Job Satisfaction Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value
Male	41	3.60	0.48	0.46
Female	4	3.49	0.44	

Hypothesis Two

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to organizational characteristics such as (a) sex of director, (b) size of staff, (c) division or conference, and (d) athletic duties.

Sex of Director

There was no significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators whose immediate supervisors were male and those whose immediate supervisors were female (Table 21).

Size of Staff

A staff consisting of ten or fewer members was considered small, eleven through twenty was considered medium, and twenty-one and above, large.

There was a significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators with small staffs, those with medium staffs, and those with large staffs. Administrators with large staffs were significantly more satisfied with their current employment than those administrators with small staffs as indicated by the Scheffé technique. No differences between any other pair of means of job satisfaction were found (Table 22).

The Scheffé test located a difference in job satisfaction between those athletic administrators with a staff of

less than ten individuals and those with a staff consisting of twenty-one or more. The latter athletic administrators tended to be more satisfied with their jobs.

Division or Conference

Comparisons were made in terms of the athletic administrators in division and conference to detect differences if any, in the job satisfaction of female athletic administrators.

There was no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators in Divisions I, II, and III. Division I consisted of colleges or universities with membership in National Collegiate Athletic Association--Division I. Division II consisted of colleges and universities with membership in National Collegiate Athletic Association--Division II. Division III consisted of colleges and universities with membership in National Collegiate Athletic Association--Division III and respective divisions of the remaining conferences (Table 23).

Athletic Duties

There was a significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to time spent performing selected athletic duties. In reference to teaching, advising, and committee work, athletic administrators who spent less than ten percent of their time in the above duties were more satisfied than those who spent ten

Table 22. One-way analysis of variance of job satisfaction among female athletic administrators by size of staff at college or university

Size of Staff	Number	Job Satisfaction Mean	F Ratio
10 or less	14	2.86	4.38 *
11 - 20	11	3.28	
21 - highest	19	4.06	

* Significant at .05 level

Table 23. Distribution of job satisfaction of female athletic administrators by divisions

Job Satisfaction	Division I Number (Percent)	Division II Number (Percent)	Division III Number (Percent)	Total
Dissatisfied and Neutral	7 (36.8)	4 (28.6)	5 (45.5)	16 (36.4)
Satisfied	12 (63.2)	10 (71.4)	6 (54.5)	28 (63.6)
Total	19 (100)	14 (100)	11 (100)	44 (100)

Chi-Square = 0.76

percent or more. The Scheffé technique indicated a difference between those who spent less than ten percent and those who spent eleven percent or more of their time performing the above duties (Table 24). There was no significant differences found in job satisfaction with respect to other duties performed in athletic administration. Other duties included were preparing athletic budgets, recruiting athletes, scheduling games, planning conferences, organizing tournaments, supervising coaches, and coaching.

Results of testing Hypothesis Two showed that, with one exception, there was no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female administrators with respect to their perception of certain organizational characteristics. In the case of the exception, the larger the athletic staff, the more satisfied these women were with their jobs.

Hypothesis Three

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their involvement in athletics such as (a) years participating in athletics, and (b) coaching experiences.

Years Participating in Athletics

There was a significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who had one or less years of experience and those who had two or more years

Table 24. One-way analysis of variance of job satisfaction among female athletic administrators by duties in teaching, advising, and committee work

Time Devoted to Academic Duties	Number	Job Satisfaction Mean	F Ratio
Less than 10%	9	3.98	4.62 *
10%	4	3.38	
11 % or more	29	3.53	

*Significant at .05 level .

of experience in college athletics. Administrators with two or more years of experience were more satisfied than administrators with one or less (Table 25). When experience in elementary and high school was considered, there was no significant difference found between the two groups.

Coaching Experiences

There was a significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who had coaching experience prior to their present jobs and those who had no prior coaching experience. The majority (81%) of the administrators with no previous experience were satisfied. Almost equal percentages of those with prior experience were either satisfied, neutral, or not satisfied. Respective percentages were approximately 36%, 32%, and 32% (Table 26).

Results of Hypothesis Three rejected the null hypothesis. Those female athletic administrators who participated longer in athletics tended to be more satisfied with their current employment, as did those who had no coaching experience.

Hypothesis Four

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to age group.

There was no significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who were less

Table 25. Analysis of job satisfaction of female athletic administrators by years of participation in athletics

Years of Participation	Number	Job Satisfaction Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value
0-1	9	3.40	.47	1.97 *
2-more	3	3.72	0.41	

* Significant at .05 level

Table 26. Distribution of job satisfaction of female athletic administrators by coaching experience

Job Satisfaction	Experience Number (Percent)	No Experience Number (Percent)	Total
Dissatisfied	9 (32.1)	2 (12.5)	11 (25.0)
Neutral	9 (32.1)	1 (6.3)	10 (22.7)
Satisfied	10 (35.7)	13 (81.3)	23 (52.3)
Total	28 (100)	16 (100)	44 (100)

Chi-Square = 8.61

Significant .05 level

than forty years of age and those forty years and older (Table 27).

Hypothesis Five

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their short-term career aspirations.

There was a significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who anticipated leaving their current positions in the next five years and administrators who did not anticipate leaving their current positions. Seventy percent of administrators who anticipated not leaving tended to be satisfied, whereas, approximately 38% of those who anticipated leaving were satisfied. Also, among those who anticipated leaving, approximately thirty-three percent and twenty-nine percent were not satisfied and neutral, respectively (Table 28).

There was a significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who aspired to positions in college or university administration and those administrators who did not aspire to college or university administration. Forty-seven percent of black female athletic administrators aspiring to higher levels of administration were not satisfied. Seventy-two percent not aspiring to positions in college and university administration were

Table 27. Age and job satisfaction of female athletic administrators

Age	Number	Job Satisfaction Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value
0-39	32	3.60	0.46	0.25
40-63	15	3.63	0.52	

Table 28. Distribution of job satisfaction of female administrators by anticipation of leaving

Job Satisfaction	Leaving Number (Percent)	Not Leaving Number (Percent)	Total
Dissatisfied	8 (33.3)	3 (15.0)	11 (25.0)
Neutral	7 (29.2)	3 (15.0)	10 (22.7)
Satisfied	9 (37.5)	14 (70.0)	23 (52.3)
Total	24 (100)	20 (100)	44 (100)
Chi-Square = 4.63		Significant .05 level	

satisfied. Approximately twenty-four percent of the administrators in both groups were neutral (Table 29).

There was a significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who indicated that their main reason for leaving the current position would be due to inadequate physical facilities and those who would not leave because of facilities. Seventy-one percent who indicated inadequate physical facilities as the main reason they were not satisfied, while fourteen percent were satisfied. Approximately fifty percent of the group did not indicate inadequate physical facilities as the primary reason they were satisfied (Table 30).

When considering other areas of short-term career aspirations, no significant differences were detected.

