Gender Role Preferences
and Perceptions
of University Administrators

Sue Street
Ellen Kimmel

❖

*This study provides a model for institution-specific
assessment of gender role preferences and perceptions, based
on the responses of 321 university administrators to the Sex
Role Trait Inventory. Women administrators described
their ideal woman, ideal man, and themselves as
androgynous. For male administrators, the ideal woman
was androgynous, but these men defined their ideal man and
themselves as masculine. Women and men both perceived
most actual women and men as sex-typed. Despite
somewhat greater sex-typing by male respondents, gender
role attitudes of women and men, and particularly female
and male senior administrators, were similar.*

Holland and Eisenhart (1988) concluded that the university provides an important setting for learning and acting in accordance with gender norms, a conclusion that is supported by the nearly 200 studies that have been conducted since the mid 1970s on the attitudes of college students toward gender roles (Etaugh & Spiller, 1989). Unger and Crawford (1992), moreover, suggested that role modeling is a significant factor in gender role adaptation in the university setting; Bennett and Shayner (1988), for example, emphasized that female students look to female administrators for guidance. Barrax (1985) also indicated that issues of role modeling are frequently addressed in studies of women in higher education administration. Oddly, however, few studies focus on the attitudes held

*Sue Street is Coordinator of the Counseling Education Program, University of South
Florida, Tampa. Ellen Kimmell is a Professor at the University of South Florida.*

by university administrators about gender roles, although these staff members play a major role in shaping the gender roles that students assume.

Comprehensive reviews of studies relating to university students' gender role attitudes over the past two decades revealed a mixture of sex-typed attitudes and androgynous ones that combine traits that are perceived as traditionally masculine and feminine (Basow, 1992; Cook, 1985), suggesting the presence of diverse gender role models in the university. Universities have taken numerous steps to reduce sex role stereotyping (e.g., the implementation of affirmative action policies, challenges to sexual harassment, the development of women's studies and women's awareness programs). Further, the university supports the development of non-traditional gender roles by preparing women for careers (Holland & Andre, 1992) and employing women as faculty members and administrators. The professional literature includes discussion of the "feminization of student affairs" (Hamrick & Carlisle, 1990; McEwen, Williams & Engstrom, 1991), suggesting that a strong focus on women and feminine gender traits characterizes student services at least.

Despite some efforts to provide balance to the largely masculine university environment, Hughes (1989) charged that universities have failed to develop balanced gender-role attitudes in students and, along with Maitland (1990), criticized the emphasis on masculine traits that continues to characterize university faculty. Unger and Crawford (1992) contended that sororities and fraternities also foster traditional attitudes of masculine superiority (see also Kalof & Cargill, 1991; Martin & Hummer, 1989).

Higher education administrators could also be assumed to model, if not advocate, masculine sex-typed gender roles. Traditionally, the university has been a male-dominated institution, with administration a particularly male dominated field (Kaplan & Helly, 1984). Women who wished to enter and succeed in leadership roles had to develop and emphasize high levels of masculine gender traits (Basow, 1992; Hughes, 1989). Research has suggested, in fact, that women who work in any high status, traditionally male-dominated profession are more likely to support and adopt male values or masculine gender role behaviors, or both (Reid, Roberts & Ozbek, 1990; Young, MacKenzie & Sherif, 1980). Further, it is probable that male administrators, particularly older ones, model and advocate masculine sex-typed gender roles. There are no data, however, about the actual gender role preferences or perceptions of university administrators. Given the potential impact that this group has on students and, perhaps, on faculty members, it would be useful to learn about the gender role attitudes of university administrators. Such data would

allow the variety of arguments made about the modeling of gender roles within the university community to be supported by empirical data.

The purpose of this study was to describe gender role preferences and perceptions of university administrators. Its design was guided by the following questions: *What are administrators' gender role preferences for their ideal woman and ideal man? What are their gender role perceptions of most women and most men? What are their perceptions of their own gender traits? Are there differences between the gender role preferences and perceptions of women and men administrators? What gender differences are apparent among senior administrators, and between senior administrators and non-senior administrators?*

Method

Participants and Procedure
All personnel classified as administrators and administrative heads (*N*=512) at a large southeastern metropolitan public university were surveyed by mail. Each administrator was mailed the *Sex Role Trait Inventory [SRTI]* (Street & Meek, 1980), along with a demographic questionnaire, a cover letter inviting participation and assuring anonymity, and a return campus-addressed envelope. A second mailing was sent one month later. Of the surveys mailed, 321 administrators responded, a return rate of 63%.

Forty-nine percent of the respondents were women and fifty-one percent were men. This was representative of the total campus administrator population, which was 51% women and 49% men. The large proportion of women probably derives from the high number of women employed in student affairs and in lower supervisory positions that are classified as administrative. Nine percent of respondents reported their age as under 31; 26% were between 31 and 40; 34% were 41 to 50; 31% were over 50. Eighty-one percent of the respondents reported that they were Caucasian, 11% Hispanic, and 7% African American. Twelve percent reported that they had less than two years experience as an administrator; 29%, 2 to 5 years; 22%, 6 to 10 years; 17%, 11 to 15 years, 21%, more than 15 years.