Hypothesis Six

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect to their present salaries.

There were no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators within different salary ranges (Table 31).

Hypothesis Seven

There is no significant difference in job satisfaction among black female athletic administrators with respect

Table 29. Distribution of job satisfaction of female athletic administrators by career aspirations

Job Satisfaction	College Administration Number (Percent)	Non-College Administration Number (Percent)	Total
Dissatisfied	8 (47.1)	1 (4.0)	9 (21.4)
Neutral	4 (23.5)	6 (24.0)	10 (23.8)
Satisfied	5 (29.4)	18 (72.0)	23 (54.8)
Total	17 (100)	25 (100)	42 (100)
Chi-Square = 12.10 Significant .05 level			

Table 30. Distribution of job satisfaction of female athletic administrators by reason for leaving - physical facilities

Job Satisfaction	Inadequate Facilities Number (Percent)	Other Reasons Number (Percent)	Total
Dissatisfied	5 (71.4)	3 (16.7)	8 (32.0)
Neutral	1 (14.3)	6 (33.3)	7 (28.0)
Satisfied	1 (14.3)	9 (50.0)	10 (40.0)
Total	7 (100)	18 (100)	25 (100)

Chi-Square = 6.70 Significant .05 level

Table 31. One-way analysis of variance of job satisfaction among female athletic administrators by salary

Salaries	Number	Job Satisfaction Mean	F Ratio
\$16,000 - 20,999	16	3.31	.64
\$21,000 - 30,999	13	3.30	
\$31,000 - 40,999	9	3.89	
\$41,000 - 45,999	3	4.00	

to their perception of their influence in the decision-making process at present institution.

There was a significant difference in job satisfaction between black female athletic administrators who indicated they had a significant amount of influence in the decision-making process in the present athletic department and those who had little or no influence. The job satisfaction level of the influential group was significantly higher than the non-influential group. The significance was related to preparing athletic budgets. When considering recruiting athletes, scheduling games, planning conferences, organizing tournaments, supervising coaches, teaching and advising, and coaching, there were no significant differences found (Table 32).

Additional Findings

The study was initially designed for female athletic administrators at historically black colleges and universities. The questionnaires were sent to institutions that had titles of female athletic directors. When the questionnaires were being returned, some institutions indicated that their female athletic director was a man. Fifteen of the respondents were identified as males. Comparisons were made on male and female athletic administrators in terms of age, short-term career aspirations, salaries, decision-making

Table 32. Job satisfaction and perception of influence in the decision-making process of female and male athletic administrators

Perception of Influence	Number	Mean	Standard Deviation	t Value
Little Influence	20	2.80	1.24	4.28 *
Very Much Influence	21	4.23	0.89	

* Significant at .05 level

process, advanced degrees obtained, attitude toward current employment (job satisfaction), and years of coaching.

Additional Comparisons Between Males and Females

The results indicated a significant difference in salaries (Table 33), age, influence in decision making, and job satisfaction between males and females (Table 34).

When comparing salaries between males and females, the majority of the females (70%) were in salary range of \$16,000-25,999 while ninety percent of the males were in high salary range of \$26,000-45,999. Only seven percent of the males were in the \$16,000-25,999 income bracket (Table 33).

The age of male administrators was significantly higher than the age of females. Males felt that they had more influence than females in the decision-making process in relationship to preparing athletic budgets (Table 34.)

Also, there was no significant difference between men and women athletic administrators in terms of their perceptions of their leadership roles (Table 34). The men tended to be more satisfied with their jobs than the women.

Table 33. Distribution of salaries of female and male athletic administrators by sex

Salaries	Female Number (Percent)	Male Number (Percent)	Total
\$16,000-25,999	32 (69.6)	1 (6.7)	33 (54.1)
\$26,000-45,999	14 (30.4)	14 (93.3)	28 (45.9)
Total	46 (100)	15 (100)	61 (100)
Chi-Square = 15.5		Significant .05 level	

Table 34. A comparison between female and male athletic administrators on selected variables

Variables	Number of cases	Mean	Standard Deviation	Standard Error	t Value
AGE					
Females	49	37.5918	9.699	1.386	3.61 *
Males	15	47.6000	8.296	2.142	
DECISION- MAKING PROCESS					
Females	43	3.3023	1.255	0.187	2.80 *
Males	15	4.4000	0.828	0.214	
JOB SATISFACTION					
Females	44	3.9545	1.180	0.178	2.80 *
Males	14	4.8571	0.363	0.097	
LEADERSHIP ROLE					
Females	44	4.1136	1.017	0.153	1.87
Males	14	4.6429	0.497	0.133	

* Significant at .05 level

CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSION, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary and Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to examine how black female athletic administrators perceive their roles in athletic administration and to investigate and identify characteristics related to job satisfaction of these women at black colleges and universities. This study was selected because of the continual changes in women's athletics and changing roles of women. Women's issues, like sports, are in a state of transition. Women are assuming leadership roles and are changing their perspectives toward gender roles in society. Women's athletics have been growing since the enactment of Title IX. The creation of positions in athletics to have women govern and implement policies for women's sports is a concrete indication of some of these changes.

This study examines one segment of the population of women in athletic administration--black women. Given the historical purpose of black colleges and universities, information regarding the roles and characteristics of black women athletic administrators was needed because it would (a) give instruction and guidance to black women aspiring to administrative positions in athletics, (2) aid black women currently in athletic administration, (3) assist colleges and universi-

ties preparing black women administrators, and (4) aid black colleges and universities in retaining women administrators.

The objectives of this study were to identify female athletic administrators and examine their perception of job satisfaction at black colleges and universities. It was important to determine how these women perceived the importance of their duties in athletic administration. An examination of the background information on black women in athletic administration aided in determining positions held within organizational structures, job aspirations of these women, and short-term career aspirations.

The sample population for this study consisted of black female athletic administrators at predominantly black colleges and universities. To identify predominantly black colleges and universities, the Directory of American Colleges and Universities with Black Heritage was used.

The primary objectives of this study involved examining seven categories of information about black women in athletic administration. The categories were: (1) educational characteristics, (2) organizational characteristics, (3) athletic involvement, (4) age, (5) short-term career aspirations, (6) salaries, and (7) influence in the decision-making process as related to female athletic administrators and their perception of job satisfaction.

The demographic information from these women indicated that a high percentage had attended a black college or university came from a single-parent family, were the first generation to attend college, obtained job at an early age and enjoyed their employment. Findings of this study also indicated that a majority of these women had attended a black college or university for their undergraduate degrees. Over fifty percent of these women had majored in the area of physical education for either a bachelor's or a master's degree.

The information collected on educational background indicated that black female athletic administrators' fathers usually had some college education. The mothers of these women had an elementary or high school education. This supported the findings of the Carnegie Commission (1971) that, of blacks who attended or graduated from a black college or university, few had parents who had either attended or finished college, and that a high percentage of these graduates' parents had no education beyond eighth-grade level. This was true for the female athletic administrators' mothers in this study.

This also supports other data reported by the Carnegie Commission (1971): even though parents had little education themselves, they often extended encouragement and support to their children. The findings of the Carnegie Commission

(1971) agreed with the findings of this study that black female athletic administrators' parents usually encouraged them to attend a college or university. A study conducted by Heaston (1975) regarding black matriarchy stereotype and parental influences of educational and career achievement indicated that black women had been influenced to pursue or continue professional aspirations by their mothers. These women had attained a bachelor's and a master's degree and were largely satisfied with their employment. These individual's perceptions of job satisfaction will vary, depending on their perception of job responsibilities and their managers (Manhardt, 1972). Over two-thirds of women in leadership positions have experienced upward mobility. This conflicted with findings of Reeves (1975), Haren (1975), Soldwedel (1977), Handley and Sedlacek (1977) that revealed specific information about women: All women with master's degrees were satisfied with their current employment, while those with baccalaureates and more than half with doctorates were dissatisfied with current employment and job responsibilities.

Analysis of information pertaining to athletic organizational structure and sex of athletic director revealed that the level of job satisfaction of black female athletic administrators was not associated with these variables. This is in agreement with the findings of Swann and Witty

(1980) that black women had dual roles in the homes and were able to assume the same responsibilities as men. Assuming leadership roles is not a new phenomenon for black women, but very little data are available to support this contention which supports the findings of Reif et al. (1975) that men and women are actually more similar than not in their feelings about organizational climates, both groups believing their environment to be supportive and satisfying.

The results of this study indicated the larger the athletic staff, the more satisfied these women were with their employment in athletic administration, also, athletic conference or division was not an inhibiting factor. Black female athletic administrators accepted their responsibilities of teaching, advising, and committee work. This supports the findings of Hulin and Smith (1964) that sex was a critical variable that led to high or low levels of job satisfaction; rather it was those variables related to sex, such as salary, job level, promotion opportunity, and societal expectations, that actually created the differences. This also supports the findings of the (NAWDAC) profile of organization's membership. Although membership is not limited to women in higher education, the results provided a profile of a population that had a high percentage of women (Kuk, 1980).

Female administrators who had coaching experience prior to their present job were more satisfied with their employment related job satisfaction than those with fewer years of coaching experience.

The average age of these administrators was forty. Age was not a factor in this study when pertaining to job satisfaction. The greatest percentage of these women indicated they were married. This supports the findings of Pope (1979) who observed a relationship between marriage and administrative career mobility among women administrators. Regardless of their marital status, women planned their careers later than their male counterparts (Harmon, 1970; Hennings & Jordin, 1977). Black female athletic administrators seem to conform to the norm in this study.

In terms of short-term career aspirations, black female athletic administrators did not anticipate leaving their current positions and seemed to be satisfied. The females who indicated that they might leave their present jobs were satisfied with their current employment. Some women in athletic administration did aspire to higher-level positions in higher education, but the number was relatively small. Most of the women indicated that if they did leave present positions, the main reason would be inadequate facilities. Women administrators also felt they had a significant influence in preparing athletic budgets. This supports the

findings of Reif et al. (1975). In a study of perceived differences between male and female managers regarding formal and informal aspects of work organizations he found results that supported women would function well as managers. Black female athletic administrators had a significant influence in the decision-making process in their departments.

The higher the extrinsic reward of black female athletic administrators, the more satisfied the administrators were with their current employment and this was similar to traditional work role description according to Murningham, Wheatley and Kanter (1978). This supports the findings of Herzberg et al. (1957) that there was a systematic relationship between job satisfaction and work behavior, as well as between dissatisfaction and other work behavior. Men held higher positions in administration and were in a higher salary range than women. This supports the findings of The Earning Gap Between Women and Men (1979) that women remained in the lower-paying areas of employment.

Additional Findings

The results of this study indicated that black female athletic administrators tended to be a homogenous group of individuals who were satisfied with their current employment. Because some males also held positions of female athletic directors, a comparison was done between groups. The males

tended to be slightly older than the women. Males also thought they had more influence in the decision-making process than women when it pertained to athletic budgets. Men also considered themselves as having more of a leadership role than the women did. Ninety-three percent of the males were in a higher income bracket, while the majority of the women were in a lower income bracket.

Although the main research topic was related to women and their perceptions of job satisfaction as athletic administrators, men also held this position. According to Hulin and Smith (1964) men were generally more satisfied with their employment than women. This also matched findings of this study. Men viewed specific characteristics to be related to job satisfaction such as goals, working conditions and sex autonomy was not a factor that was to be considered. Men in this position were better paid and perceived they had more power. This seems to be typical characteristics of men in other professions.

Conclusion

The primary purpose of this study was to determine the roles and characteristics of black female athletic administrators at historically black colleges and universities and their perceptions of job satisfaction and employment in

athletic administration. The review of literature indicated that research in the area of athletic administration was virtually non-existent and additional studies would contribute a greater understanding of women in athletic administration. This study attempted to provide an exploratory assessment of black women in athletic administration in relationship to their perception of job satisfaction.

Studies in this area were needed because of the continual changes with women's issues and women in leadership roles. Women in athletic administration is one general area of interest, but further research would provide a summary of how black female athletic administrators perceived job satisfaction at black colleges and universities.

The ages of these women ranged from 23 to 40 years old. There was a difference in job satisfaction of these women if their fathers had a college education and if they had attained a bachelor's degree in health and physical education. The women tended to be more satisfied with their current employment and sex of administrator was not a main factor considered.

Women in athletic administration were more satisfied with their employment when it pertained to size of athletic staff within the department. In reference to athletic duties female administrators who spent less than ten percent of

their time teaching, advising, and committee work had a more positive attitude about job satisfaction and their work environment. Women who had participated in athletics were more satisfied with their duties than women who just entered the field of athletic administration. Women who had prior coaching experience were more satisfied with athletic administration than those who had no coaching experience. The study indicated that career aspirations of these women were to leave their present position in the next five years, but not necessarily obtain a job in college or university administration. Even though the number of black women who aspired to top-level administration was not great, it represented a higher proportion than is currently in top-level positions in higher education.

The majority of these women did indicate that they had significant influence in the decision-making process in their athletic departments when it pertained to preparing athletic budgets.

In summary, these women were highly educated and had at least a master's degree. A vast majority of these women were relatively new in these positions because of the recent expansions in women's athletics and athletic programs within the institutions. These women were highly qualified for positions within athletic administrative departments. When

pertaining to job satisfaction and responsibilities, these women were highly experienced in their area. They were satisfied with employment and their career aspirations were to obtain a job in administration, not necessarily athletic or university administration.