Instrument
The *Sex Role Trait Inventory* (Street & Meek, 1980) was designed to measure participants' sex role attitudes and elicit respondents' perceptions of sex role traits associated with five conceptual objects: *Ideal Man, Ideal Woman, Most Men, Most Women,* and *Self.* For each object, responses are obtained on a five-point Likert scale for each of 33 masculine and feminine traits.

Each object is explicitly defined for participants within the instrument. *Ideal Man* and *Ideal Woman* are defined in terms of the respondent's expectation of what near-perfect individuals would be, and these ideals are assumed to constitute an indicator of gender preferences. *Most Men* and *Most Women* are defined in terms of the respondent's perception of the way most men and women really are. *Self* is defined in terms of the respondent's beliefs about his or her own manifestation of a given trait.

Respondents were asked to indicate on a Likert scale the extent to which they perceived each trait as representative of each object. Respondents were asked to choose from *Very Much* (5) to *Not at All (1)* for each category, with (3) indicating a moderate amount. Previous research demonstrated the *SRTI* to be a reliable and valid measure both of gender role perceptions and preferences (Street & Meek, 1980; Street, Kimmel, & Kromrey, 1995a, 1995b).

Results

Factor analysis of the data of the present study yielded five consistent factors underlying the thirty-three traits: *Compassion, Intellect, Power, Deference, and Sexuality*. The *Compassion* factor included all traditional female sex role traits (*caring, compassionate, sensitive, romantic, loving, able to cry, emotional, gentle,* and *sentimental*) as did *Deference* (*easy to influence, passive, dependent*). These traits were seen as stereotypically feminine in sex role data collected by Broverman, Vogel, Broverman, Clarkson, and Rosenkrantz (1972), using the *Bem Sex Role Inventory* (Bem, 1981), and in the validation study of the *SRTI* (Street & Meek, 1980). Interestingly, consistent with the Broverman study, administrators in the present study appeared to differentiate between the more desirable and less desirable feminine traits. Feminine traits apparently seen as desirable were associated with the *Compassion* factor; feminine traits seen as less desirable were associated with the *Deference* factor.

Three factors were seen as masculine: *Intellect* (*self-disciplined, logical, analytical, intelligent,* and *rational*), *Power* (*achievement-oriented, competitive, assertive, successful at work, authoritative, leadership ability, self-confident, independent, takes risks, aggressive, dominating*), and *Sexuality* (*sexually aggressive, physically attractive,* and *skilled lover*); all of these were rated as masculine on the *BSRI* or the *SRTI* validation study.

Estimates of scores on each factor were computed as the mean response to items loading on the factor. The median internal consistency reliability for the resulting scales was 0.79.

Means and standard deviations for the ratings of the five objects by men and women respondents (N=321) are presented in Table 1. These data were analyzed using a three-factorized model analysis of variance. The analysis of variance model consisted of one between-subjects factor (respondent gender) and two within-subjects factors (object rated and response factor). No significant main effect was obtained for respondent gender, $F(1,222)$=0.04, p>.05. Significant main effects were obtained for object rated $F(4,888)$=444.20, p<.01, and response factor, $F(4,888)$=450.98, p<.01. In addition, the three first-order interactions were statistically significant, *Gender X Object*, $F(4,888)$=3.38, p<.03, *Gender X Factor*, $F(4,888)$=2.57, p<.05, and *Object X Factor*, $F(16,3552)$=301.57, p<.01. Finally, the second-order interaction (*Gender X Object X Factor*) was also statistically significant, $F(116,3552)$=6.46, p<.01.

Because the second-order interaction was statistically significant, differences in cell means were evaluated to interpret the obtained effects. Contrasts between individual means were conducted using Dunn's Test to control the familywise Type I error rate at .05. In addition to the criterion of statistical significance of differences, the magnitude of the differences was considered in the interpretation of the results. Cohen (1988, 1992) described a medium effect, that which is visible to the "naked eye," as a difference between means that is one-half of a standard deviation. The pooled estimate of the standard deviation of the SRTI is approximately 0.56 for these data, so differences between means that approached 0.28 points were considered to be substantively significant and are the only differences that will be described below.

Ideal Woman
Both men and women most valued *Intellect* and *Compassion* in their conception of their ideal woman (see Figure 1), followed by *Power* and *Sexuality*, which received equal evaluations. *Deference* was the least esteemed trait. A comparison of women's and men's profiles found no differences in the relative levels of strength assigned to *Ideal Woman* for all factors.