Recommendations

In view of the findings of this study, several recommendations seem appropriate. They are:

1. Further studies should be conducted on job satisfaction on black female athletic administrators at historically black colleges and universities. Research would indicate whether any trends are developing among these women.
2. Additional studies should be conducted to compare black female athletic administrators with non-black female athletic administrators to identify if differences exist in terms of job satisfaction at specific colleges or universities.
3. A study should be conducted to compare black females at non-black colleges and universities with black females at black colleges and universities.
4. Further research is needed that will explore such variables as age, race, and educational background and their impact on job satisfaction and career aspirations. These variables can be examined over a five-year period of time to identify if they are constant.

5. Further research should be done to investigate black women's perception of job satisfaction in national organizations.

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APPENDIX

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IOWA STATE
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N243 Quadrangle
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Telephone 515-294-4143

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Iowa State University
Ames, IA 50010
March 30, 1984

Dear Athletic Administrator:

In view of the continual changes taking place in athletics in general and women's athletics in particular at historically black colleges and universities, it is important that more definitive information is available regarding the role and characteristics of black women in athletic administration at these institutions. Consequently, the purpose of my doctoral dissertation research at Iowa State University is to gather such information. My strong interest in this investigation stems in part from the fact that I am presently on leave from North Carolina Agricultural and Technical State University where I am the Director of Women's Athletics and instructor of Physical Education.

The purpose of this letter is to request your assistance in providing data for my research. Would you please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to me in the self-addressed stamped envelope as soon as possible. The questionnaire should take approximately no more than 15-20 minutes to complete.

You may be assured of complete confidentiality. The questionnaire has an identification number to be used only for record-keeping purposes. It enables us to check your name off the mailing list when your questionnaire is returned. Your name will never be placed on the questionnaire or used in any way.

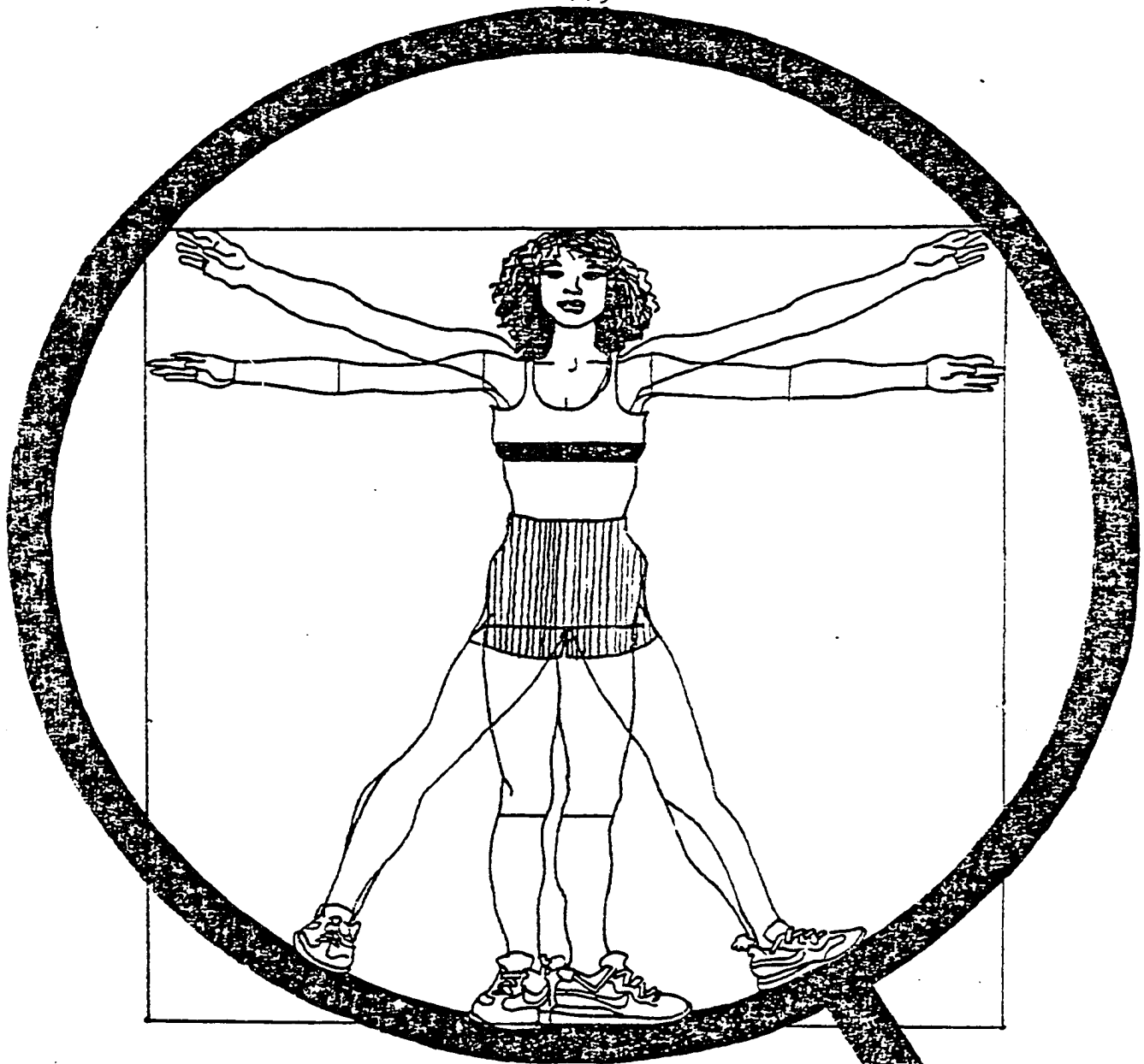
Your efforts on behalf of this study are deeply appreciated and the researcher wishes to thank you for your assistance.

Sincerely,

Vivian L. Fuller
Doctoral Candidate
Professional Studies/Higher Education

J. Stanley Ahmann
Major Professor, Professional Studies

Enclosure



**Black Female
Athletic
Administrators**

SURVEY OF WOMEN ATHLETIC ADMINISTRATORS

DIRECTIONS: Please respond to each of the following items by placing your answer in the spaces provided.

A. GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Age _____
2. Your present marital status. (please check one)
 - _____ Single
 - _____ Married
 - _____ Divorced
 - _____ Separated
 - _____ Widowed
3. Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic identification? (please check one)
 - _____ Black American
 - _____ Caucasian
 - _____ Hispanic
 - _____ Asian
 - _____ Other (please specify → _____)
4. Do you have any children?
 - _____ Yes → CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 5
 - _____ No → SKIP TO QUESTION 7
5. Number of children _____
6. Please list the ages of your children in order, from the youngest to the oldest. _____
7. Check the category which represents the highest level of education attained by your mother.

ELEMENTARY	HIGH SCHOOL	COLLEGE
_____ 0-4	_____ 1-3	_____ 1-3
_____ 5-7	_____ 4 years	_____ 4 years
_____ 8 years		_____ 5 years or more
8. Check the category which represents the highest level of education attained by your father.

ELEMENTARY	HIGH SCHOOL	COLLEGE
_____ 0-4	_____ 1-3	_____ 1-3
_____ 5-7	_____ 4 years	_____ 4 years
_____ 8 years		_____ 5 years or more

9. Do you have any brothers or sisters?

- Yes → CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 10
 No → SKIP TO QUESTION 11

10. How many brothers and sisters to you have?

- Number of brothers Older brothers
 Number of sisters Older sisters

11. Please check the advanced degrees that you have obtained. (check all that apply)

- Associate
 Bachelors (undergraduate degree)
 Masters
 Specialist
 Doctorate

12. Please give major for each degree mentioned in Question 11.

- Associate: Major _____
 Bachelors: Major _____
 Masters: Major _____
 Specialist: Major _____
 Doctorate: Major _____

13. At what college or university did you obtain your undergraduate degree?

B. ATHLETIC INFORMATION

14. As a participant what level did you first become involved in organized athletics?

- Elementary School
 Junior High School
 High School
 College
 None of the above
 Other (please specify → _____)

15. Please indicate the varsity sports in which you participated in high school. (check all that apply)

- Basketball
 Volleyball
 Softball
 Tennis
 Track & Field
 Other (please specify → _____)
 Did not participate

16. How many years did you letter in at least one sport in high school?

17. In which of the following categories did you receive an athletic award in high school? (check all that apply)

All District
 All State
 All Conference
 None of the above

18. Please indicate the varsity sports in which you participated in college. (check all that apply)

Basketball
 Volleyball
 Softball
 Tennis
 Track & Field
 Other (please specify → _____)
 Did not participate

19. In which of the following categories did you receive an athletic award in college? (check all that apply)

All Division or District
 All Conference
 All American
 None of the above.

20. Please indicate number of years you were involved in varsity sports at each level. (check all that apply)

Junior High School
 High School
 College (including Junior College)
 Did not participate

21. Did you have any coaching experience prior to your present job?

Yes → CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 22
 No → SKIP TO QUESTION 24

22. Indicate the number of years you have been a head coach in both high school and college for each of the following categories. (check all that apply)

Basketball
 Volleyball
 Softball
 Tennis
 Track & Field
 Other (please specify → _____)
 None of the above

23. Indicate the number of years coaching at each level. (check all that apply)

- Elementary School
 Junior High School
 High School
 College
 Professional
 Other (please specify → _____)
 None of the above

C. PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES

24. At what age did you obtain your first job in athletic administration?

25. How many years have you been involved in athletic administration?

26. What is your current title(s)? _____

27. Salary of your present position.

- Less than 16,000
 16,000 - 20,999
 21,000 - 25,999
 26,000 - 30,999
 31,000 - 35,999
 36,000 - 40,999
 41,000 - 45,999
 46,000 - 50,999
 51,000 and above

28. What is the title of your immediate supervisor? _____

29. Indicate the sex of your Athletic Director.

- Male
 Female

30. What is the size of the athletic staff at your present institution?

31. To what division does your school belong? (please check the athletic association and provide division number)

- National Collegiate Athletic Association: Division _____
 National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics:
 Division _____
 Other (please specify → _____)

32. In which athletic conference do you participate?

- Central Intercollegiate Athletic Conference (CIAA)
 Mideastern Athletic Conference (MEAC)
 South Eastern Athletic Conference (SEAC)
 Southern Intercollegiate Athletic Conference (SIAC)
 South Western Athletic Conference (SWAC)
 Inter-Regional Athletic Conference (IAC)
 Other (please specify → _____)

33. Since the enactment of Title IX, how much has your program changed in the following areas? (Circle the appropriate number on the scale provided)

	None					Very Much				
Increased number of women's sports	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
More scholarships	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Expanded budgets	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Improved facilities	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
More employees	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Other (please specify: _____)	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

34. Indicate the total number of women's athletic scholarships available to women in your Athletic Department. _____

35. Indicate the total number of men's athletic scholarships available to men in your Athletic Department. _____

36. Since you obtained your present position, have you had any additional formal academic preparation?

- Yes, courses leading to a Masters degree
 Yes, courses leading to a Doctorate
 Yes, courses not leading to a degree
 No

37. What percentage of your time is spent on the following duties at your present institution. (Total percentages should equal 100%)

- Preparing athletic budgets
 Recruiting athletics
 Scheduling games
 Planning conferences
 Organizing tournaments
 Supervising coaches
 Teaching, advising, and committee work
 Coaching

 100%

38. Indicate the amount of influence you think you have in the decision-making process in your present athletic department for each of the following areas. (Circle your responses on the scale provided)

	None			Very Much		
Preparing athletic budgets	1	2	3	4	5	
Recruiting athletes	1	2	3	4	5	
Scheduling games	1	2	3	4	5	
Planning conferences	1	2	3	4	5	
Organizing tournaments	1	2	3	4	5	
Supervising coaches	1	2	3	4	5	
Teaching and advising	1	2	3	4	5	
Coaching	1	2	3	4	5	

D. ATTITUDE TOWARD CURRENT EMPLOYMENT

39. Directions: Using the rating scale below indicate your level of agreement with each statement below. (Circle one number for each statement)

- Strongly Agree 5
- Agree 4
- Neutral 3
- Disagree 2
- Strongly Disagree . . . 1
- Not Applicable N

1. I am challenged by my duties in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N
2. I am satisfied with the present women's athletic budget.	5	4	3	2	1	N
3. There is a good working relationship between my athletic director and myself.	5	4	3	2	1	N
4. The opportunity for administrative advancement exist in my present job.	5	4	3	2	1	N
5. I feel that my athletic department has adequate women's facilities.	5	4	3	2	1	N
6. I feel confident in my abilities to make significant contributions in the area of athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N
7. I feel I have a responsibility to serve as a mentor for female athletes.	5	4	3	2	1	N
8. I am strongly encouraged to excel in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N

42. Five years from now, at what level of university administration do you see yourself? (check one)

Same level
 Lower level
 Higher level

43. Five years from now, at what type of institution do you see yourself working? (check one)

Same black institution
 Other black institution
 Other non-black institution

44. Which of the following positions represents your ultimate career aspiration? (check one)

President of college or university
 Vice-president of college or university
 Dean of college or school
 Department head or chairperson
 None of the above

IOWA STATE
UNIVERSITY

College of Education
Professional Studies
N243 Quadrangle
Ames, Iowa 50011

Telephone 515-294-4143

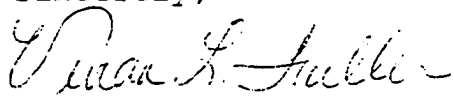
A153 Linden Hall
Iowa State University
Ames, IA 50010

Dear Athletic Administrator:

Several weeks ago, a questionnaire was mailed to black female athletic administrators at historically black colleges and universities. If you have completed and returned the questionnaire, please accept my sincere thanks. If you have not returned the questionnaire, a second mailing will be sent to you.