Ideal Man
Women placed the greatest value on both *Intellect* and *Compassion* in their conception of the ideal man (see Figure 2), followed by *Power* and *Sexuality*, which received equal evaluations. *Deference* was deemed to be least desirable trait. Male administrators' ratings placed a unique value on *Intellect*, a masculine factor, in their conceptions of the ideal man. *Compassion, Power, and Sexuality* were second, third, and fourth in importance, and *Deference* was least important. Men's and women's responses did not differ significantly .

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations of Ratings
of Five Objects, by Respondent Gender

Object Rated	Respondent Gender	Factor				
		Compassion	Intellect	Power	Sexuality	Deference
Ideal Man	Female	4.19 (0.55)	4.40 (0.53)	3.80 (0.45)	3.75 (0.67)	2.13 (0.69)
	Male	3.96 (0.57)	4.51 (0.53)	3.87 (0.49)	3.72 (0.75)	2.18 (0.69)
Most Men	Female	2.49 (0.56)	3.00 (0.59)	3.67 (0.47)	3.13 (0.54)	2.71 (0.72)
	Male	2.66 (0.54)	2.86 (0.58)	3.35 (0.50)	3.00 (0.54)	2.70 (0.62)
Ideal Woman	Female	4.27 (0.46)	4.38 (0.55)	3.73 (0.47)	3.66 (0.73)	2.18 (0.72)
	Male	4.19 (0.50)	4.43 (0.56)	3.68 (0.47)	3.80 (0.70)	2.39 (0.74)
Most Women	Female	3.94 (0.47)	2.96 (0.59)	2.62 (0.52)	2.78 (0.55)	3.44 (0.65)
	Male	3.77 (0.52)	2.83 (0.55)	2.73 (0.45)	2.86 (0.51)	3.28 (0.61)
Yourself	Female	3.85 (0.60)	3.84 (0.57)	3.42 (0.50)	3.14 (0.67)	2.60 (0.71)
	Male	3.53 (0.47)	3.96 (0.54)	3.62 (0.52)	3.29 (0.67)	2.54 (0.65)

Note: n=156 for female respondents; n=165 for male respondents.
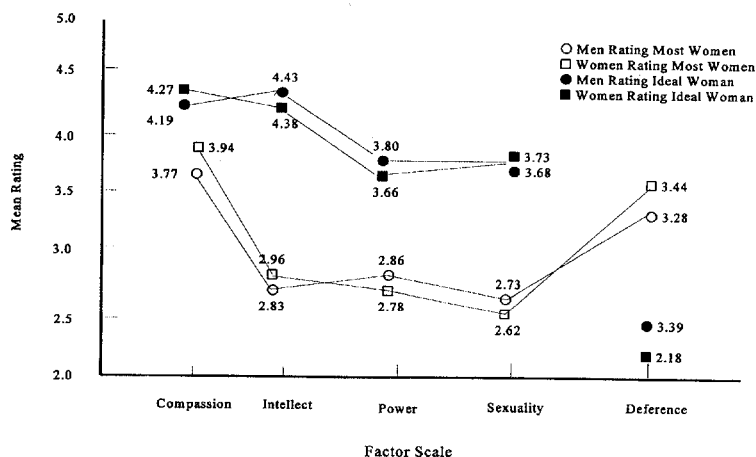
Most Women

Female respondents perceived *Most Women* differently from the *Ideal Woman* (see Figure 1), identifying them most in terms of *Compassion*, followed by *Deference*. No significant difference was obtained between *Intellect* and *Sexuality*, the third and fourth most representative factors, or between *Sexuality* and *Power*, the fourth and fifth most representative. *Intellect*, however, was rated significantly higher than *Power*.

Male respondents identified *Most Women* most in terms of *Compassion*, with *Deference* the second most characteristic trait. Men did not differentiate among the three remaining factors (*Sexuality*, *Intellect*, and *Power*) for this object.

Figure 1

Female and Male Administrator Ratings
of *Ideal Woman* and *Most Women*

Most Men

Women respondents perceived *Most Men* differently from the way they perceived the *Ideal Man*; most men were seen to be best described in terms of *Power* (see Figure 2), followed by *Sexuality* and *Intellect*. *Deference* and *Compassion* were the fourth and fifth most representative traits.

Men also ordered the traits associated with *Most Men* and the *Ideal Man* differently. *Most Men* were perceived in terms of traditional masculine norms and were seen to be least characterized by traits associated with the feminine.

Figure 2

Female and Male Administrator Ratings
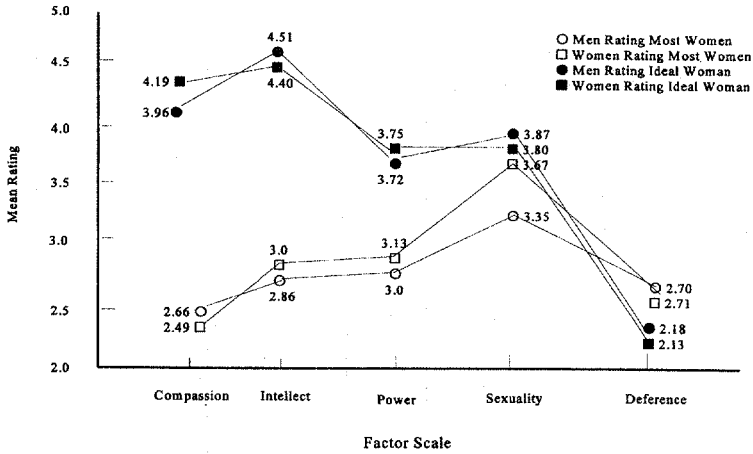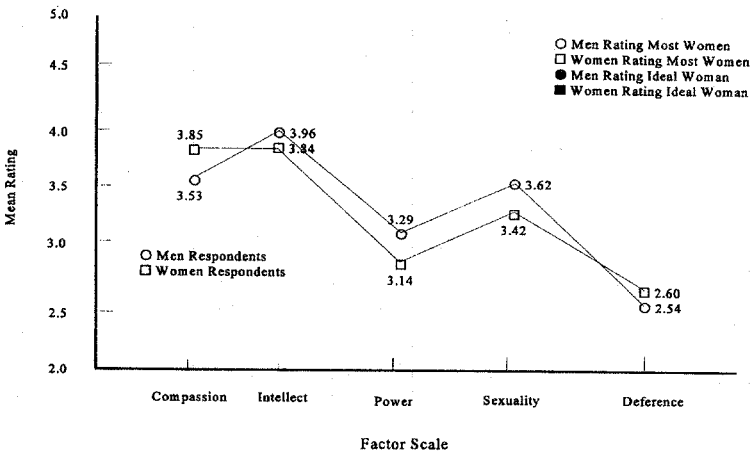### of *Ideal Man* and *Most Men*

Figure 3

Female and Male Administrators, Self Ratings

One difference was manifested in comparing the profiles for *Most Men* provided by male and female respondents: while both indicated that *Power* was the most representative trait of most men, women evaluated it higher (M=3.67) than did men (M=3.35).

Self

Women perceived themselves as being most and equally characterized by *Compassion* and *Intellect*, followed by *Power*, *Sexuality*, and *Deference* (see Figure 3).

Male respondents perceived *Intellect*, the trait that was most valued for their ideal man, as most characterizing themselves. Second and third in terms of self-characterization, and not significantly different from each other, were *Power* and *Compassion*, which were followed by *Deference*.

Comparisons of the profiles of women and men for *Self* indicate that women saw themselves as exhibiting higher levels of *Compassion* (M=3.85 vs. 3.53), but the groups did not differ significantly on other traits.

Senior Administrators

The sample contained a high number of female administrators (n=156, 49%), which may be accounted for by the inclusion of administrators in entry-level positions. Thus, the results may not be representative of the typical perceptions and ideals of university administrators. For that reason, separate analyses were conducted for senior administrators and junior administrators and the two groups were compared (see Table 2).

The members of the senior group were those holding the titles of Executive Officer, Associate or Assistant Vice President, Dean, or department head (n=67; 19 women; 48 men); excluded from this classification were supervisors, coordinators, and other junior administrators. Thus, although women represented 49% of the sample, only 28% of senior administrators were women. Sixty-three percent of the senior administrators were Caucasian, 30% were Hispanic, and 5% were African American. Only two senior administrators were under the age of 41; 44% were between 41 and 50; and 52% were over 50. Over 76% earned above $75,000 per year (one indicator that we had indeed identified senior level individuals).

Table 2 presents means and standard deviations of ratings of the five objects for senior administrators. As was the case for the sample as a whole, female and male senior administrators' ratings demonstrated that they had very similar conceptions of ideal and typical gender roles. The 25 comparisons that were analyzed uncovered only a single significant difference: women rated *Most Men* more highly on *Intellect* than did men (M=3.11 vs. 2.83).

Table 2

Means and Standard Deviations of Ratings
of Five Objects, by Administrative Level