Your participation will be greatly appreciated.

Sincerely,



Vivian L. Fuller

SURVEY OF WOMEN ATHLETIC ADMINISTRATORS

DIRECTIONS: Please respond to each of the following items by placing your answer in the spaces provided.

IDI 1-3
CDI 4

A. GENERAL INFORMATION

1. Age _____ Age 5-6
2. Your present marital status. (please check one) Mar 7
 _____ Single
 _____ Married
 _____ Divorced
 _____ Separated
 _____ Widowed
3. Which of the following best describes your racial or ethnic identification? (please check one) Race 8
 _____ Black American
 _____ Caucasian
 _____ Hispanic
 _____ Asian
 _____ Other (please specify → _____)
4. Do you have any children? CHILD 9
 _____ Yes → CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 5
 _____ No → SKIP TO QUESTION 7
5. Number of children _____ NOCHILD 10-11
CHILD 12
6. Please list the ages of your children in order, from the youngest to the oldest. CHILD 10 31

7. Check the category which represents the highest level of education attained by your mother. MGED 32
- | ELEMENTARY | HIGH SCHOOL | COLLEGE |
|---------------|---------------|-----------------------|
| _____ 0-4 | _____ 1-3 | _____ 1-3 |
| _____ 5-7 | _____ 4 years | _____ 4 years |
| _____ 8 years | | _____ 5 years or more |
8. Check the category which represents the highest level of education attained by your father. FGED 33
- | ELEMENTARY | HIGH SCHOOL | COLLEGE |
|---------------|---------------|-----------------------|
| _____ 0-4 | _____ 1-3 | _____ 1-3 |
| _____ 5-7 | _____ 4 years | _____ 4 years |
| _____ 8 years | | _____ 5 years or more |

9. Do you have any brothers or sisters?

BROSIS 34

- Yes → CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 10
- No → SKIP TO QUESTION 11

10. How many brothers and sisters to you have?

NOBRO 35-36
 NOSIS 37-38
 OLDBRO 39-40
 OLDSIS 41-42

- Number of brothers Older brothers
- Number of sisters Older sisters

11. Please check the advanced degrees that you have obtained. (check all that apply)

ADVDEG1 43

- Associate
- Bachelors (undergraduate degree)
- Masters
- Specialist
- Doctorate

ADVDEG5 47

12. Please give major for each degree mentioned in Question 11.

MAJOR1 48

- Associate: Major _____
- Bachelors: Major _____
- Masters: Major _____
- Specialist: Major _____
- Doctorate: Major _____

MAJORS 52

13. At what college or university did you obtain your undergraduate degree?

College 53

End Card 1

B. ATHLETIC INFORMATION

ID2 1-3

CD2 4

14. As a participant what level did you first become involved in organized athletics?

ORGATH 5

- Elementary School
- Junior High School
- High School
- College
- None of the above
- Other (please specify → _____)

15. Please indicate the varsity sports in which you participated in high school. (check all that apply)

VARHS1 6

- Basketball
- Volleyball
- Softball
- Tennis
- Track & Field
- Other (please specify → _____)
- Did not participate

VARHS7 12

16. How many years did you letter in at least one sport in high school?

LETTERS 13

17. In which of the following categories did you receive an athletic award in high school? (check all that apply) AWARDHS1 14
- All District . .
 - All State . .
 - All Conference . .
 - None of the above AWARDHS4 17
18. Please indicate the varsity sports in which you participated in college. (check all that apply) VARCOLL 16
- Basketball . .
 - Volleyball . .
 - Softball VARCOLL7 14
 - Tennis . .
 - Track & Field . .
 - Other (please specify → _____) . .
 - Did not participate . .
19. In which of the following categories did you receive an athletic award in college? (check all that apply) AWACOLL1 15
- All Division or District . .
 - All Conference . .
 - All American . .
 - None of the above. AWACOLL4 18
20. Please indicate number of years you were involved in varsity sports at each level. (check all that apply) VARYRS1 19
- Junior High School . .
 - High School . .
 - College (including Junior College) VARYRS4 16
 - Did not participate . .
21. Did you have any coaching experience prior to your present job? EXPER 17
- Yes → CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 22
 - No → SKIP TO QUESTION 24
22. Indicate the number of years you have been a head coach in both high school and college for each of the following categories. (check all that apply) YRSCOA1 18
- Basketball . .
 - Volleyball . .
 - Softball . .
 - Tennis YRSCOA7 11
 - Track & Field . .
 - Other (please specify → _____) . .
 - None of the above . .

23. Indicate the number of years coaching at each level. (check all that apply)
- | | | |
|-------|--------------------------------|------------------|
| _____ | Elementary School | YRSLEVL 50 |
| _____ | Junior High School | _____ |
| _____ | High School | _____ |
| _____ | College | YRSLEV7 65 |
| _____ | Professional | END CARD 2 |
| _____ | Other (please specify → _____) | |
| _____ | None of the above | ID3 1-3
CD3 4 |

C. PROFESSIONAL EXPERIENCES

24. At what age did you obtain your first job in athletic administration? AGEJOB 5-6

25. How many years have you been involved in athletic administration? YRSADM 7-8

26. What is your current title(s)? _____ TITLE 9-10
27. Salary of your present position. SALARY 11-12
- | | |
|-------|------------------|
| _____ | Less than 16,000 |
| _____ | 16,000 - 20,999 |
| _____ | 21,000 - 25,999 |
| _____ | 26,000 - 30,999 |
| _____ | 31,000 - 35,999 |
| _____ | 36,000 - 40,999 |
| _____ | 41,000 - 45,999 |
| _____ | 46,000 - 50,999 |
| _____ | 51,000 and above |
28. What is the title of your immediate supervisor? _____ SUPER 13-14
29. Indicate the sex of your Athletic Director. DEKAD 15
- | | |
|-------|--------|
| _____ | Male |
| _____ | Female |
30. What is the size of the athletic staff at your present institution? _____ SIZESTAF 16-17
31. To what division does your school belong? (please check the athletic association and provide division number) DIVISION 18-19
- | | |
|-------|---|
| _____ | National Collegiate Athletic Association: Division _____ |
| _____ | National Association of Intercollegiate Athletics: Division _____ |
| _____ | Other (please specify → _____) |

32. In which athletic conference do you participate? CONFER 30

- Central Intercollegiate Athletic Conference (CIAA)
- Mid-eastern Athletic Conference (MEAC)
- South Eastern Athletic Conference (SEAC)
- Southern Intercollegiate Athletic Conference (SIAC)
- South Western Athletic Conference (SWAC)
- Inter-Regional Athletic Conference (IAC)
- Other (please specify → _____)

33. Since the enactment of Title IX, how much has your program changed in the following areas? (Circle the appropriate number on the scale provided)

	None					Very Much				
	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
Increased number of women's sports										
More scholarships										
Expanded budgets										
Improved facilities										
More employees										
Other (please specify: _____)										