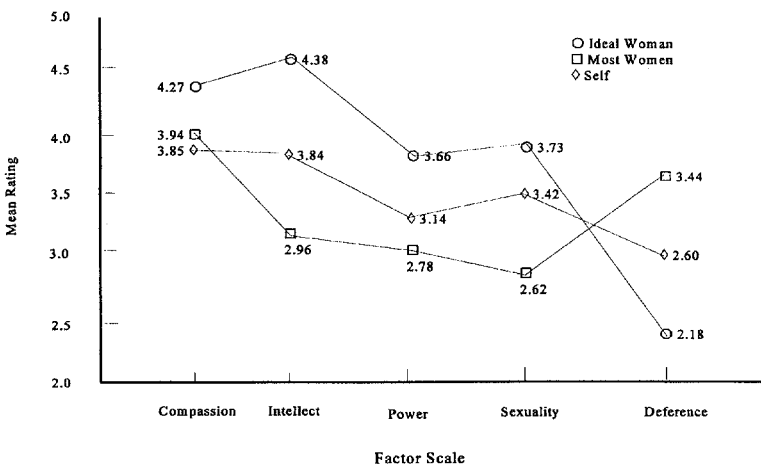| Object Rated	Respondent Gender	Factor				
		Compassion	Intellect	Power	Sexuality	Deference
Ideal Man	Sr. Admin.	3.75 (0.63)	4.51 (0.52)	3.70 (0.52)	3.79 (0.70)	2.16 (0.62)
	Jr. Admin.	4.16 (0.53)	4.44 (0.54)	3.88 (0.46)	3.72 (0.72)	2.15 (0.71)
Most Men	Sr. Admin.	2.97 (0.61)	2.91 (0.50)	3.46 (0.46)	2.89 (0.48)	2.64 (0.58)
	Jr. Admin.	2.47 (0.49)	2.93 (0.61)	3.52 (0.52)	3.10 (0.55)	2.72 (0.69)
Ideal Woman	Sr. Admin.	4.05 (0.51)	4.41 (0.57)	3.46 (0.52)	3.65 (0.66)	2.34 (0.74)
	Jr. Admin.	4.28 (0.47)	4.40 (0.55)	3.77 (0.44)	3.75 (0.73)	2.27 (0.74)
Most Women	Sr. Admin.	3.40 (0.51)	2.86 (0.55)	2.78 (0.46)	2.77 (0.51)	3.27 (0.60)
	Jr. Admin.	3.86 (0.50)	2.90 (0.58)	2.65 (0.49)	2.83 (0.53)	3.38 (0.64)
Yourself	Sr. Admin.	3.57 (0.55)	4.09 (0.47)	3.67 (0.51)	3.49 (0.76)	2.52 (0.58)
	Jr. Admin	3.71 (0.60)	3.85 (0.57)	3.48 (0.52)	3.15 (0.64)	2.58 (0.70)

Note: n=67 for senior administrators; n=254 for junior administrators.

ANOVAs were conducted to compare the preferences and perceptions of senior administrators and junior female and male administrators. Of the 50 comparisons, 10 revealed significant differences. Senior and junior male administrators differed on three ratings: the *Ideal Man* of the junior administrators had higher levels of *Compassion* (M=4.04 vs. 3.78); the *Ideal Woman* of the junior administrators had higher levels of *Power* (M=3.75 vs. 3.49); and the senior administrators perceived *Most Men* as having higher levels of *Compassion* (M=2.98 vs. 2.52).

Greater differences existed between senior and junior female administrators: both the *Ideal Man* and the *Ideal Woman* of junior female administrators had higher levels of *Compassion* than was the case with female senior administrators (M=4.26 vs. 3.67; 4.31 vs. 4.00, respectively). As in the case of male administrators, senior female administrators scored *Most Men* as having higher levels of *Compassion* than did junior female administrators (M=2.95 vs. 2.43). The junior female administrators perceived the *Ideal Woman* as having higher levels of *Power*, and the senior female administrators perceived themselves as having greater levels of *Power* than did the junior administrators (M=3.78 vs. 3.38; 3.62 vs. 3.39, respectively). Finally, senior female administrators also perceived themselves as having greater *Intellect* and *Sexuality* than did female junior administrators (M=4.11 vs. 3.80; 3.61 vs. 3.07, respectively).

Table 4

Female Administrator Ratings of Ideal Woman, Most Women, and Self
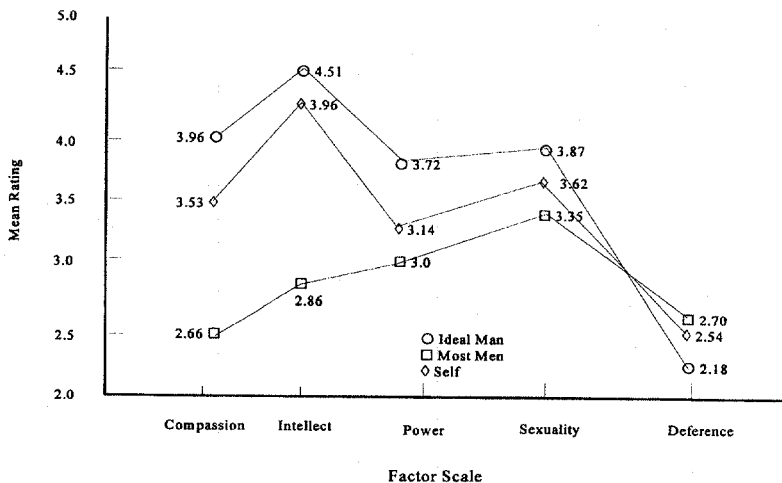
Comparisons of Ideal, Most and Self

Same-sex profiles for all women and men object indicators were plotted (see Figures 4 and 5) for the total sample. Considerable differences emerged between *Ideal Woman, Most Women,* and *Self* for female administrators, with the *Ideal Woman* demonstrating more desirable levels of all factors than did the *Self.* Female administrators, however, saw themselves as manifesting higher levels of desirability in all traits except the traditionally feminine characteristic of *Compassion,* where they gave high ratings to both themselves and *Most Women.*