34. Indicate the total number of women's athletic scholarships available to women in your Athletic Department. _____ WSCHOLAR 27-28

35. Indicate the total number of men's athletic scholarships available to men in your Athletic Department. _____ MSCHOLAR 29-30

36. Since you obtained your present position, have you had any additional formal academic preparation? ACAPRE 31

- Yes, courses leading to a Masters degree
- Yes, courses leading to a Doctorate
- Yes, courses not leading to a degree
- No

37. What percentage of your time is spent on the following duties at your present institution. (Total percentages should equal 100%)

<input type="checkbox"/> Preparing athletic budgets	PERCENTS 32
<input type="checkbox"/> Recruiting athletics	. . .
<input type="checkbox"/> Scheduling games	. . .
<input type="checkbox"/> Planning conferences	. . .
<input type="checkbox"/> Organizing tournaments	PERCENTS 47
<input type="checkbox"/> Supervising coaches	
<input type="checkbox"/> Teaching, advising, and committee work	
<input type="checkbox"/> Coaching	
<u>100%</u>	

38. Indicate the amount of influence you think you have in the decision-making process in your present athletic department for each of the following areas. (Circle your responses on the scale provided)

	None				Very Much	
	1	2	3	4	5	
Preparing athletic budgets	1	2	3	4	5	
Recruiting athletes	1	2	3	4	5	INFLUE1 49
Scheduling games	1	2	3	4	5	.
Planning conferences	1	2	3	4	5	.
Organizing tournaments	1	2	3	4	5	.
Supervising coaches	1	2	3	4	5	INFLUE8 56
Teaching and advising	1	2	3	4	5	
Coaching	1	2	3	4	5	

End Card 3

D. ATTITUDE TOWARD CURRENT EMPLOYMENT

39. Directions: Using the rating scale below indicate your level of agreement with each statement below. (Circle one number for each statement)

- Strongly Agree 5
- Agree 4
- Neutral 3
- Disagree 2
- Strongly Disagree . . . 1
- Not Applicable N

ID# 1-3
CD# 4

1. I am challenged by my duties in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N	
2. I am satisfied with the present women's athletic budget.	5	4	3	2	1	N	ATT1 5
3. There is a good working relationship between my athletic director and myself.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.
4. The opportunity for administrative advancement exist in my present job.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.
5. I feel that my athletic department has adequate women's facilities.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.
6. I feel confident in my abilities to make significant contributions in the area of athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.
7. I feel I have a responsibility to serve as a mentor for female athletes.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.
8. I am strongly encouraged to excel in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.

9.	I usually work more than 40 hours per week in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.	.
10.	I currently think of myself as having an important leadership role in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.	.
11.	I have always felt confident of my abilities to excel in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.	.
12.	I would like to assume more leadership roles in athletic administration on a higher level.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.	.
13.	My spouse's career decisions usually take precedence over mine.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.	.
14.	I receive satisfaction from coaching female sports.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.	.
15.	I am satisfied with the size of my athletic staff.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.	.
16.	At this institution my sex limits my opportunity for advancement.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.	.
17.	I am strongly encouraged to excel in teaching.	5	4	3	2	1	N	.	.
18.	Overall, I am satisfied with my current position in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N	ATT 18	.

E. FUTURE PLANS

40. Do you anticipate leaving your present position in the next five years?
 _____ Yes → CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 41 LEAVE 23
 _____ No → SKIP TO QUESTION 42
41. If you leave your present position in the next 5 years, what will probably be the main reason(s)? (check all that apply) REASON1 24
- _____ Insufficient salary
 - _____ Limited opportunities for advancement
 - _____ Inadequate physical facilities
 - _____ Dissatisfaction with supervisor REASON7 20
 - _____ Dissatisfaction with institutional climate
 - _____ Retirement
 - _____ Other (please specify → _____)

9.	I usually work more than 40 hours per week in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N
10.	I currently think of myself as having an important leadership role in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N
11.	I have always felt confident of my abilities to excel in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N
12.	I would like to assume more leadership roles in athletic administration on a higher level.	5	4	3	2	1	N
13.	My spouse's career decisions usually take precedence over mine.	5	4	3	2	1	N
14.	I receive satisfaction from coaching female sports.	5	4	3	2	1	N
15.	I am satisfied with the size of my athletic staff.	5	4	3	2	1	N
16.	At this institution my sex limits my opportunity for advancement.	5	4	3	2	1	N
17.	I am strongly encouraged to excel in teaching.	5	4	3	2	1	N
18.	Overall, I am satisfied with my current position in athletic administration.	5	4	3	2	1	N

E. FUTURE PLANS

40. Do you anticipate leaving your present position in the next five years?

 Yes → CONTINUE WITH QUESTION 41

 No → SKIP TO QUESTION 42

41. If you leave your present position in the next 5 years, what will probably be the main reason(s)? (check all that apply)

 Insufficient salary

 Limited opportunities for advancement

 Inadequate physical facilities

 Dissatisfaction with supervisor

 Dissatisfaction with institutional climate

 Retirement

 Other (please specify → _____)

42. Five years from now, at what level of university administration do you see yourself? (check one) LEVELS 31
- Same level
 Lower level
 Higher level
43. Five years from now, at what type of institution do you see yourself working? (check one) TYPINST5 32
- Same black institution
 Other black institution
 Other non-black institution
44. Which of the following positions represents your ultimate career aspiration? (check one) ASPIR 33
- President of college or university
 Vice-president of college or university
 Dean of college or school
 Department head or chairperson
 None of the above

End

Predominantly Black Colleges and Universities
in the United States

Institution	Address
<u>ALABAMA</u> (13)	
Alabama A & M University	Normal, Alabama 35762
Alabama Lutheran Academy	1804 Green Street Selma, Alabama 36701
Alabama State University	1100 S. Jackson Street Montgomery, Alabama 36101
Bishop State Junior College	Mobile, Alabama 36603
Daniel Payne College	6415 Washington Boulevard Birmingham, Alabama 35212
Lawson State Community College	3060 Wilson Road Birmingham, Alabama 35221
Lomax-Hannon College	South Conecuh Street Greenville, Alabama 36037
Miles College	Birmingham, Alabama 35064
Oakwood College	Huntsville, Alabama 35806
Selma University	1501 Lapsley Street Selma, Alabama 36701
Stillman College	P. O. Box 1430 Tuscaloosa, Alabama 35491
Talladega College	627 W. Battle Street Talladega, Alabama 35160
Tuskegee Institute	Tuskegee, Alabama 36088
<u>ARKANSAS</u> (4)	
Arkansas Baptist College	1000 High Street Little Rock, Arkansas 72202
Philander Smith College	812 West 113 Street Little Rock, Arkansas 72203