Comparisons of the three male profiles indicated male administrators perceived the *Ideal Man* as demonstrating higher levels of four desirable factors and lower levels of the less desirable factor than did *Self* and *Most Men.* And, while the male administrators described themselves as being significantly higher in *Compassion* (M=3.53) and *Intellect* (M=3.96) than *Most Men* (M=2.66 and 2.86, respectively), no differences were manifested between self-ratings and ratings for *Most Men* for *Power, Sexuality,* and *Deference.*

Table 5

Male Administrator Ratings of Ideal Man, Most Men, and Self

Factor Scale

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to determine university administrators' gender role preferences and perceptions. It was found that the *Ideal Woman* for both female and male administrators had androgynous traits, combining the masculine-typed trait of *Intellect* with the feminine-typed trait of *Compassion*. Female respondents expressed similar ideals for men and women, suggesting that their ideas were expressive of an ideal person. A degree of difference existed between the ideal man and women among male administrators, with *Intellect* being identified as the single most characteristic trait of the ideal man. Although the ideal preference of male administrators for *Intellect* (M=4.51) was significantly higher than their preference for *Compassion* (M=3.96) and *Power* (M=3.87) when compared to female administrators' scores for *Ideal Man* on the same factors (i.e., *Intellect*: M=4.40; *Compassion*, 4.19; *Power*, 3.80), no significant differences between the ideals of men and women were found; this remained true when the data for senior administrators were separately analyzed. These findings are similar to those found in studies of college students, which have indicated that women's preferences for their *Ideal Woman* and *Man* were largely androgynous, while men's preferences were, to an extent, sex-typed (Scher, 1984; Street, Kimmel & Kromrey, 1995b).

Second, consistent with research on college students (Bergen & Williams, 1991; Deseran & Falk, 1982), female and male administrators perceive most persons of each sex in terms of gender-types, with most men characterized by traits included in the *Power* factor and most women by those within the *Compassion* factor. Further, both women (M=3.44) and men (M=3.28) perceived *Deference*, the factor least desirable for *Ideal Man* or *Woman*, as being representative of *Most Women*. Finally, both male and female administrators described *Most Men* with a sequence of traits that was the exact reverse of that used to describe *Most Women*; *Most Men* are characterized in terms that are least feminine and *Most Women* in terms that are least masculine, which holds true for senior administrators only.

Third, both women and men described themselves as exhibiting gender roles similar to their ideal for their gender, giving the same sequential ordering of traits for both the *Self* and the *Ideal*. Men, however, rated themselves at the same level of as *Most Men* for *Power*, *Sexuality*, and *Deference*; women saw themselves as exhibiting the same level of *Compassion* as *Most Women*. Thus, on one hand, administrators viewed themselves as being above the average for members of their sex on the traits they most valued but not as being more characterized by the traits that are most associated with their gender.

Differences and similarities between female and male administrators were found in relation to the fourth research question. Both women and men indicated that they believed that *Most Men* had significantly lower levels of three traits, compassion, intellect, and sexuality, than their *Ideal Man*. Men and women differed concerning *Power*, with women perceiving *Most Men* ($M=3.67$) and the *Ideal Man* (3.80) as being essentially equal; men, on the other hand, perceived their *Ideal Man* ($M=3.87$) as exhibiting this trait more than *Most Men* ($M=3.35$). This suggests that men continue to value traditional masculinity, as expressed in the *Power* factor, to a greater extent than do women.

At the same time, respondents apparently preferred the masculine factor, *Intellect*, to the other masculine factors, *Power* and *Sexuality*. Men particularly valued *Intellect* above all other traits for both the *Ideal Man* and for *Self*. The ratings of *Intellect*, however, may be as much a reflection of the university environment and level of education of the participants as an indication of affiliation with the norms of the masculine gender. The traits encompassed by *Intellect* are likely to be seen as necessary for career success as a university administrator.

It should be observed that the high ratings that both female and male administrators assigned to the traits clustered in *Compassion* support other research findings (Bergen & Williams,1991) that suggested that femininity has become more valued now than it has been in the past. It may be, as some researchers (Eagley & Mladinic, 1989; Etaugh & Stern, 1984) have suggested, that respondents to gender surveys are making conscious efforts not to appear anti-female. Nonetheless, there is a clear distinction between this result and the strong emphasis on masculine gender norms that was expressed by most men and many women in the 1970s (Basow, 1992). It is interesting to note that 79% of the respondents in the present study described themselves as politically moderate or liberal, which is consistent with the higher ratings given to *Compassion*. Furthermore, only 14% of the sample held that sex roles are more biologically determined than socially.

The marked similarity between female and male administrators' gender role perceptions and preferences suggests a need for further research to determine the relationship of the employment setting to gender values. One of the major principles of Holland's (1966) vocational theory is that people who choose the same work environments share a great deal in common; self selection rather than the influence of the campus environment may account for the similarities. The fact that there was only one gender difference out of a possible 25 within the senior group further supports Holland's theory, and a longitudinal study might illuminate this issue more clearly.

One of the purposes of the study was to assess the role of university administrators as models for students. University administrators appear to see themselves largely in terms of androgynous gender roles and manifest ideals that express such roles. Male ideals and perceptions were slightly sex-typed insofar as they rated *Intellect* as significantly more descriptive of their *Ideal Man* and their *Self,* while women combined a positive evaluation of *Compassion* with their preference for *Intellect.* Given the nature of the traits subsumed under *Intellect* and the professional demands placed on administrators, this probably should not be considered indicative of a pronounced sex-typing. The gender role status of this sample of women administrators appears to be androgynous, given that they defined themselves using both their feminine (*Compassion*) and masculine (*Intellect*) traits. Further, no marked differences emerged between female and male administrators' perceptions and preferences. Substantive differences between ratings are apparent for only two factors: *Power,* for *Most Men* (women: M=3.67; men=3.35) and *Compassion* for *Self* (women: M=3.85; men=3.53).

One noteworthy observation to be made is that both women and men saw *Most Women* and *Most Men* as sex-typed: women are characterized by *Compassion* and *Deference* and men by *Power.* Scher (1984) and other researchers (McCormick & Jesser, 1983; Williams, 1976) have suggested that university students and faculty members (Street, Kimmel, & Kromrey, 1995a) value androgyny both intellectually and in the abstract but that they continue to perceive sex-typed models. This observation may remain true and apply to university administrators. The androgynous ideals that administrators reported for people in general and for the self conflict with their observations about *Most Women* and *Most Men.* Composite profiles suggest that androgyny may exist in the abstract for administrators but may not express reality.

Implications

The congruence in women's and men's responses and their relatively androgynous preferences imply acceptance of a broad range of gender roles. Results of this study suggest that administrators value and model androgynous gender roles but that, among members of the sample, sex-typed stereotypes of women and men remain strong.

While the 63% return rate and the close approximation of the sample to the percent of women administrators on the campus locale suggest that the participants are fairly representative, it is not known to what extent these results can be generalized to administrators of other institutions. Should other institutions elect to assess gender role perceptions on their

campus to discover if similar stereotyping exists, it would be incumbent on them to take appropriate action, as defined by the *Student Learning Imperative* (American College Personnel Association [ACPA], 1994). This document sets out the characteristics of a learning-oriented campus environment, and, as a means of addressing administrators' sex typed perceptions, suggests three areas of action: policy development, educational forums and training, and continuous research.

The expectation that most people embody traditional gender traits may have an indirect impact on policy, the first area for action. For example, expectations of sex-typed behavior could prove detrimental in dealing with student issues, such as child care, date rape, and sexual harassment. The ACPA document states that student learning and personal development are the primary goals of undergraduate education. It noted, however, that it is impossible to distinguish aspects of the university environment that affect academic learning from those that affect personal development and that the environments should be intentionally designed to encourage dialogue and create a supportive culture that is free from restrictive stereotypes. At this time, it appears that universities and colleges might best serve their constituents through a continued examination of their policies, particularly those relevant to women, and through the exploration of gender issues with students. Thus, administrators are encouraged to be aware of the sex-typed expectations that may underlie their belief systems and thus influence their interactions with students and faculty members.

In the present study, the authors were surprised to find that gender stereotypes about the traits of most women and men persist in today's environment, given all the attention that has been paid to the detrimental effects of stereotyping any group. Findings of persistent stereotyping also have implications for training, the second area for action. *The Student Learning Imperative* (ACPA, 1994) issues "a clarion call . . . to form partnerships" (p. 118) to facilitate goal achievement. Training seems a particularly appropriate area in which this should occur. For example, student affairs leaders could join with campus teaching enhancement centers to offer workshops and seminars for mixed groups of administrators, faculty members, and students. Together, they would be able to gain greater understanding of how gender roles can constrict or enhance one's life. Showing students how feminine and masculine traits can be incorporated into family and career enables those students to come to see possibilities for handling their own gender issues. In these workshops, the three groups—student affairs and other administrators, faculty members, and students—can design activities to promote a "healthy environment," including: program planning for student organizations; residence hall instructor and advisor sensitization and training; university lectures; career development counseling and services; student leadership training.

Finally, the *Student Learning Imperative* indicates that "student affairs policies and programs are based on promising practices from the research on student learning and institution-specific assessment data" (p. 121). Ongoing research to clarify change and growth are clearly warranted.

Acceptance of all gender role choices is important for administrators. Psychological health and self-esteem are founded on freely chosen belief and behaviors (Bednar & Peterson, 1995). There is a need to monitor the degree to which members of university communities hold attitudes that promote such freedom of choice. This would conform to the *Student Learning Imperative* (1994), which states that student affairs staff should base their practices on institution-specific assessment data and design interventions to create an environment conducive to learning and development.