Shorter College	604 Locust Street Little Rock, Arkansas 72114
University of Arkansas (Pine Bluff)	North Cedar Street Pine Bluff, Arkansas
<u>DELAWARE</u> (1)	
Delaware State College	Dover, Delaware 19901
<u>DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA</u> (2)	
Howard University	2400 6th Street, N.W. Washington, D.C. 20001
University of the District of Columbia	4200 Connecticut Ave., N.W. Room 301 Washington, D.C. 20008
<u>FLORIDA</u> (4)	
Bethune-Cookman College	650 Second Avenue Daytona Beach, Florida 32015
Edward Waters College	1658 Kings Road Jackson, Florida 32209
Florida A & M University	Tallahassee South Boulevard Tallahassee, Florida 32307
Florida Memorial College	Miami, Florida 33054
<u>GEORGIA</u> (10)	
Albany State College	Albany, Georgia 31705
Atlanta University	223 Chestnut Street, S.W. Atlanta, Georgia 30314
Clark College	240 Chestnut Street Atlanta, Georgia 30314
Fort Valley State College	South Macon Street Fort Valley, Georgia 31030
Interdenominational Theological Center	Atlanta, Georgia 30314

Morehouse College	223 Chestnut Street, S.W. Atlanta, Georgia 30314
Morris Brown College	643 Hunter Street, N.W. Atlanta, Georgia 31314
Paine College	1235 Fifteenth Street Augusta, Georgia 30901
Savannah State College	State College Branch Savannah, Georgia 31400
Spelman College	350 Leonard Street, N.W. Atlanta, Georgia 30314
<u>KENTUCKY</u> (2)	
Kentucky State University	East Main Street Frankfort, Kentucky 40601
Simmons University	1811 Dumesnell Street Louisville, Kentucky 40210
<u>LOUISIANA</u> (6)	
Dillard University	2601 Gentilly Boulevard New Orleans, Louisiana 70122
Grambling State University	Grambling, Louisiana
Southern University	Baton Rouge, Louisiana 70813
(Southern University)	6400 Press Drive New Orleans, Louisiana 70125
(Southern University)	Shreveport, Louisiana
Xavier University	7325 Palmetto Street New Orleans, Louisiana 70125
<u>MARYLAND</u> (4)	
Bowie State College	Bowie, Maryland 20175
Coppin State College	2500 West North Avenue Baltimore, Maryland 21216
Morgan State University	Cole Spring Lane & Hillen Road Baltimore, Maryland 21212

University of Maryland
(Eastern Shore)

Princess Ann, Maryland

MICHIGAN (1)

Shaw College at Detroit

7351 Woodward Avenue
Detroit, Michigan 48202

MISSISSIPPI (10)

Alcorn State University

Rural Station
Lorman, Mississippi 39096

Coahoma Junior College

R. I. Box 616
Clarksdale, Mississippi 38614

Jackson State University

1325 Lynch Street
Jackson, Mississippi 39217

Mississippi Industrial College

Holly Springs, Mississippi 38635

Mississippi Valley
State University

Itta Bena, Mississippi 38941

Natchez Junior College

1010 Ext. N. Union
Natchez, Mississippi 39120

Prentiss Normal & Industrial
Institute

Prentiss, Mississippi 39474

Rust College

Rust Avenue
Holly Springs, Mississippi 38635

Tougaloo College

Tougaloo, Mississippi 39175

Utica Junior College

Utica, Mississippi 39175

MISSOURI (1)

Lincoln University

Jefferson City, Missouri 65101

NORTH CAROLINA (11)

Barber-Scotia College

Cabarrus Avenue
Concord, North Carolina 28025

Bennett College

Washington Street
Greensboro, North Carolina 27402

Elizabeth City State University	Elizabeth City, North Carolina 27909
Fayetteville State University	Murchison Road Fayetteville, North Carolina 28301
Johnson C. Smith University	100 Beattiesford Road Charlotte, North Carolina 28208
Livingstone College	Salisbury, North Carolina
North Carolina A & T State University	312 North Dudley Street Greensboro, North Carolina 27411
North Carolina Central University	Fayetteville Street Durham, North Carolina 27707
Shaw University	118 E. South Street Raleigh, North Carolina 27602
St. Augustine's College	1315 Oakwood Avenue Raleigh, North Carolina 27602
Winston-Salem State University	Winston-Salem, North Carolina 27102
<u>OHIO</u> (2)	
Central State University	Wilberforce, Ohio 45384
Wilberforce University	Wilberforce, Ohio 45384
<u>OKLAHOMA</u> (1)	
Langston University	Langston, Oklahoma 73050
<u>PENNSYLVANIA</u> (2)	
Cheyney State College	Cheyney, Pennsylvania 19319
Lincoln University	Lincoln University, Pennsylvania 19352
<u>SOUTH CAROLINA</u> (8)	
Allen University	1530 Harden Street Columbia, South Carolina 29204
Benedict College	Columbia, South Carolina

Claflin College	College Avenue Orangeburg, South Carolina 29115
Clinton Junior College	Rock Hill, South Carolina 29732
Friendship Junior College	Allen Street Rock Hill, South Carolina 29732
Morris College	North Main Street Sumter, South Carolina 29150
South Carolina State College	Orangeburg, South Carolina 29115
Voorhees College	Denmark, South Carolina 29150

TENNESSEE (7)

Fisk University	17 Avenue, North Nashville, Tennessee 37203
Knoxville College	901 College Street Knoxville, Tennessee 37921
Lane College	501 Lane Avenue Jackson, Tennessee 38301
LeMoyne-Owen College	807 Walker Avenue Memphis, Tennessee 38126
Meharry Medical College	1005 18th Avenue, North Nashville, Tennessee 37208
Morristown College	Morristown, Tennessee 37814
Tennessee State University	3500 Centennial Boulevard Nashville, Tennessee 37203

TEXAS (9)

Bishop College	Dallas Texas
Huston-Tillotson College	1820 E. 8th Street Austin, Texas 78702
Jarvis Christian College	U.S. Highway 80 Hawkins, Texas 75765
Paul Quinn College	1020 Elm Street Waco, Texas 76703

Prairie View A & M University	Prairie View, Texas 77445
Southwestern Christian College	P. O. Box 10 Terrell, Texas
Texas College	2404 North Grand Avenue Tyler, Texas 75703
Texas Southern University	3201 Wheeler Avenue Houston, Texas 77004
Wiley College	711 Rosborough Spring Road Marshall, Texas 75670
<u>VIRGINIA</u> (5)	
Hampton Institute	East Queen Street Hampton, Virginia 23368
Norfolk State College	2401 Corprew Avenue Norfolk, Virginia 23504
St. Paul's College	Lawrenceville, Virginia 23868
The Virginia College	Garfield Avenue & Dewitt Street Petersburg, Virginia
Virginia Union University	1500 N. Lombardy Street Richmond, Virginia 23220
<u>WEST VIRGINIA</u> (1)	
Bluefield State College	Bluefield, West Virginia