References

American College Personnel Association (1994). *The student learning imperative: Implications for student affairs*. Washington, DC: Author.

Barrax, J. (1985). A comparative career profile of female and male university administrators. *Journal of NAWDAC, 48*, 26-31.

Basow, S. (1992). *Gender stereotypes and roles*. Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Bednar, R., & Peterson, S. (1995). *Self esteem: Paradoxes and innovations in clinical theory and practice* (2nd ed.). Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

Bem, S. (1981). *Bem sex role inventory: Professional manual*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press.

Bennett, S., & Shayner, J. (1988). The role of senior administrators in women's leadership development. In M. Sagaria (Ed.). *Empowering women: Leadership development strategies on campus* (pp. 27-38). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bergen, D., & Williams, K. (1991). Sex stereotypes in the U. S. revisited: 1972-1988. *Sex Roles, 24*, 413-423.

Broverman, I., Vogel, S., Broverman, D., Clarkson, F., & Rosenkrantz, P. (1972). Sex role stereotypes: A current appraisal. *Journal of Social Issues, 28*, 59-78.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Hillsdale, NJ: Erlbaum.

Cohen, J. (1992). A power primer. *Psychological Bulletin, 112*, 155-159.

Cook, E. (1985). *Psychological androgyny*. NY: Pergamon.

Deseran, F., & Falk, W. (1982). Women as generalized other and self theory. *Sex Roles, 8*, 283-297.

Eagley, A., & Mladinic, A. (1989). Gender stereotypes and attitudes towards women and men. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin, 15*, 543-558.

Etaugh, C., & Spiller, B. (1989). Attitudes towards women: Comparison of traditional-aged and older college students. *Journal of College Student Development, 30*, 41-46.

Etaugh, C., & Stern, J. (1984). Person perceptions: Effects of employment status, marital status and age of child. *Sex Roles, 11*, 413-424.

Hamrick, F., & Carlisle, W. (1990). Gender diversity in student affairs: Administrative perceptions and recommendations. *NASPA Journal, 27,* 306-311.

Holland, J. (1966). *The psychology of vocational choice.* Waltham, MA: Blaisdell.

Holland, A., & Andre, T. (1992). College students' attitudes toward women: A three-dimensional approach. *College Student Journal, 26,* 253-259.

Holland, D., & Eisenhart, M. (1988). Moments of discontent: University women and the gender status quo. *Anthropology and Education Quarterly,* 19, 115-138.

Hughes, M. (1989). Feminization and student affairs. *NASPA Journal, 27,* 18-27.

Kalof, L., & Cargill, T. (1991). Fraternity and sorority membership and gender dominance attitudes. *Sex Roles, 25,* 417-423.

Kaplan, S., & Helly, D. (1984). An agenda for senior women administrators. In M. Kramer (Ed.), *Women in higher education administration* (New directions for higher education, pp. 67-73). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Langton, P. (1996). *The social world of drugs.* Minneapolis/St Paul: West.

Lewis, J., Dana, R., & Blevins, J. (1994). *Substance abuse counseling.* Pacific Grove, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Maitland, C. (1990). The inequitable treatment of women faculty in higher education. In L. Welch (Ed.), *Women in higher education* (pp. 248-254). NY: Praeger.

Martin, P., & Hummer, R. (1989). Fraternities and rape on campus. *Gender and Society,3,* 457-473.

McCormick, N., & Jesser, C. (1983). The courtship game: Power in the sexual encounter. In E. Allgeier & N. McCormick (Eds.), *Changing boundaries: Gender roles and sexual behavior.* Palo Alto, CA: Mayfield.

McEwen, M., Williams, T., & Engstrom, C. (1991). Feminization in student affairs: A qualitative investigation. *Journal of College Student Development, 32,* 440-446.

Reid, P., Roberts, C., & Ozbek, I. (1990). Occupational status and gender-role orientation among university women. *Psychological Reports, 67,* 1064-1066.

Scher, D. (1984). Sex-role contradictions: Self-perceptions and ideal perceptions. *Sex Roles, 10,* 651-56.

Street, S., & Meek, P. (1980). Greek and non-Greek student perceptions of sex roles. *Journal of the National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counselors, 43,* 10-14.

Street, S., Kimmel, E., & Kromrey, J. (1995a). University faculty gender role preferences and perceptions. *Sex Roles, 32,* 407-422.

Street, S., Kimmel, E., & Kromrey, J. (1995b). Revisiting university student gender role perceptions. *Sex Roles, 33,* 183-198.

Unger, R., & Crawford, M. (1992). *Women and gender: A feminist psychology.* NY: McGraw-Hill.

Williams, N. (1976). *Sons and daughters.* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Young, D., MacKenzie, D., & Sherif, C. (1980). In search of token women in academia. *Psychology of Women Quarterly, 4,* 508-525.

❖